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ERRATA.

Page 17. In the notice of 'Prisoners of Poverty Abroad,' for "*Miss* Campbell" read "Mrs." throughout.

Page 36, col. iii, line 42. For "seat" read "sect."

Page 94, col. ii, last line. For "ethnoid" read "ethmoid." Col. iii, line 4. For "Wistar's" read "Morton's."

Page 178, col. i, line 23. For "one-fortieth" read "one-eighty-second part."

Page 383, col. ii, lines 26, 27 from bottom. For "West Virginia" read "Virginia."

Page 442, col. ii, line 30 from bottom. For "Lawrence" read "Topeka."

The Nation

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OFFICE OF THE

Atlantic Mutual

INSURANCE COMPANY,

NEW YORK, January 23d, 1889.

The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following Statement of its affairs on the 31st of December, 1888:

Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....	$3,865,166 38
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888.....	1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums.....	$5,253,404 39
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....	$3,867,269 52
Losses paid during the same period.....	$1,998,897 36
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$687,237 98

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....	$7,501,315 00
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Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....	1,374,912 12
Cash in Bank.....	252,812 02
Amount.....	$12,167,986 34

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[*Continued on next page.*]

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A WEEKLY JOURNAL DEVOTED TO

Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

FOUNDED 1865.

[*Entered at the New York City Post-office as second-class mail matter.*]

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Schools.

[*Continued from first page.*]

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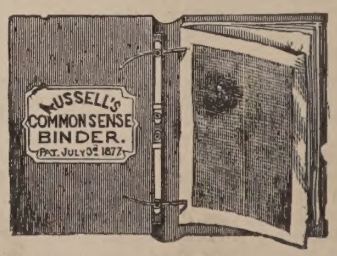

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1889.

The Week.

MR. ROOSEVELT has established a fresh claim upon the admiration of civil-service reformers by the summary and public manner in which he has brought to book an offending Republican spoilsman out in Michigan. Observing the open contempt displayed for civil-service reform by such high officials as Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson, Mr. Geer, the new Collector of Customs at Port Huron, Mich., was no sooner installed than he began to express his own similar feelings. In an interview which has not been repudiated, Mr. Geer was reported as strenuously condemning the Civil-Service Law, and as stating his belief that the proper theory to adopt in the management of his office is that implied in the old adage, "To the victors belong the spoils." Mr. Roosevelt saw this interview, and immediately resolved to give Mr. Geer a lesson. The Secretary of the local Board of Civil-Service Examiners at Port Huron had asked that the Board be allowed to hold a competitive examination for inspectors in the Custom-house, but had not accompanied the request with a statement of the number of names on the eligible list. The Commission accordingly refused the request, and demanded a complete statement of all the names on the eligible list. Mr. Roosevelt, speaking in behalf of the Commission, quotes Mr. Geer's interview, and says:

"Mr. Geer being an appointive officer of the Custom-house, whose duty it is to administer the law which he thus condemns, his expressions render it especially incumbent upon the Commissioners to see that no chance whatever is given for an evasion of the law. The Commission have, of course, no control over the expression of any public officer, but they intend to make it their particular duty to prevent any administration of the law in accordance with the theories enunciated by Mr. Geer. They will tolerate no violation and no evasion of the statute. The examinations are open to all, Democrats and Republicans alike; all can apply who choose; all those applying in proper form will be examined and marked with positive impartiality, and will be certified in their order to the appointing officer."

Of course the Republican spoilsmen are growing very angry with Mr. Roosevelt for the utter recklessness with which he is treading on their corns. Even the Indianapolis *Journal*, which had been getting to be a pretty good civil-service-reform newspaper, was so much offended by the vigor and impartiality of Mr. Roosevelt's asasults upon the abuses committed under the Republican Postmaster in its city that it has backslidden, and begins to talk about the "injudicious acts of the Civil-Service Commission," and says that while it "is composed of able and honest men, they are no more able and honest than Postmaster Wallace"—whose ability was illustrated by his confession that he knew next to nothing about the way things were managed in the office of which he is the nominal head. Another Republican organ in Indiana complains that Mr. Roosevelt is "trying to exalt himself at the expense of the Administration," and accuses him of being a "Mugwump in disguise." Fortunately Mr. Roosevelt does not care a particle what the spoilsmen say about him.

The consular appointments made on Monday, so far as we are able to judge, are respectable, but rather of a personal than of a political caste, illustrating the adage that kissing goes by favor. The assignment of Mr. Eugene Schuyler to Cairo is exceptionally good, and his is perhaps the only name that is likely to be "held up" by the Senate. His work on 'American Diplomacy' is held by some influential Senators to be un-American. This does not mean that he has been untruthful, but that he has exposed too freely the blunders made and the injury done by some of our diplomatic agents in the past. The error which he committed in his allusions to the late Elihu B. Washburne was amply apologized for and corrected in the second edition of his work. It would seem that there was room here for the exercise of magnanimity on the part of Mr. Washburne's relatives and friends.

The reappointment of "Joe" Manley as Postmaster of Augusta, Me., though a Democrat had to be removed before his term had expired in order to give him the place, is the theme of a despatch from Augusta to the New York *Tribune*, so complacent that "Joe" himself may be the author of it. It says that there is general satisfaction over the change, and that "a nephew of Mr. Blaine will be assistant postmaster." There is probably nowhere in the country a more thoroughly solidified Blaine man than "Joe" Manley. His chief occupation for years has been to travel about the country and be interviewed on the question of Blaine's strength with the people. No other man ever knew the exact whereabouts and dimensions of so many "Blaine cyclones" and "prairie fires" as he. He was always prepared to give assurance that "Blaine would sweep the country" at any given time, and we have not the slightest doubt that he is making a prediction of that kind at this moment. His chief exploit since Harrison's election has been the defeat of a ballot-reform bill in the Maine Legislature. There is no "reform nonsense" of any kind about him.

The sympathies of all right-minded people will go out towards that eminent Republican Boy "Bob" McCord, who has been twice within reach of a good office, and has in each case lost it because his "pull" on the President was not so good as that of the President's son. McCord, soon after the President entered upon his duties, picked out the office of Postal-Stamp Agent in this city as the place which suited him. It had a salary of $2,500 and there was little or no work to do. He told Senator Hiscock and "Tom" Platt of his choice, and they promised him he should have it. He was waiting confidently for it to come, when he read in the newspapers one morning the announcement that it had been given to a gentleman in Pittsburgh who had been a college chum of Russell Harrison. Bob was indignant, and so were Messrs. Platt and Hiscock, who assured him that he should have something "equally as good" without fail. They finally agreed with him upon a similar place, that of Postal-Note Agent, and went to Mr. Wanamaker and requested it. Mr. Wanamaker informed them that it had just been given to a friend of Russell Harrison's business partner. Bob's wrath when he heard of this second disappointment was naturally great, but as Russell Harrison has now sailed for Europe, he is in hope of getting something "equally as good" before long.

We do not see upon what principle of law or equity a customs tax is levied a second time on an oil portrait which has been returned to the foreign artist to be retouched. The ruling quoted in justification of the levy says, that "dutiable merchandise imported and afterwards exported, although it may have paid duty on the first importation, is liable to duty on every subsequent importation into the United States." If an oil portrait can be justly termed merchandise when it is not intended to be sold, about which there may be doubt, it seems certain that the word "exportation" does not apply to it if is not sent out of the country for a commercial purpose. If Mr. Vanderbilt had ordered a picture from Bonnat, and, after paying duties on it and keeping it some time, had sent it back to Paris for sale, and had bought it in at the sale, the picture would have acquired a new commercial character. It would have been exported and reimported. But the case recently decided at the Treasury Department, by which Mr. Vanderbilt is fined $3,000 for having his portrait retouched by the artist who painted it, is very different. It looks like a case of inexcusable extortion.

At the sale of M. Secrétan's pictures, Millet's "Angelus" was bought for the gallery of the Louvre for $110,600, after spirited competition by Americans, who had bid $110,000. Upon the face of things it would appear that the French bid was the highest, but in reality the American bid was $33,000 higher, the duty on works of art being 30 per cent. The price which the New York bidders were willing to pay for the picture was $143,000—that is, $110,000 to the owner and $33,000 as a fine levied by our Government upon higher education, cultivation, and taste. Something like $15,000 was paid by Mr. William Schaus as a penalty for bringing Rembrandt's

"Gilder" into the country. There has been a large distribution of fines on our most public-spirited citizens for offences of this nature, and the infliction goes on all the time. It is something to reflect upon that in every competition for the highest works of art in Europe, American bidders are handicapped 30 per cent. by the tariff. Perhaps the French Government were resolved that Millet's "Angelus" should not go out of the country. Perhaps they would have bid more than $143,000, but perhaps not. We have the satisfaction of reflecting that *our* laws gave *them* the advantage of $33,000 in the bidding.

On the 7th day of March last the Pennsylvania Legislature passed a resolution reciting that the Hon. Simon Cameron would, on the following day, have reached the ninetieth year of a life "unexcelled in public interest and importance in the history of the State and nation," and that, in view of this fact, they (the Senate and House of Representatives) would proceed in a body to his residence and pay their respects to him. This plan was carried out with all the outward marks of admiration and regard that could have been paid to any aged philosopher or statesman. The resolution, be it observed, did not affirm that Mr. Cameron's career had been useful to the State or nation, or that it had been respectable, but merely that it had been interesting and important. In what ways it had been of interest and importance was left to the recollection or the imagination of each member voting for or participating in the ceremony. The Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph*, in a full-page review, recalls the principal events in Mr. Cameron's life. It is the picture of a man who had rare qualifications for playing upon the selfishness and greed of his fellow-men, and who so used the baser passions of others as to advance himself to high position, and maintain himself during a long life as a party "boss."

Among the incidents called up by his death is the trifling circumstance that, during his brief career as Secretary of War, he put the sum of $2,000,000 of public money into the hands of one Alexander Cummings, a political henchman of his, and a delegate to the Chicago Convention of the previous year, to spend as he (Cummings) might see fit for the prosecution of the war. The money was nominally in the hands of three respectable citizens of New York; but as it was subject to Cummings's draft without any restrictions, it became evident that the use of the names of Messrs. Dix, Blatchford, and Opdyke was intended to turn suspicion away from Cummings and Cameron. A committee of Congress, of which Mr. Dawes of Massachusetts was chairman, soon got after Cummings, and scared him and his chief so that they redeposited in the Treasury $1,750,000 of the money. There was a long and tedious effort to find out what had been done with the balance. At last it was found that Cummings had made a contract for 75,000 pairs of shoes at $2.20 per pair, being 30 cents above the market price, and that he had freighted a schooner, appropriately called the *Catiline*, with a lot of miscellaneous goods, for Annapolis, which were neither hospital stores nor army rations, embracing among other things twenty-five casks of Scotch ale and ten casks of London porter. This was, of course, a private speculation. When Cummings was questioned about the loading of this schooner, he denied all knowledge of it, and repeated his denial several times under oath. Finally, a letter from him was found addressed to Cameron, stating that he had loaded the *Catiline* with the goods at Cameron's own order.

A week's discussion of their new secret-ballot law by the Connecticut press has resulted in showing that the measure is so crudely and clumsily drawn, and so filled with contradictions, that nobody can tell definitely whether it will amount to anything in practice or not. The chief merit which it was supposed to have was in securing a secret ballot, yet the Hartford *Courant* (Rep.) unites with the New Haven *Register* (Dem.) in the belief that under its provisions secret voting will be optional. The latter authority says: "You can vote secretly if you choose; you are expected to vote straight, and you may let the men in the polling-place see your ballot if you want to." If this be the correct view, the law is worse than useless—it is an aid to dishonesty. A more perfect system for keeping track of bribed voters all the way to the ballot-box could not be devised. Under the law, the State is to supply the official paper upon which all ballots are to be printed. The printing is to be done by the political organizations. There is here no obstacle whatever to printing "split" or "crooked" tickets, but rather a help towards printing them. A voter can get a ballot outside the polling-place or inside, as he pleases. This will permit him to have his ballot marked for him to suit a boss or briber before he enters, to take it in with him, and to bring out the one he receives inside as proof that he has voted the first one and kept his bargain. The law provides an envelope in which he may place his ballot, but is clumsily worded in respect to the use of this envelope, which it does not make compulsory. The provision at best is of doubtful value. The envelopes could easily be imitated, the ballots obtained and marked outside could be placed in them and sealed outside, and the official envelope received inside could be used as proof that the first envelope was deposited. Finally, it was supposed that workers of all kinds were prohibited from coming nearer than 100 feet of the polls. The law merely says that "No person shall peddle or offer any ballot to another person" within that distance. This allows all "workers," except ticket-peddlers, the same liberty as heretofore.

The *Evening Post* published on Thursday an examination of the Behring Sea question by Mr. Robert Rayner of Salem, Mass., which strikes us as the clearest statement yet made by any one. It is the only one we have happened to see which points out the fact that Behring Sea was not mapped at all when the treaties of 1824 and 1825 were made, and was not distinguished and separated from the North Pacific Ocean by any authority in any country until 1873. Obviously, it is easier for us to set up an exclusive claim to Behring Sea than to the North Pacific. There was no apparent design in giving a new name to this segment of the ocean; but this is a case where names are things, or are made to serve the purpose of things, and they have served to create the impression very widely among us that we have more rights in Behring Sea than we should have if there were no such division of waters on the map. Mr. Rayner's communication is well worth study in other particulars also.

A good example to county-fair managers is afforded by the Sussex County (New Jersey) Agricultural Society, which, in the prospectus of its annual fair for next September, offers four special premiums amounting to $100 (with entrance fees added) for "best and fastest walking team, to be exhibited and driven in farm-harness to farm-wagon." This is an unusual provision and one very worthy of imitation. It will result in more direct practical good to a farming region than many "agricultural horse-trots" between fourth-rate animals imported for the occasion, which tend very little, if any, to "improve the breed of horses" of the neighborhood, and do tend somewhat to deteriorate the breed of men. And even if the road-horse be, in fact, slowly improved through the stimulus to breeding afforded by the trotting exhibitions, still, that is of less consequence than improvement of farm-horses. It is pleasant, and sometimes very convenient, to be carried swiftly along the road (though for this you must have good roads, and they are few), but that is only an affair of now and then, while the farm-horse is at work every day and all day, so to speak, and half-a-mile an hour increase in his speed means dollars in bank for his owner.

The Boston *Commercial Bulletin* publishes some statistics regarding the production of sugar from sorghum in the State of Kansas, from which it appears that with buildings and machinery costing $38,500, about 100,000 pounds of sugar, 36,000 gallons of molasses, and 6,000 bushels of seed were turned out at Conway Springs, which sold for $13,820. The cost of producing the same was $14,836—net loss, $1,016. A bounty of two cents per pound was paid by the State for the sugar produced, which gave the sugar-producers a profit of $983 for the season's operations. The tariff bounty of two cents per pound added to the State bounty of two cents amounts to more than the price of good West India sugar in bond in the New York market in ordinary seasons. The *Bulletin* does not find much in the figures to warrant the belief that sorghum will crowd the Sugar Trust to the wall very soon.

Mr. Robert P. Porter recently addressed a letter to the editor of the Albany *Argus*, complaining that the latter had misrepre-

sented him. Among other things Mr. Porter said: "Since I have had any opinions whatever on the subject of the tariff, I have been an earnest believer and advocate of protection." The *Argus* reminds Mr. Porter that he contributed to the *Galaxy Magazine*, vol. xxiv., No. 6, for December, 1877, an article over his signature, entitled "The Truth about the Strike," in which he said:

"The mistaken system of imports has done much to limit the field for our production. The Government, in attempting to protect American industries, has introduced into our tariff laws many features that oppress our manufactories, close important markets, and thereby diminish the healthy demand for labor. It is not necessary to call attention to the prostration of the woollen mills. What has all the Government nursing done for them? Mr. Mitchell, the British judge at Philadelphia in the class of 'wool and silk fabrics,' in his recent report, says: 'The hours of labor in America are sixty-six per week, against fifty-six and a half in England, and the wages average 25 per cent. more than in this country. But the cost of living in America is considerably higher, and I do not think the operatives are in any better position at present than with us.' And yet for years the mistaken cry has gone up that American operatives wanted protection against the pauper workmen of the Old World!"

In his letter to the *Argus* Mr. Porter said that "of the twenty experts thus far decided upon to aid in the census work, fifteen were employed on the tenth census *in the same capacity* by Mr. Walker," and that "of the five new appointments made by the present Superintendent of the Census, *not one represents manufacturing associations*." The *Argus* points out that Mr. S. N. D. North, who had charge of the newspaper statistics under Gen. Walker, has been appointed the expert in charge of wool and woollen statistics by Mr. Porter; and that at the time he was appointed by Mr. Porter as census expert he had been appointed Secretary of the National Association of Woollen Manufacturers, being paid $5,000 a year to furnish brains for the Association and plead the cause of high taxes upon clothing. On the whole, it appears to have been a mistake of judgment on Mr. Porter's part to have written a letter to the editor of the *Argus*.

The *Sun* has a series of letters hitherto unpublished relating to the political campaign of 1864, showing that the "Frémont movement" of that year was a very serious matter, and that it did really put the Presidential ticket of Lincoln and Johnson in serious peril—contrary to the jaunty treatment of that subject by Messrs. Nicolay and Hay in the June number of the *Century Magazine*. The truth is that, although the Cleveland Convention which nominated Frémont and Cochrane was thinly attended, the division in the Republican ranks was just cause of alarm. Mr. Lincoln knew this quite as well as anybody. The defection of the Germans in the West was especially alarming. The final withdrawal of Frémont averted the danger, but even after this the State of New York was carried by only 6,749 votes, and Connecticut by only 2,406, while New Jersey was lost by 7,301. In Pennsylvania the Republican majority of 89,000 in 1860 was whittled down to 20,075. These figures are more decisive than anybody's random recollections of the state of the public mind in the autumn of 1864. The question has often been asked, how it happened that Montgomery Blair resigned as a member of Lincoln's Cabinet on the same day that Frémont withdrew from the Presidential contest. The common talk at the time was, that Frémont made Blair's withdrawal the condition of his own. He looked upon the Blairs as his enemies and as the cause of his misfortunes. Perhaps no evidence can be found to show the existence of a bargain of which Blair was the victim. Perhaps Blair did not look upon himself in the light of a victim. He published a letter in which he said that he had tendered his resignation in order to restore harmony among the friends of the Union cause. That might mean much or little, but the coincidence between his withdrawal and Frémont's, and the great importance of the latter event in the pending campaign, certainly lent plausibility to the current rumor that the one thing hinged upon the other.

Public opinion in Italy was greatly concerned during the first part of June with the action of the Italian consul at Trieste. By the terms of a convention between Italy and Austria made in 1884, Italian subjects living in Austrian territory can dispose of their property in accordance with the Italian laws of inheritance. In accordance with this, an Italian notary undertook to preside at the opening of the will of a deceased Italian, and to take charge of the distribution of legacies, but was excluded by Consul Durando. When the affair became known in Italy, it stirred up the Irredentists mightily, and they at once launched a motion of censure in the Chamber. This gave Crispi a chance to make a speech on the whole subject of Italian foreign politics, and particularly on the subject of the Italian consular service, in which he made some surprising statements. He fairly rivalled Bismarck in denunciation of the officiousness of many foreign consuls, saying that the whole body was more or less infected with the *morbus consularis*. Obsolete and senseless methods he declared to be common in the conduct of consular business—for example, he had found that all the cipher despatches were written in French. He said that many of Italy's consuls, a few years ago, owed their appointment to the Pope, and that even now a few had been named by that dignitary. Naturally, he promised thorough reforms in this branch of the public business. What he had to say about the new prestige of Italy due to her foreign alliances was probably as flattering to national pride as he meant it to be. He even went so far as to adopt Minghetti's phrase, "In any reconstruction of the map of Europe, Italy has everything to gain and nothing to lose." This could be taken as a glance either at the old Italian provinces now under Austrian jurisdiction, or at Nice and Savoy.

A political and historical document of much interest and some importance has just been discovered in the archives of the Ministry of Public Instruction at Rome. This is the rough draught of a speech delivered on the 9th of June, 1848, by Count Mamiani, at that time First Minister of Pius IX., on the occasion of the opening of the Roman Parliament. Count Mamiani, speaking for the Pope, told the Roman Deputies that the Holy Father really made but little account of the temporal power. He preferred to live in the high sphere of his spiritual realm, in the calm atmosphere of dogma, and be connected with the lower world only by dispensing to it the word of God, and by his prayers for it, and his blessing and his absolution. This statement of his attitude was not long afterwards disavowed by Pius IX. in an allocution which he delivered at Gaeta, in which he denied expressly that any authority had been given to Count Mamiani for such an expression. It is, therefore, rather interesting to find that the rough draught of Mamiani's speech had certainly passed through the Pope's hands, since it shows a number of annotations and corrections in the well-known handwriting of Pius IX. The Italian Government considers the new-found document of so much importance that it has had it photographed, the *Temps* says, and sent a copy to every public library in the kingdom. Doubtless Signor Crispi feels some satisfaction over the detection of an almost sainted Pope in a piece of practical politics.

The resignation of his office on May 19 by President Rójas Paúl of Venezuela and its subsequent recall, in obedience to the great popular desire, are facts suggestive of considerable change in the political affairs of that country. As is well known, Venezuela has long been considered by Guzman Blanco as a private possession of his own. In easy alternation he has held the office of President and Minister to England or France for many years, and has been in reality a dictator of the most pronounced sort. Until recently, it has been nothing for him to direct the administration of domestic affairs from Paris, where he has negotiated a perfect cloud of contracts for internal improvements. His prestige was somewhat impaired, however, by his bad management of the dispute with Great Britain over the Guiana boundary. Conceding the justice of his claim, it was little short of ridiculous for him to threaten England with war, as practically he did; and the suspension of diplomatic relations between the two countries, which has lasted for more than two years, has certainly not fallen out to the advantage of Venezuela. Moreover, President Paúl has been administering the Government with vigor and economy, greatly to the satisfaction of the people, and has been understood to be decidedly in revolt against Blanco, his supposed creator. His resignation was probably intended to test the popular sentiment, and his resumption of the Presidency seems to mean an attempt to throw off the fetters of Guzman. The President's term expires in the fall, and he is not eligible to reëlection, but it is probable that some champion of his policy will be found to contest the field with the country's feudal lord.

REACTIONARY POLITICS.

THE reactionary drift in Republicanism is strikingly illustrated by the action of the Ohio State Convention last week. A candidate for Governor was to be nominated, and, despite the strong prejudice against a third term, the honor was given to Foraker, as cheap a demagogue, with the exception of "Dave" Hill, as has of late years attained high office in this country. As the *Tribune* very happily says, "the platform matches the candidate." After endorsing the Harrison Administration generally, it says: "Especially do we commend the just *and liberal* policy of the Pension Bureau in carrying out the pledges of the loyal people to the soldiers of the Union." The Pension Bureau is a branch of the Government conducted under certain laws which the Commissioner is sworn to execute. The Commissioner has no right to have either a "liberal" or a stingy policy. His only policy is to take care that the laws relating to pensions be "faithfully executed." Corporal Tanner has usurped the power to go beyond this, and do what he thinks the laws ought to justify him in doing, whether they do or not; and for this usurpation of power he is commended. Of a piece with this is the plank which declares that "we favor the passage by Congress at its next session of a proper and equitable service pension bill for all honorably discharged Union soldiers and seamen of the late war." This is the first time that a State convention has ever advanced such a demand, and it marks a pitch of extravagance that was not dreamed of a few years ago. There are nearly a million veterans not now receiving nor entitled to pensions who would be put on the pay-roll by such a bill. The rate usually proposed is $8 a month, or $96 a year, so that the carrying out of this policy would mean an addition of *nearly one hundred million dollars a year* to the expenditures of the Government—an amount far beyond the existing surplus, and so, of course, requiring increased taxation of all the people to pay annual stipends to hundreds of thousands of men who are in good health, abundantly able to earn a living, and in a large proportion of cases as "well off" as their neighbors.

The one appointment by the President which is picked out for praise is that of Patrick Egan. Here is the resolution in question:

> "We congratulate the people of Ireland on the progress of their struggle for home rule, and in this Convention we endorse the course of President Harrison in the selection for honorable position in the diplomatic service of worthy and representative Irish-American citizens."

No word of commendation for German-American citizens who have been appointed to represent the country abroad; not a syllable of praise for Americans, pure and simple, without any prefix, like Robert T. Lincoln, for example; but praise only for the man, but recently naturalized, who was appointed at the request of leading members of the murderous Clan-na-Gael organization.

No feature of the platform is more significant than the planks which are missing, and which were used by the men who prepared the platform of four years ago. In June, 1885, the Ohio Republicans held a State convention and adopted these resolutions:

> "The Republican party, which enacted the present Civil-Service Law, will faithfully maintain it, and cheerfully aid in all needed amendments to give it full force, and it is committed to extend the law to all grades of service to which it is applicable.
>
> "Ample appropriations should be made to enforce it in letter and spirit, and all laws at variance with the objects of existing reform legislation should be repealed. Having accomplished this much, the party pledges itself to still further and higher reforms; it looks with the deepest regret upon the failure of the present Administration to promote the reform of the civil service, so auspiciously begun under Republican Administration."

The platform adopted on Wednesday week has not one word to say upon the subject of civil-service reform. A Republican Civil-Service Commission has just been overhauling the administration of the Indianapolis Post-office by a Republican Postmaster, and insisting upon his discharge of a Republican gambler and other Republicans appointed in violation of the Civil-Service Law; but the Convention has not one word of praise for Mr. Roosevelt and his associates. The question is now pending at Washington whether the hundreds of clerks to be appointed in the Census Bureau shall be appointed under the spoils system, or by competitive examination under the Civil-Service Law—in other words, whether the President shall "extend the law" to a "grade of service to which it is applicable"; but the Convention does not ask such extension. Gen. Thomas M. Browne of Indiana, one of the most prominent Republican Congressmen from the West, recently came out strongly in favor of abolishing the Civil-Service Law; but the Convention does not even endorse the law. The Commissioners have recently explained that their work is greatly hampered by lack of funds; but the Convention does not call for "ample appropriations to enforce it in letter and spirit," or pledge the party to "still further and higher reforms." This silence is more significant than words could be, for it is known that an attempt was made to secure the insertion of a plank endorsing the reform.

A formal commendation by a State convention of a Treasury customs decision against a taxpayer, on his appeal from a ruling by local taxing officers, is quite unprecedented, and for the reason, among others, that such commendation has been looked upon as an intervention between litigants who have gone to the courts, and, in effect, an attempt to put outside partisan pressure on the judges who are to decide finally. The Ohio Convention, nevertheless, unanimously adopted this resolution:

> "We heartily endorse the decision of the Secretary of the Treasury whereby the duty on worsted is made dutiable at the same rate as upon woollen goods, thereby benefiting our manufacturing and wool industry."

The naïveté of the resolution is very taking. The Treasury did not decide that worsted goods are dutiable as woollen goods, but that the fabrics entered by the importers as worsteds were, in fact and in law, woollens. The Secretary said the proper customs officers had found and decided that those goods were *woollen* cloths and manufactures of *wool*, and he would not disturb the finding and decision. He upheld an error of fact and law, thereby altering the law and, by such error, making worsted goods dutiable as woollen goods.

Why was such exceptional and unfamiliar action taken by the Ohio Convention? It strengthens greatly the suspicion that the Treasury change in the name of the fabric was the result of an ante-election intrigue which Mr. Windom executed, because constrained by the Republican leaders, and which, being executed, needs a party endorsement. An alternative hypothesis is, that word has been passed around among the Republican leaders to try to drop agitation of tariff taxation in Congress, and rely on such an increase of rates by Treasury order as will content the manufacturers and the tariff beneficiaries. But, whatever the motive, the Republican party of Ohio has committed itself to upholding the decision of Secretary Windom that the law of 1883 made worsted goods dutiable as woollen goods, and to upholding the reasons therefor assigned by him in his opinion of May 27, 1889. We shall probably see other Republican conventions committing themselves, one after another, in the same way. The Republican "bosses" will thus serve formal notice on the Federal judges, and on all aspirants for places on the Federal bench, that no judicial interference in an increase of customs taxes by Assistant-Secretary Tichenor will be tolerated by the party chiefs. The decision in 1887 that worsted was not, *in law*, woollen, was made by a Western magistrate, an Illinois Federal judge, and a Republican of the purest type; and yet the Republicans of Ohio, under the whip of the lords of the loom, formally condemn it, and significantly warn the Supreme Court at Washington that it must reverse Judge Blodgett's decision.

THE SOUTH CAROLINA IDEA.

THE acquittal of Dr. McDow for the killing of Capt. Dawson, although very shocking to the moral sense of the country, ought not to be considered surprising. Due process of law in South Carolina, and in the South generally, would require that some near relative of Capt. Dawson should kill McDow, in which case he would be acquitted because he had a strong feeling against McDow. Then, if a near relative of McDow should kill the near relative of Dawson, he, too, would be acquitted on the same grounds. There are no assignable limits to a vendetta of this kind, short of the extinction of the families. It is a drawback to the due execution of law, in the present case, that the Dawsons, being English, have been bred to other ideas regarding the processes of law. In order to get yourself up to the state of mind for killing on sight, or shooting your enemy in the back, it is necessary that you should have breathed the right atmosphere when you were young, and have had the genuine strain in your blood. If McDow had done to a South Carolinian what he did to this naturalized Englishman, he would have been acquitted just the same by a South Carolina jury, but the chances are ten to one that

he would bite the dust before the end of a twelvemonth. And if the girl whom he tried to seduce, and whom he reviled in his testimony, had been a native of South Carolina, and had had brothers, McDow's life would be a risk that no insurance company would look at. It is not unlikely that he took account of both these circumstances, the one when he did the shooting and the other when he gave his testimony. A person who would shoot another in the back, and revile a woman whose affections he had sought to gain, would calculate the chances of private vengeance to a nicety. The prospect of punishment in pursuance of the statute law he must have known was next to nothing.

Repulsive as is the case in its judicial aspect, that is not the worst part of it. McDow was elected surgeon of a military company while he was still on trial. Military companies in South Carolina represent society, as they did before the war. Public opinion in South Carolina, therefore, seems to require that courts and juries should be advised *aliunde* not to deal hardly with one who shoots his fellow-man in the back, and makes jests publicly concerning the virtue of a woman whom he pretended to love, and to whom he had confided the secret that he hated his own wife and had married her for money. So much baseness has perhaps seldom been assembled in one character in the criminal dock, for when we compare McDow with other villains, we must remember that he is an educated one—no low-browed product of the bogs of Ireland, or the hills of Calabria, or the gutters of New York. He is a Southern gentleman, the member of a learned profession, the scion of a respectable family. The members of this military company have distinctly advertised themselves savages. They have put the same hall-mark on the city and State in which they live. There might be some excuse for a jury perplexed by the cunning of lawyers, but there can be none for these "soldiers." If any body of men in a really civilized State had so sought to influence a jury sitting on a case of life and death, the judge would have issued an attachment against them, and sent them to jail as fast as the Sheriff could gather them in.

One peculiarity of this trial was that half of the jury were colored men, but this really signifies little. The blacks of Charleston had some prejudice against Capt. Dawson, but it is idle to suppose that they had any, even the smallest, influence on the white men of the jury. The decision rested with the whites as the social superiors. The negroes as well as the whites have been taught that killing is not murder unless it is accompanied by robbery. They have had some experience that killing for purposes of lust is punishable with death if the murderer is one of their own color and the victim one of the opposite color, but not that the penalty should be inflicted by a jury. Due process of law in such cases is lynching, and it is doubtful whether they have any idea of law except as superior force. They generally desire to stand well with the whites, and will always do what they think will tend that way, provided the rights and privileges of their race are not in question. If South Carolina white men think that you have a right to kill neighbors who make themselves disagreeable to you, South Carolina black men will think the same.

Capt. Dawson was a man of noble qualities, and the act for which he was put to death was one which challenges the admiration of all right-minded men. He made himself disagreeable to McDow by interfering with his hellish designs upon a young woman in Dawson's employ. South Carolinians are as fully alive to the high qualities for which Dawson was distinguished as any people can be. They have as much regard for the virtue of women (if they are white) as any people; indeed, they may perhaps be regarded as more sensitive on this point than most communities. But the conviction that homicide is a venial offence, if not committed for purposes of gain, is the ruling sentiment. It found abundant expression on the Lord's Day, when McDow went to church, where, the despatches say, he "was quite overwhelmed with congratulations from his friends and patients, among whom were many ladies." The whole affair shows us a community only half emerged from barbarism. It is part of the barbarism of slavery, surviving after the lapse of a quarter of a century the institution that nursed these shocking ideas of the relations and duties of human beings towards each other.

SUNDAY OUTINGS.

President Harrison's practice of taking a Sunday outing from his White House workshop every week during the hot season, and the equanimity with which this method of recreation is accepted by the religious public, illustrate in a most striking manner the change that has come about in the observance of the first day of the week. Mr. Harrison's plan has usually been to board a yacht on Saturday, spend the next day in ease on the vessel down the river, or perhaps put outside the Capes at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay towards night, and get back to his desk some time on Monday. A fortnight ago he introduced a variation by taking a trip to Cape May on Saturday, giving the next day to enjoyment of the beauties of that resort, and returning to Washington on Monday. In every case the main feature of the outing has been the opportunity to spend Sunday away from the scene of the week's work, and where there would be no imperious demand of other duties, like attendance on religious services, which a Presbyterian elder might feel bound to discharge if he were within sound of the bell on the church which he regularly attends.

A quarter of a century ago it would have been impossible for a President to pursue this course without provoking severe criticism. The war, of course, introduced a solemn element which would have made Lincoln's indulgence in a weekly yachting trip over Sunday grate with uncommon force upon the public mind; but if there had been no war, Lincoln could not have done twenty-eight years ago what Harrison does now, except at a loss of public respect which he could not safely have incurred. The religious newspapers would have overwhelmed him with long lectures on the dreadful example he was setting the young, ministers would have preached about his bad conduct, Sabbath-observance societies would have printed tracts on the pernicious character of such "Sabbath" outings. On the other hand, nobody whose opinion is entitled to weight enters any complaint against Mr. Harrison for the way he spends the day, and so straight an organ of New England Puritanism as the Boston *Congregationalist* makes the following editorial comment upon the matter: "President Harrison is reported to be annoyed at the criticisms of his yachting trips from Saturday to Monday. They are sensible excursions, and will do him needed good, and we trust that his critics will hold their peace."

The change thus illustrated is a change for the better. Ancient Sabbatarianism had transformed Sunday into a day which it was a ghastly sarcasm to call a "day of rest." Long sermons three times a day, with an hour of Sabbath-school somewhere interspersed, and a strong dose of the catechism administered by force, if necessary—such was the repose for the mind; while for the body there was the tranquillity produced by the substitution of "cold victuals" for the ordinary hot dinner; and for the spirit the peace flowing from the denial of even a walk through the fields to enjoy the beauties of Sabbath-breaking flowers, and hear the melody of Sabbath-breaking birds. Such a régime could only survive while unquestioning obedience to an accepted order was the rule, and it was bound to yield before the first onset of common-sense criticism.

Ancient Sabbatarianism would have said to President Harrison on Saturday: "What if you are tired with your week's work? So much the more reason why you should stay in Washington on the holy Sabbath, go to church, read the Bible, the catechism, and the Religious (but not the Secular) Department of the New York *Observer*, and behave generally like a good Christian, as you claim to be; instead of going off down the Potomac, where you don't expect (and don't want) to find any church, sitting around on deck enjoying the breeze, when you ought to be in your pew; viewing the sunset from a yacht at sea, when you ought to be 'going to evening meeting'; or eating a good hot dinner of several courses at Cape May, and then taking a drive along the beach." Modern common sense, with the endorsement even of the religious press, says to him: "You are tired, and Sunday was intended for a day of rest. Spend the day as you think will rest you most—dropping lazily down the Potomac or outside the Capes, if you like, taking a drive along the beach, or strolling through the fields—only being careful that you do not disturb others."

In referring to some unreasonable criticisms of his Sunday outings, President Harrison recently said that he had "no other time for rest," and that he "must rest if he was to keep on with his work." This is precisely the situation with the overwhelming

majority of his fellow-citizens. They have no other time for rest than Sunday, and they must rest on Sunday if they are to do good work the other six days of the week. Few of them are so fortunate that they can get off for the weekly outing early in the day on Saturday, and need not be back at their tasks before noon on Monday. The masses of city population can only leave home on Sunday morning, and must be back there by Sunday night. The poor Philadelphian, for instance, who wants to enjoy a glimpse of Cape May on Sunday, cannot take a boat or train thither on Saturday and another home on Monday, but must crowd the whole trip into the one day. This is not so pleasant nor so well in any way as the more leisurely method open to the President, but it is much better for the tired worker than to go without a whiff of salt air all summer. So of the masses in New York and Brooklyn with reference to Coney Island, and of poor folks in the *Congregationalist's* city with reference to Nantasket Beach. There are, to be sure, people who still affect to draw a line between the Sunday outing on which one starts Saturday evening and from which he returns Monday morning, and that on which he starts Sunday morning and from which he returns Sunday evening; but any such distinction is abhorrent to the sense of justice, and cannot be maintained.

President Harrison's example will undoubtedly give an impetus to the movement in favor of making the restful feature of "the day of rest" its chief feature, for it will open the eyes of many to the truth that this is the great blessing of the break between two sets of working days. That this movement makes in the direction of public health, public content, and public morality cannot be doubted by any candid observer. The most rigid Sabbatarian, with the most violent prejudices against Sunday concerts, for example, only needs to view the wonderful spectacle presented in Central Park on a Sunday afternoon in midsummer to feel—and confess, if he is honest—that he has not understood what he has been talking about in his ignorance. There is more happiness, better order, and less crime among the poorer people of New York since cheap Sunday excursions enabled them to take a trip up the river or down the harbor, than when necessity kept them cooped up through the day in tenement-houses far less comfortable than the Executive Mansion, despite all the faults which its occupants find with that place of residence. A Presbyterian elder may justly resent the stigma of being called "a Sabbath-breaker," but Mr. Harrison need not care for such attacks, since he is throwing the weight of his influence on the side of those who have the best authority for believing that "the Sabbath was made for man, and not man for the Sabbath."

THE GROSVENOR GALLERY AND ALMA-TADEMA.

LONDON, June 17, 1889.

THE general impression of the Grosvenor Gallery exhibition this year, as one glances through the splendid rooms, is that it is devoid of any work that would strike or arrest one's attention particularly. There is no lack of good work, by well-known artists, but no one has sent anything of surpassing merit, although by the appeal Sir Coutts Lindsay made to his contributors at a banquet shortly before the sending-in day, it would seem to be understood that the exhibition would stand or fall by the merits, or the reverse, of the present show. The painters of the poetic school who in years gone by always exhibited here, have now all deserted; the impressionists, too, are scarce, and it is chiefly the Academicians and young painters as yet not well known who have sent anything this year. We note among the contributors the names of Millais, Keeley Halswelle, Briton Rivière, Heywood Hardy, Boughton, Tuke, Jacomb Hood, Clausen, and Hennessey. The work of such men, even if not at their best, must needs be interesting.

The centre of the principal gallery is held by Sir John Millais's "Girl Shelling Peas"—a picture he means to present to Sir Frederick Leighton in return for a wax-modelled figure from the hand of the President. The subject is simple, and requires no effort of the imagination to grasp it. A fair-haired maiden in light dress is shelling peas in a china bowl in her lap. Her face is well modelled, the fresh, fair color and manner of painting very characteristic and pleasant; but the hands are very sketchy and without drawing. We should have expected more effort from a labor of love. No. 24, "A Fallen Monarch," by Mr. J. M. Swan, a name become so popular this year, is not as good a picture as either of his works at the Academy or the New Gallery. A dead lion is before us, tied to a rock, with the weapons which have killed him in the foreground. The bony structure is not sufficiently visible, and the pose of the lion and general arrangement are not successful. John Pettie sends a study of a head, No. 23, a fair lady with tawny locks, in a black hat and feathers, painted after the manner of Rubens. It is too much of a reminiscence of this master's work to count as a good original. Pettie sends also a portrait of Rider Haggard, which seems to be considered an excellent likeness: the eyes are looking out into the vague, and have an expression of seeing the weird.

A very poetic landscape is Moffat Lindner's "A Winter Sunset," No. 28—very full of cloud movement and transient sunset effects on a stormy evening across marsh land, with a distant castle and town. Anderson Hague, in "Feeding the Ducks," No. 72, has, out of a commonplace subject, produced a work full of beauty and color. He is one of a small group of Manchester painters known for dash and spirited execution. "Under the Harvest Moon," No. 71, by G. H. Boughton, has certain qualities of delicate color and refinement, but it is evident that Mr. Boughton's method of figure-painting is not at all suited to a life-size scale: it is too uncertain. The figure of the girl against a rock, with a sheaf of golden corn on which she is leaning, relieved against a background of pale evening sky and sea, is not much of a subject.

The full-length portraits of fine ladies are the most noticeable feature of the exhibition. Mr. Shannon's "Marchioness of Granby," No. 17, is gracefully posed; the head is well painted and modelled, and the distribution of light and shade is excellent. It is in the painting of the white satin dress that the picture fails: the folds are mechanical, and the execution is wanting in spirit. In "Mrs. Tower," No. 81, the dress is treated with less hesitation, and the light fur boa round the neck is very well done. No. 206, by the same artist, has a confused background of flowers in vases which interferes with the general effect. No. 114, by Mrs. Waller, a young girl with flowing locks and short black dress, resting on a fleuret, a visor in her hand and fencing gloves on the ground, is excellently posed, well drawn, and firmly painted. Mr. Jacomb Hood has a portrait picture of a lady in amber satin, with a gray-blue Indian scarf, turning towards the spectator, on a flight of stone steps which she is ascending. He calls it "Pauline in the 'Lady of Lyons.'" The action of the outstretched arm is too momentary to be pleasant in a portrait. A harmonious arrangement of color and good flesh painting is to be found in Percy Bigland's portrait of Mrs. George Rhodes, No. 175, a lady in brown velvet dress with pink trimming, resting her head on her hand. We pass over many portraits, having only space for those which strike us as being most remarkable.

"Ploughing" (No. 174), by George Clausen, one of the last elected members of the old Water-Color Society, is rather devoid of interest in the choice of type of the horses, and their legs are not carefully drawn; yet there is such true rendering of nature in the fields and ploughed lands, such good keeping in the values of this picture, that, despite its shortcomings, it cannot be said to be without charm. "The Fisherman," by Mr. Tuke, is a very empty canvas, the design being quite unworthy of the clever painting expended on it. Miss Clara Montalba's Venetian water-piece (No. 68), "Fishing Fleet, Venice," has all the dash and brilliancy she is famed for—a luminous sea and sky, with a group of light-sailed fishing-smacks, with the Island of San Giorgio and the Ducal Palace in the far distance.

It is in the subject pictures of ambitious aims that this Exhibition is so particularly unfortunate; for instance, in Briton Rivière's "Prometheus," in which a very commonplace nude model is seen dangling on a rock, suspended by the wrists—a mere Academy study, and not even good at that—without any of the heroic qualities the title suggests. Keeley Halswelle's "Macbeth and the Weird Sisters" is another very poor attempt to make a picture out of a mere study: the landscape has no reference to the figures, and they are so small in size and so unimportant that they may be said not to interfere with the landscape.

Among the sculpture there is very little of interest: we notice a child's head in bronze by Conrad Dressler—"Non Angli sed Angeli," very beautiful in tender modelling and very refined in type. Further on in Bond Street, this young sculptor has an exhibition to himself of the portrait busts of men of note who have sat to him, among them Ruskin, Swinburne, Madox Brown, the painter, William Morris, the poet and Socialist, and Stanley, the explorer, besides children's heads of great beauty. To return to the Grosvenor, it is very evident from the want of interest in its contents that three exhibitions are too many for London.

Alma-Tadema's new picture, "A Dedication to Bacchus," is exhibited by itself at Lefevre's Gallery, King Street, St. James's, in the stately isolation the importance of the work deserves. There has been much preliminary advertisement for this picture: it has been said that so large a price has never been given to any artist for any single work of art on record; and as the exact sum has not been stated, imagination is allowed every license in fixing it, helping itself with the known facts that Holman Hunt received seven thousand for his "Finding of Christ in the Temple," and Frith ten thousand for his famous "Railway Station." The work is to be engraved in pure line by

Aug. Blanchard for £2,000, and the essay by F. G. Stevens, critic of the *Athenæum*, in pamphlet form, offered to each visitor who has paid his entrance fee of one shilling, contains all the historical information of which the spectator who does not happen to be an archæological scholar stands in need, in order to understand the detail thoroughly. The pamphlet in question, besides abounding in high panegyric on the superlative excellence of this picture, contains a complete description of all the works of Alma-Tadema illustrating Greek and Roman religious festivals, episodes in their daily life, and the Merovingian subjects, dealing with the conflict of barbarism with civilization. It would seem that, in the choice of Greek and Roman scenes, it was not a matter of architecture, marble-painting, and flowing draperies that prompted Alma-Tadema: his principal object was to show in a sequence of pictures how greatly religion among the ancients favored morality, and how this reverence and gratitude for the gifts of the gods pervaded and beautified ancient life in every phase.

The figures in "A Dedication to Bacchus," sixty in number, are grouped on the white marble platform of a temple on a height beyond which sea of the deepest blue meets the blue sky. White clouds are seen floating on the horizon, against which on one side appear the summits of distant mountains, on the other, an island scintillating in azure distance. On the right hand we see an altar of Bacchus, richly sculptured in white marble tinged with purple from the light coming through the purple awning spread over it, supported by ropes in the foreground; beside the altar, on a high pedestal, is the bronze statue of a centaur, one of the chief dark points of coloring in the design. The high priest and priestess stand, clad entirely in white togas tinted with purple light, in front of the altar, holding vessels of silver in their hand, ready for the libation. The maiden choir, also in white, ivy-wreathed, are behind them chanting in honor of Bacchus and of the dedication of the young child who is the centre of interest of the subject.

The procession, drawing near from the left, forms a dark mass of varied color distinctly outlined against the sky. These people have just ascended to the platform, and are being conducted by a maiden harbinger, who, in white with a tiger skin round her, with flowing locks ivy-crowned, carrying a thyrsus headed with silver hemlock flowers and silver bells, which she is jingling with arms thrown up, is welcoming and encouraging the newcomers to approach. Two girls, carrying long garlands of branches of fir needles tied with yellow ribbons, are dancing and bowing low before the procession; four men in green togas are carrying a hog's-skin full of wine on a red litter. The old father, white-haired and white-bearded, stands supported by his daughter-in-law. Near her, the young child who is to be dedicated to the wine god is naked but for a diaphanous purple veil. She turns with questioning face to an elder girl, who, gracefully bending towards the child, is explaining the ceremony to her. Behind, one sees the players on musical instruments of different kinds—the double pipe, the tabor, the timbrel—the torch-bearers, and the maidens jingling their tambourines with uplifted arms and heads wreathed with vine and ivy. In the extreme foreground, in erect attitude, profile towards us, is a servant of the temple clad in white, a tiger skin wound round her. Before her stands a silver vessel. This impassive figure is evidently waiting for a signal to carry it to the altar. Just beside her a pier of red-veined marble supports a porphyry group of a young man lighting a fire under a vase, making a dark red mass of color against the sky.

The composition is very well massed. All the figures on the right around the altar are in white, varied by their respective shadows, different textures, and the sun shining through the purple velarium, tinging their draperies. The three singing maidens to the right of the priests are very gracefully grouped. In the extreme foreground is an altar covered with ripe fruit. The white marble of the ground is in shadow from the temple, excepting beyond the procession, where bright sunlight falls on it. The procession has the brightest color in the varied garments of its members, and the deep peacock-blue sea behind it makes the greatest dark in the picture. It is precisely in this extreme dark of the sea that the aerial effect is to our mind spoiled. If the light were as great as everything indicates, the sea could not be so dark. The sky, too, which meets it is not distant enough: it is of too opaque a tint. We grant that it is admissible to sink realism in order to obtain a beautiful effect of color, and the dark of the sea is needed; but the sky is neither in accord with reality nor with the exigencies of art. The dancing figures of the advancing priestesses are very full of movement and grace, and the faces have less rigidity and a nearer approach to beauty than in any of Alma-Tadema's pictures. There is more of life, and simpler action, and a greater variety of type. The draperies are quite beautiful in execution, and the painting of accessories as usual unsurpassed in finish. Dexterous touches of color on the wreaths, ribbons, and ornaments give variety throughout.

The keeping of this complicated design is quite marvellous. At first the apparent simplicity of the design strikes one, but closer inspection shows that it is the consummate skill with which the composition has been worked out to which this impression is due. The fulness of color in the figures, the wide spaces of white marble, always abounding in variety of tint and painting, are very striking, even to those who are used to wonder at Alma-Tadema's unrivalled skill where marble and textures are concerned.

IBSEN IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 13, 1889.

No theatrical event in London for many months has been so talked about, and given rise to such animated discussion, as the performance of Henrik Ibsen's "A Doll's House," which is now in its first week at the little Novelty Theatre. It has been performed in London before, but only in a carefully conventionalized version by Messrs. Jones and Herman, when it was a complete failure. Though that was but five years ago, even Mr. William Archer, who is to a great extent responsible for the present performance, and altogether (I believe) for the translation, then thought and declared Ibsen impossible on the English stage. It is therefore somewhat remarkable that in his version, which is scrupulously faithful to the original, with all its undisguised preaching and satire and dramatic unconventionalities, it is having a success. According to the first scheme, but a one night's performance was to be given; then a week's run was arranged for; and now, when the week is but half over, it is announced that it will be kept on at the Novelty for several weeks, subsequently perhaps to be carried to a larger and more popular theatre.

That which makes it doubly interesting, and its success peculiarly significant, is the fact that it is not only a dramatic but a social and moral experiment. Ibsen is a moralist first, and only then a dramatist, and this is the true explanation of the failure of his play when adapted to the accepted dramatic requirements: with its morality, its very life was taken from it. This also accounts for the discussion which the present performance has aroused. If you consider Ibsen at all, you necessarily give him twice as much attention as you would an ordinary dramatist, since you are forced to judge his play first as a work of art and secondly as a moral lesson. Any one but a Robert Buchanan would feel this on reading "A Doll's House"; to see it on the stage is to realize still more forcibly its double value.

The plot of this special play is so well known that it is useless for me here to give more than the merest outline of it. *Nora*, the heroine, has been for eight years married to *Thorvald Helmer*, and, though during that time she has borne him three children, she has never become to him more than his "lark," his "little singing bird," his "squirrel," who plays pretty tricks for him; in a word, she is a doll, and their home, happy as it is, is but a doll's house. Before her marriage she had been treated in much the same way by her father, from whom, moreover, she had inherited nothing but frivolity and irresponsibility. Her circumstances had never encouraged self-development; thanks to them, she had lived entirely unconscious of the serious side and of the duties of life. That, despite her childishness, she has a certain strength of character—decided possibilities of development—is shown by the step she had taken in a crisis which demanded immediate action on her part, several years before the play begins. Her husband was very ill; the doctor would not answer for the consequences unless he was taken at once to Italy and kept there, enjoying complete rest for many months. For the journey £300 was needed; there was no one from whom to obtain it, and the *Helmers* themselves were without money. It was then that *Nora* acted for herself, and borrowed it from a man who made a secret business of money-lending; but even while she thus accepted a great responsibility, she showed her complete ignorance of the meaning of right and wrong. She forged a name in order to secure the sum without further delay.

This forgery is now used by the man from whom she borrowed the money to further his own interests with her husband, who has in the meantime obtained a position of importance. The discovery of her crime suddenly reveals to her the intense selfishness of the latter, whose love for her she had thought his ruling passion; for he, being but an average man, in the horror for what she has done and the threatened consequences, remembers only that his own good name is involved, while she also appreciates for the first time his complete indifference to her moral responsibility, since when, almost at the same moment, the danger to him is averted by the return of the forged paper, he at once assures her of his forgiveness and his readiness to forget everything. Her moral nature is suddenly awakened; she finds not only that she no longer loves her husband, but that she has never known him, and for all these years has been living with a strange man. She realizes that she has duties, not only to husband and children, but first of all to herself; that she has rights—not exactly the political rights for which women now clamor, but rights as a human being. She leaves her husband to devote herself to that self-education which should really have begun with her life.

This is briefly the plot of a very extraordinary play, and certainly there is nothing in the dramatist's stock-in-trade to warrant it; it is as original as it is striking. To consider it first of all as a work of art: though I had read "A Doll's House" before going to see it on the stage, I was astonished to find how intensely dramatic it is in conception and in arrangement. Few plays written nowadays are as successful in holding your attention and arousing your interest. It is full of movement, and the plot is admirably worked out. The first act perhaps drags a little, a defect which can easily be remedied by judicious cutting down; but no fault of this kind is to be found with the second, the action of which carries you along with it from the moment the curtain rises until the almost sensational dance of the *tarantella*, with which it falls. In the third act, also, there are plenty of fine dramatic situations in the return from the ball—the music of the *tarantella* not yet hushed, *Helmer* flushed and excited, *Nora* pale and silent and ready for suicide, which seems the only escape from her misery; in the sad and tragic farewell of *Dr. Rank;* in the husband's discovery of his wife's crime; in the return of the paper which means freedom from the threatened ruin of peace and happiness. Up to this point the interest never flags; the dramatist proves himself a master of his art. But just here the moralist steps in, banishes the artist from the scene, and sets about preaching a regular sermon. *Nora's* talk with her husband—the first serious one they have ever had, she reminds him—is dangerously like the moral tagged on to a fable. Ibsen attaches far more importance to the promulgation of his gospel than to the perfecting of his work of art. He is determined that no one, not even the most obtuse, shall miss the full meaning of the lesson he has given. The whole case is neatly summed up by *Nora*, woman's claim to the right of self-development and moral independence established, and art sacrificed to morality.

That moral and social problems are not legitimate subjects for the stage, few would find it easy to maintain. Ever since the days of Æschylus and Sophocles, there have been dramatists whose only inspiration has come from the great moral problems of humanity. But even were this not so, it is as inevitable to day that the drama should begin to deal with social and moral questions as it was that the comedy of Charles II.'s time should be licentious, the novel of Fielding's coarse. This is a day of social and moral revolutions—mistaken, perhaps, but that is for future generations to decide—just as Charles II.'s was one of terrible revolt against an over-exalted moral code, as Fielding's was one when no gentleman was worthy of the name unless he knew how to take his pleasure, and with him pleasure meant wine and women. As time goes on, our stage, like our novel, is bound to be more and more concerned with the great problems which preoccupy the civilized world. The prospect may not be pleasant, but it is not to be averted. We are simply what previous generations have made us. We may mourn over the fact that we are not as picturesque or gay as our forefathers, but our mourning will not bring back their picturesqueness or gayety.

Ibsen is only one of the first of many who are to follow, in his choice of subjects as in the realism (or naturalism the French would call it) with which he presents them. Just as he is not willing to place a set of conventional puppets against a realistic background, as is still the prevalent fashion on the English stage, but must show real men and women, so he cannot rest satisfied with the melodramatic standard of virtue and vice, or the convenient doctrine of chance, but must govern stage life by the same laws which govern real life. This is all as it should be. His characters are but the more interesting because they are genuine human beings; his plots the more impressive because they touch upon those things with which we are just now most deeply concerned. But the play itself should express its own moral, should teach its own lesson; it should no more need a final explanation, or summing up, or moral, than a story by Daudet or Zola, or a picture by Whistler or Manet. It is chiefly because of the reality of all that has gone before that the last scene in the "Doll's House" jars upon one; you feel there must have been a flaw somewhere if the play, with all its action and power, has failed to explain itself. Of course, in reading it, this is not so noticeable, since one reads Ibsen the moralist rather than Ibsen the dramatist. But on the stage I thought it artistically a serious defect. I left the theatre asking myself whether, after all, the pulpit or the platform was not Ibsen's proper sphere.

And now for the moral: The whole drama is, as Mr. Archer has written, "a plea for woman's rights—not for her right to vote and prescribe medicine, but for her right to exist as a responsible member of society, 'a being breathing thoughtful breath,' the complement and equal of man." This is a subject of seemingly paramount importance to the Scandinavian dramatists. Ibsen touches upon it in other of his plays, in "Ghosts" for example, just as in "A Doll's House" he recurs to the doctrine of heredity, which is the main theme of "Ghosts"; Mrs. Anne C. Edgren treats it with much bitterness and satire in her "True Women"; Björnson presents some theories relating to it, startling enough to the conventional man, in "A Gauntlet." They all seem to feel it to be their mission to proclaim woman's rights as a human being. It is curious to turn from them to Anglo-Saxons who have also written on the woman question. Take Karl Pearson, for example, one of many whom I have not space to mention here; he, with Ibsen, is conscious of the number of dolls existing in the world to-day—"shopping dolls," he calls them—and yet what is the right he demands for women? Not merely the right to common sense and self-development, because he sees that the average woman cares as little to develop herself as the average man, but the right to industrial, social, and moral equality, because he realizes that there are already as many women as there are men who would know how to profit by it.

In other words, the Scandinavian dramatists demand that which the English or American moralist takes it for granted has already been obtained. English women have less freedom in many ways than American; but even in England, if a woman, after eight years of married life, and after having given birth to three children, were to remain a childish, irresponsible *Nora*, I am sure she herself, and not her circumstances, would be blamed. "A Doll's House" is really a protest against the existing state of affairs in Ibsen's own country, and therefore cannot impress an English or American audience as it would a Scandinavian. I know this seems like a flat contradiction to the opinions held by English enthusiasts who are looked upon as authorities on the woman question. Miss Schreiner's declaration that Ibsen and George Meredith are the two writers who best understand women, has lately been going the rounds of the press. But I think the great trouble hitherto has been that the leading advocates of woman's so-called emancipation have failed to grasp the fact that, given to the average woman all the advantages of the average man, she will still remain an average woman, as he has continued for many generations an average man. The moral, therefore, to which the drama is sacrificed—however valuable in Scandinavia—here seems scarcely worthy of the sacrifice. Moreover, it would be difficult to justify a woman who ranked duty to herself higher than duty to her children. *Nora* without hesitation leaves her children to the very fate from which she is rebelling. From the moral standpoint, I think "Ghosts" or "An Enemy to Society" would appeal more strongly to an English or American audience.

I have said little about the acting, because there is really little to be said. It is not, as with the company of the Théâtre Libre, the result of modern theories—the striving after modern ideals. Actresses and actors are merely those who happened to have the time and inclination to devote to the experiment. Miss Achurch, who plays the part of *Nora*, has been highly praised, as she deserves to be, for undertaking so serious a task. She is not, however, an actress of great ability or promise, though with careful study she may yet do better things. The actors call for no special criticism.

A RUSSIAN SATIRIST.

ST. PETERSBURG, May 17-31, 1889.

THE attention of the public here has recently been directed afresh to the most interesting question of the day in the field of literature. Who is to succeed to the throne of letters? Since the death of Turgeneff and Ostrovsky, very little has been written by the three survivors of the group who have rendered contemporary Russian literature famous. The seven pillars upon which Russian literature has rested for the last thirty years are Tolstoi, Turgeneff, Dostoyevsky, Nekrasoff, Gontcharoff, Ostrovsky, and Saltykoff. The state of affairs at the present time is as follows: There are numerous dramatic writers, but no one to take Ostrovsky's place. There is a swarm of poets, varying in calibre, but, with the exception of Maïkoff (who has celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of his literary activity, and who, therefore, belongs rather with a past generation), there is no poet whose preëminence is acknowledged as was Nekrasoff's. Gontcharoff, who has produced one capital work, although he can hardly be reckoned as strictly first-class—A2 would perhaps express it—is still alive. But he is nearly eighty years of age, almost completely bedridden, and has contributed nothing of importance for so long that he may be set aside in a consideration of the live forces in literature, although his short sketches of servant types, published last year, showed no falling off in his powers. Tolstoi, also, is practically out of the field, for the present at least. Among the various reasons for his silence, abstinence from tobacco and his conviction that too much is written and printed may, I believe, be reckoned as the chief. He thinks that smoking formerly stimulated his brain and prompted him to write, and he believes that if he shall write anything in the future without such stimulus, it will come from a healthier inspiration. This disposes of the school of romance. There are plenty of aspiring authors, it is true, but of most it may be said: Had there been no Turgeneff, no Tolstoi, these writers would never have been able to see their way to the light of print. In fact, Russian literature, like the literature of other countries, just now is filled with echoes.

The only member of this distinguished group who remained alive and active, wholly independent, original, and unechoed in his peculiar field, was Saltykoff. Echoes there undoubtedly were, in the early days of his fame, but they were too feeble to hold their own, and he remained alone in the field of satire. Now he is dead, and there is no one who is even hinted at as his successor. Mikhail Evgrafovitch Saltykoff was born on January 15, 1826, in the Government of Tver. On completing his education in the famous Tzárskoe Seló Lyceum, in 1844, with the tenth-class rank (*i. e.*, Collegiate Councillor), he entered the Chancellery of the Minister of War. He had written poetry and articles for the journals during his school-days, but he soon perceived that poetry was not his work, and devoted himself to prose. His second novel, 'A Complicated Affair,' first attracted special attention to him, by its satirical traits, and resulted in his being sent into a sort of exile on service in the Government of Viatka, at the orders of the Governor. This exile, however, allowed him to advance in the service, and gave him an opportunity to make some studies which appeared afterwards in his 'Governmental Sketches.' The first of these 'Sketches,' which touched every rank, from members of the administration to peasants and religious beggars, appeared in 1856 signed "Shtchedrin." This *nom de guerre* he retained until his death. Saltykoff returned from his polite exile in 1855, and did not quit the service until 1868, having in the meantime been Vice-Governor in Riazan and Tver, administered other offices in several places, and risen to the rank of Actual Councillor of State. In 1868, when Nekrasoff became the editor of the *Contemporary*, Saltykoff took charge of the department of belles-lettres, and, after Nekrasoff's death, he became the editor of the journal *Annals of the Fatherland*, to which Nekrasoff had passed when the *Contemporary* was prohibited. Of late years he has written in various journals.

As a satirist, Saltykoff-Shtchedrin is the direct successor of Gogol, but he lacks the latter's poetic and romantic touch. What little he possessed of those elements was early exhausted, and his style is dry and biting. One laughs at his sharp thrusts, but the laugh is bitter, not genial, like that evoked by Gogol. The 'Governmental Sketches' have lost, through change of general circumstances, that special attraction which caused them to be eagerly awaited when they were in course of publication in a periodical journal. What then seemed unprecedented audacity, in his dealing with officials and the oppressive relations of the bureaucracy to the people, now passes as a matter of course. For the same reasons, imitations which dared not carry their attacks higher than a chief of police, and which halted dumb in the presence of governors, have utterly vanished from the scene. At the time, however, the general mental and social quickening, the feverish hopes and aspirations in literature, as well as in other directions, were particularly favorable to Saltykoff and the combative character of his writings, even setting aside their artistic and humorous qualities. That he is not always artistic even at his best is proved by what is usually regarded as the most important and characteristic of his novels, the 'Golovlyóffs.' Were it not for the too frequent and too minute diversions from the main thread of the story, this volume might be cited as one of the best, if not the very best, full-length portrait extant of a hypocrite. This excess of detail dulls the outlines of the portrait, but, at the same time, it proves the delicacy of the author's observation. In order to appreciate the book fully, one must be a Russian or well acquainted with the Russian Church and Russian views of that and of other things. It is precisely this quality which renders Saltykoff's writings highly specialized and difficult of access to foreigners, even in the original.

The Golovlyóff family may be briefly described as gentry gone to seed. The father is weak and vicious, but is rendered harmless by his wife's strength of character. She not only retrieves the losses caused by sloth, mismanagement, and so forth, but renders the position of the family financially brilliant from a rural point of view. Between the hardness of the mother and the weakness of the father, the children fare badly, as might be expected hereditarily. The daughter makes a runaway marriage, and, dying, leaves her daughters to the stern mercies of their grandmother, who takes so little heed of the lesson already bestowed upon her as to training that the young girls end, as provincial actresses, with drink and a suicide's grave. Two of the sons also yield, in their prime, to the inherited vice of drunkenness, and the picture is darkened by the mother's harsh treatment of the eldest, and by the treatment received by the mother, after her husband's death, at the hands of the two remaining sons. The second of these also dies a drunkard's death, leaving his mother unprovided for and at the mercy of her last son. The character of the latter is sufficiently defined by the name which his brothers had conferred upon him in childhood—Judas Iscariot. So far the book is not cheerful, and the remainder, which has Judas as its hero, is even more depressing. Indeed, it is urged as an objection to Saltykoff by many that he sees only the dark side of life.

"Judas" is a very religious man, strict in the observance of all fasts and festivals—which does not in the least interfere with the indulgence of any vice or passion that suits his taste. Nothing daunts the man, nothing disturbs his power of casuistry even for a moment. As a masterpiece in this line, which I do not remember ever to have seen excelled, I may cite his bland argument on the occasion when he had forgotten to order a requiem service on the anniversary of his son's death. His son, who inherited the family traits, had got into a money scrape, from which his avaricious and heartless father had refused to extricate him. The result was disgrace and suicide. The pious father, who had refused a single kopeck to rescue his son from despair, had expended rubles freely on the customary church services, in return for which he expected his dead son to intercede for him in heaven. On this occasion, when he recalls, in the evening, too late for service, that he has omitted due observance of the anniversary, with more than Chadbandian sweetness and unctuousness he lays the blame upon his dead son. The son has, forsooth, neglected his duty in praying for his father in the other world; hence, the Almighty has allowed the latter to forget the anniversary, and the son is wholly and solely at fault in the matter! If he is uncomfortable in consequence, let him bear it! Judas's dealings with his mother, with his remaining son, whom also he drives to disgrace and death, with his housekeeper, his niece, and his servants, furnish vivid pictures of moral perversion, ever increasing in blackness, until his own miserable death, in a fit of partial aberration of mind, extinguishes the direct line of the Golovlyóffs, and allows the property which has been accumulated with so much cruelty to pass to another branch.

Such, in general outline, is a book which does not make upon the mind, as a whole, the powerful impression which should result from the combination of so many strong parts. On the other hand, some of Saltykoff's short sketches are incisive and telling in the extreme. For instance, to select at random, the brief satire entitled 'How One Peasant Supported Two Generals,' is irresistible, and might be used effectively as a Tolstoyan tract. This fantastic tale begins with the statement that these Generals had been in the service all their lives, and "consequently" they knew "nothing whatever." They did not even know that food, in its natural state, grew, flew, walked, or swam; and when they beheld it in its natural state only, they nearly starved because they knew not how to handle it. A peasant took charge of them, fed, clothed, and worked for them, and when they could dispense with his services, they presented him with the munificent sum of five kopecks. This satire on red-tape officialism strikes home.

For the last year Saltykoff-Shtchedrin has been in such ill health that he seemed, in ordinary life, to have lost his faculties. But writing was his real life; when he took up his pen, his intellect was as clear as ever, and his last work, completed shortly before his death, shows no signs of failing power, although, like his other productions, it has weak parts. He finally developed an allegorical style, in which the really significant reading was between the lines. This "Æsopian" style, as the author himself happily called it, greatly delighted the Liberals, but not the Radicals; and it is precisely this, together with the necessity of being prepared by a knowledge of the Russian at home, which renders Saltykoff-Shtchedrin an eminently national writer, never to be comprehended abroad and upheld as the peer of the few universal satirists, in spite of the precedent furnished by Dante's political hints.

The funeral of a Russian writer offers an occasion for speeches, hence for "demonstrations." I wished to take advantage of Saltykoff's, partly for the sake of observing some points in it in contrast (on account of its nearly coinciding) with that of Count D. M. Tolstoi. Count Tolstoi had a brilliant, official civic funeral, and small official deputations from various gymnasia and so on marched in the procession. But "students," *i. e.*, university students, there were none, nor did I see any among the crowd collected to gaze. The tradition still lingers of Easter, 1880, when Count Dmitry Tolstoi ceased to be Minister of Public Instruction, and when the Easter greeting ran, instead of "Christos voskrés!" "Christos voskrés, Tolstoi iskrés!" (Christ is arisen, Tolstoi has vanished!). The spectators who joined the group of relatives, friends, and officials behind the splendid hearse, hung with thirty or more wreaths, were not of the "reading class," who would take sides either for or against the ex-Minister of Public Instruction, and evidently fell into line to accompany the body a short distance out of respect for death in general.

I went out to observe this point and also to see how the Emperor was received by the crowd. People knew that he and the Empress would come to the funeral because they and the Crown Prince had already attended one of the services at the house, on the day after the death of the Minister of the Interior. Yet he had not been present at the services or funeral of General Pauker, a short time before; not because General Pauker lived in a small lodging on the fifth floor (whence he had never felt inclined to remove to his grand official mansion, during his brief reign as Minister of Public Ways), nor because the funeral was held in a Lutheran church. Rumor asserted that it was because of the then fresh arrests, of which I

need not speak here. Russian newspapers did not mention the matter; but as the foreign papers came in with "the black mask," or "caviare" (the Russian names for cancellation of paragraphs), my readers are probably sufficiently informed already. I stationed myself where the imperial party must pass. The guards were the same as are always used to keep a path open for show processions, and they interfered not in the least when the crowd rushed forward with a hearty greeting round the imperial carriage. I mention this incident for the benefit of those who assert that the Emperor's movements are never known. They can often be very accurately timed and placed. That day Saltykoff died. For three days the house stood open to all comers; and thousands, friends and strangers, streamed through it to take leave of the dead man as he lay facing a lifelike portrait of himself in oil colors, which hung on the wall in the only beam of light which was admitted into the room. Twice a day, as is customary, prayers were read, in the presence of dense masses of people; but one was forced to flee before the heat, crush, and atmosphere. At the prayers ordered by the Literary Society, in the great Cathedral of the Kazan Virgin, the great audience was distinctly composed of what the Russian journals call "the motley middle—the reading—the intelligent class." There were even some soldiers, who may have strayed in by accident, although, after seeing quite a rough-looking soldier engaged in buying some of Pushkin's poems in the edition which costs about eight cents a volume, I think that I may be wronging them, and that these men were there as literary admirers. Literary St. Petersburg was well represented. Near me stood a tall, large but alert-looking old man who was surrounded and greeted by a constantly renewed company, until he would have appeared to the uninitiated the hero of the occasion. It was P. A. Pletneff, the editor of the journal in which the dead man's first literary efforts saw the light, nearly fifty years ago, when he was still a schoolboy in the Lyceum which beheld the dawn of Pushkin's genius. At the time when Dostoyevsky was in exile in Siberia, Pletneff was in the disciplinary battalion.

Saltykoff had asked that he might be buried in the Volkhoff Cemetery, close to Turgeneff. It was announced that the body would be taken from the house at ten A. M. I was told that the family were requested to have it done at nine o'clock for fear of disorder. Perhaps this was true, as the procession set out at 9:48. More than two hundred students from the various educational institutions organized themselves into a guard to march in front of the hearse, and sang: "Holy Lord, Holy Almighty, Holy Immortal One, have mercy upon us!" all the way to the cemetery, a distance of several versts. It is courtesy to accompany the hearse on foot for a longer or shorter distance; but the day was rainy, the mud deep, and some who had walked the longer distance to Nekrasoff's grave in midwinter twelve years ago, dropped out of the line. Of wreaths in metal, artificial and natural flowers, there were more than a hundred on the hearse.

The Volkhoff is the third of the St. Petersburg cemeteries in point of fashion and popularity, I believe. It lies on the extreme southern verge of the city, and is much crowded. Many of the monuments take the form of small stone or iron chapels, or the lots are roofed in and protected by wire netting or glass. Bielinsky, the critic, Kostomaroff, the historian, Garshin, the promising young writer who died last year, all lie here. Turgeneff rests close to the wall of the large church. I could not help thinking that Shtchedrin would have enjoyed describing his own funeral. The crowd was sufficiently great, but not to be compared, I am told, to the countless throngs which came to Turgeneff's funeral. Many arrived before the body and took up positions of vantage, and most extraordinary some of them were. I saw one student nearly crack his skull on Turgeneff's tomb, while it took four men to extract his leg from the tall iron pickets of the enclosing fence. Many, some of them women, climbed the trees and perched there for four hours or more.

A Russian crowd is usually quiet. This one was very cheerful and rather noisy. The rain descended at intervals, and the odor of damp soil mingled with the fragrance of the birches and of the roses, lilies, and hyacinths which people had torn from the wreaths on the coffin. One man had taken advantage of the opportunity to have prayers in his family lot near by. The chanter looked up at the mourner as he gave the censer its last swing, and made a laughing remark; then gave a shiver, thrust his hands into his overcoat pockets—he had not even donned his vestment—and went off with the censer dangling at his heels, and his Derby hat on one side, to explore the crowd. The handsome old priest clasped a Gampish cotton umbrella to his brocade bosom, made a smiling comment, and retreated to the vestibule of the church, where he continued to smile and bustle as he attended to the various demands upon him, and set a good example of cheerfulness under depressing surroundings. Mass and the funeral service were going on in the church, where the coffin, almost invisible beneath the mass of wreaths, lay under a canopy of gold brocade and white plumes. The crowd shifted constantly. Those who had good places near the grave outside clung to them tenaciously. The rest flowed in or out of the church at the dictate of the rain. As I listened to the sympathetic chanting of the choir, the mass ended, trays of candles for friends to hold during the death service were brought out, and a quiet scramble for them ensued, as there were comparatively few. One was handed to me by a pale neighbor, who did not look as though he had a spark of humor or satire in his composition wherewith to grieve. Many people seemed to have private preoccupations, and to be present in that purely formal spirit which the dead author was fond of holding up to ridicule. He would probably have described me as laboring under suppressed anxiety to avoid the gutterings of other people's candles and my own, and to observe the ways of my neighbors. There was a general sense of unrest among the audience, the only persons utterly unconcerned being apparently a number of poor children who had certainly never read Saltykoff, if indeed they even knew their letters.

Our candles were taken away, the service ended; the students joined hands in a cordon round the coffin, the wreaths were removed, the coffin-lid unscrewed, and the relatives and friends began the final farewells. At this point I beat a retreat. At the gate of the cemetery I was surrounded by an eager throng of cabmen, who hailed my appearance as a sign that their weary wait was at an end. Perceiving that it betokened nothing of the sort, they cried, "Bárinya, *isn't* that funeral over yet?" When I told them what stage it had reached, they groaned gently, in their good-natured way, laid in a fresh supply of sunflower-seeds from a neighboring peddler, and chewed away patiently in the rain, as they leaned up against the shops for the sale of gaudy wreaths and the loan of hot water and crockery for thrifty visitors from a distance. The funeral ended after three o'clock, making over six hours in all that it had lasted. Not all funerals here are as fatiguing as this one. But certainly a Russian funeral in general, with the services twice a day in the house of the deceased, the crowd, the close atmosphere, the walk of respect behind the hearse, for a longer or shorter distance, often in inclement weather, and the long services at the church and grave, must suggest a wonder that one or two deaths more do not follow immediately in the same family. And the funeral of a literary man is even more of a strain to relatives and friends.

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Correspondence.

CHAUCER SOURCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statement made in the review of Professor Skeat's edition of Chaucer's Minor Poems, that translation from an author might be used in the sense of translating him, leads me to the consideration of a question which may be of interest to Chaucer scholars.

The prologue to the "Legend of Good Women" contains, as is well known, a partial list by Chaucer himself of his own works. An earlier version of this prologue was printed by the late Mr. Bradshaw in 1864, which differed in many particulars from the standard one. It was remarkable among other things for mentioning the title of a hitherto unknown work, of which the poet claimed the authorship. After saying that he had translated Boethius in prose, he adds:

"And of the Wrechede Engendrynge of Mankynde,
As man may in pope Innocent I-finde."

This is assumed to be a lost prose translation of the treatise of Pope Innocent III., entitled 'De Contemptu Mundi, sive de Miseria Conditionis Humanæ.' My purpose is to show that the probabilities are that this translation, so far as it ever existed at all, exists now.

In Chaucer's great work, the "Man of Law's Tale" (a tale, it may be added, utterly unsuited to the character to which it is assigned) is introduced by a proem on the evils of poverty. It is attached to the poem of which it forms a part by the slightest of ties, and has indeed no real connection with it. Now, four of the five seven-line stanzas of which this proem consists are really a translation of part of the sixteenth chapter of the first book of Pope Innocent's treatise, which has for its heading the title "De Miseria Divitis et Pauperis." As this treatise is not usually accessible outside of large libraries, I subjoin the Latin text, which will enable all students of the poet to see clearly how closely he followed the original:

"Pauperes enim premuntur inedia, cruciantur ærumna, fame, siti, frigore, nuditate: vilescunt, tabescunt, spernuntur, et confunduntur. O miserabilis mendicantis conditio; et si petit, pudore confunditur, et si non petit, egestate consumitur, sed ut mendicet, necessitate compellitur. Deum causatur iniquum, quod non recte dividat; proximum criminatur malignum quod non plene subveniat. Indignatur, murmurat, imprecatur. Adverte super hoc sententiam Sapientis: Melius est, iniquit, mori quam indigere (Eccli. xl). Etiam proximo suo pauper odiosus erit (Prov. xiv). Omnes dies pauperis mali, fratres hominis pauperis oderunt eum. Insuper et amici procul recesserunt ab eo (Prov. xix)."

"The Man of Law's Tale" is itself a translation from the French; but to the immediate original Chaucer added about 350 lines. Some of these were taken from this same treatise of Pope Innocent. The stanza beginning with line 323 (edit. Morris) is translated directly

from the twenty-third chapter of the first book, as the following extract shows:

"Semper enim mundanæ lætitiæ tristitia repentina succedit. Et quod incipit a gaudio, desinit in moerore. Mundana quippe felicitas multis amaritudinibus est respersa. Noverat hoc qui dixerat: 'Risus dolore miscebitur, et extrema gaudii luctus occupat.' . . . Attende salubre consilium: 'In die bonorum, non immemor sis malorum.'"

Again, the stanza beginning with line 673 is translated from the following passage in chapter xix of book ii entitled "De Ebrietate":

"Quid turpius ebrioso? cui fetor in ore, tremor in corpore, qui promittit multa, prodit occulta, cui mens alienatur, facies transformatur? 'Nullum enim secretum ubi regnat ebrietas.'"

The stanza beginning with line 828 is taken from chap. xxi of the same book, entitled "De Luxuria," though portions of it are adopted from phrases in other chapters. The following sentence, however, is directly translated:

"O extrema libidinis turpitudo, quæ non solum mentem effeminat, sed etiam corpus enervat, non solum maculat animam, sed foedat personam."

Finally, the first part of the stanza beginning with line 1,037 is a translation of the following sentences in chap. xxii of book i, entitled "De Brevi Lætitia Hominis":

"Quis unquam vel unicum diem totum duxit in sua delectatione jucundum, quem in aliqua parte diei reatus conscientiæ, vel impetus iræ, vel motus concupiscientiæ non turbaverit? Quem livor invidiæ vel ardor avaritiæ, vel tumor superbiæ non vexaverit? Quem aliqua jactura, vel offensa, vel passio non commoverit?"

But this is not all the obligation which Chaucer is under to this treatise. Much of the discourse upon gluttony and the appetite delivered by the Pardoner in his tale is taken from the second book of this same work, especially from the seventeenth chapter "De Gula." Even the somewhat singular phrase "turnen substaunce into accident" is nothing but a translation of the Pope's phrase, *substantiam convertit in accidens.*

It seems to me that the weight of evidence is in favor of these scattered versions being the translation of which the poet spoke. It is, of course, possible that he may have made a prose translation of the whole as he made a verse translation of a part. This he actually did in the case of Boethius. But the fact that in his revised version of the prologue to the "Legend of Good Women" he withdrew all reference to any translation at all, seems to militate against the view that he had ever produced a complete version of the work.

I may be permitted to add that unsuspected sources of Chaucer's text can doubtless be found by examining carefully the authors to whom he makes most frequent reference. In the 'Parlement of Foules,' for instance, occurs the following verse upon the subject of dreams:

"The wery hunter, sleping in his bed,
To wode ayein his mynde gotn anoon;
The juge dremeth how his plees ben sped;
The carter dremeth how his cartes goon;
The riche of gold; the knight fight with his foon;
The sike met he drinketh of the tonne;
The lover met he hath his lady wonne."

This is taken very largely from the preface of Claudian to his Panegyric upon the sixth consulship of Honorius, as will be seen by comparing it with the following extract:

"Venator defessa toro cum membra reponit,
Mens tamen ad sylvas et sua lustra redit.
Judicibus lites, aurigæ somnia currus,
Venaque nocturnis meta cavetur equis.
Furto gaudet amans, permutat navita merces,
Et vigil elapsas quærit avarus opes.
Blandaque largitur frustra sitientibus ægris
Irriguus gelido pocula fonte sopor."

T. R. Lounsbury.

New Haven, June 29, 1889.

THE SOUTH FORK FISHING CLUB.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a communication relating to the South Fork Fishing Club, published in the *Nation* of June 20, "E. C. V." says: "If they [*i. e.*, the members of the Club] are at all responsible for this horrible destruction and woe, it can only be because they are not educated civil engineers, and have consequently been obliged to accept the statements of those who are as to the safety of the dam." In justice to the engineering profession, will you kindly state that neither in the reconstruction nor in the maintenance of the dam was there *any* engineering supervision whatever? The above statement is made on the authority of the *Engineering News* of June 15, 1889. C. E.

Cincinnati, June 26, 1889.

Notes.

Funk & Wagnalls have in preparation a new 'Encyclopædia of Missions,' with maps, diagrams, and a copious index.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce that Mrs. S. J. Higginson is writing a book on Java for their "Riverside Library for Young People." They will begin their biographical series of "American Religious Leaders" with Prof. A. V. G. Allen's 'Jonathan Edwards,' which is to be published in the fall. During the present month the same firm will bring out a new edition of that deserving work, 'Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay,' by William Root Bliss, which the public rapidly took up. New matter and new illustrations are promised.

On July 20 D. C. Heath & Co. will issue 'An Introduction to the Study of Shakspere,' by Prof. Hiram Corson.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Fractions: A Teacher's Manual of Objective and Oral Work,' by Helen F. Page of the Connecticut State Normal School.

Dr. William Edward Simonds of Cornell University publishes a monograph upon 'Sir Thomas Wyatt and his Poems' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), in which he endeavors to set the poems in a true order, and to extract from them confirmation for the theory that Queen Anne Boleyn was the object of Wyatt's love. He gathers first all the meagre notices of the poet's career and makes a biography, then examines the state of the text, and finally passes to the uncertain ground of interpretation. The work is done in the spirit of German scholarship, and if it should lead to a proper editing of the text of the poems, which is in a very unsatisfactory condition, it would have its best result. That a poet historically so important as Wyatt should have been so long neglected, is discreditable.

The late Mr. William D. O'Connor wrote before his death a paper upon 'Mr. Donnelly's Reviewers,' which is now issued as a pamphlet (Chicago: Belford, Clarke & Co.). It takes up the critical notices of leading journals and replies to them—in some cases, notably that of Mr. Appleton Morgan—with some success, but with more pungency. The author makes his subject an occasion for falling upon the reviewer's business without mercy, and calls upon the publishers to abolish it altogether.

Rabbi David Philipson, D.D., has collected in a small volume his lectures upon 'The Jew in English Fiction' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), in which he reviews the Jewish characters of Marlowe, Shakspere, Cumberland, Scott, Dickens, Disraeli, and George Eliot, and attempts to show wherein these writers are correct or fanciful in their delineations. The burden of the volume, however, seems to be that the Jew is characterized as such by his religion, and not by evil passions which he shares with men in common. He asserts that the Jew has now become nationalized in the liberal lands where he is born, and should not be regarded as more distinct from the community than Protestants or Catholics. Of the noticeable virtues of the Jews he has much to say; their vices, on the other hand, are not different from those of the Gentiles. The position is well defended, and the argument makes strongly for toleration.

'That Unknown Country: or, What Living Men Believe concerning Punishment after Death; together with recorded views of men of former times. The whole field explored, every source of wisdom, past and present, made tributary to this theme—Man's Final Destiny. A standard book for all time. Illustrated with a full-page engraving of each author. Sold only by subscription. C. A. Nichols & Co., Springfield, Mass.' We quote the above title at full length because itself serves some of the purposes of a notice, though the book is not so entirely bad as the title is. The volume, which is naturally enough a bulky one, is the result of the expression by fifty or more eminent scholars and divines of their imperfect knowledge of everlasting punishment. One is tempted to apply to it Mr. Lincoln's immortal criticism—that people who like that kind of a book will doubtless like this one very much. How far they are identical with the "general reader," we will not attempt to say.

Of Sir George Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians (1450-1889)' (Macmillan) we have spoken repeatedly in the course of its protracted publication, and we need not renew our commendation of it as the best in our own or in any language—an invaluable accession to our works of reference. It is but just now completed by the issue of volume iv, which contains an Appendix of some 300 pages, embodying a great number of new articles, corrections, and additions. New, for example, are the biographies of Gottschalk, Adelaide Phillipps, Stephen C. Foster (author of "Old Folks at Home" and so many other American popular songs), Campanini, and Dvořák; and these general articles: Part-writing; Carol; Dance Rhythm; Coronach; Episodes; Humorous Music—a very interesting view of a narrow field dominated by Beethoven; Negro Music, with special indebtedness on the writer's part to the pioneer collection, the 'Slave Songs of the United States'; Histories of Music, in four pages of fine print; Collections of Musical Instruments, in which New York does not figure, though it has a good beginning; English Metrical Psalter, treated in 13 pages; Gregorian Tones, etc. The "Harmonious Blacksmith" is recalled for a discussion as to its authorship, which Handel's free borrowing makes à priori not improbably another's. Important additions and revisions are given to the article on Musical Libraries. Boston Musical Societies and the Boston Mendelssohn Quintette Club are noticed for the first time. Under Beethoven we now get a catalogue of his printed works; under Mozart, a consideration of works falsely attributed to him; under Chopin, a list of his piano-forte solos; under Liszt, a deal of fresh and agreeable information, not omitting reference to that monument to his generous character, the 'Correspondence with Wagner.' A few columns of "Final Additions" are chiefly occupied with obituaries, as late as April 6 of the present year. Dr. Grove tells us in the preface that we have yet to expect a copious index of the whole four volumes, which has

been prepared by Mrs. Wodehouse, and will make a separate volume.

T. Y. Crowell & Co., pursuing their plan of popularizing Tolstoi, have just put forth, in paper covers, 'My Confession' and 'Ivan Ilyitch; Family Happiness,' etc.

The supplement to Cassell's *Magazine of Art* called 'Royal Academy Pictures' presents, in the main, excellent process memoranda of between eighty and ninety paintings and sculptural pieces of the late exhibition, the 121st. No artist is allowed more than one example. As there is no text by way of criticism, though the editor ventures to designate Mr. Orchardson's "Young Duke" as "the finest work in the whole collection," our readers may like to compare these plates with our recent London letter on the Royal Academy. It will then appear how restricted is the rôle of "process"—form being all it can be depended on to preserve. Its breakdown on the color side is well exhibited in the case of Mr. Wauters's "Seamew's Nest."

The July number of the *Andover Review* will contain an article by Mr. A. Taylor Innes of Edinburgh, giving an account of the progressive movement in the Scotch Free Church which has just culminated in the election of Dr. Marcus Dods to the New Testament chair in Edinburgh College, and the appointment of a committee to report on a revision of the standards.

The adaptation of Central Asia to Russian colonization was the subject of a recent address before the Russian Geographical Society, published in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for June, by Gen. Annenkoff, the builder of the Transcaspian Railway. It is of importance as indicating the policy of the Government in respect to its new territory. After dwelling upon the physical characteristics of the country, with special reference to the changes of its river beds, the writer states that investigations have shown that a very considerable part of the soil in the old basin of the Oxus is composed of the loess which covers nearly the whole of northern China and has proved of such extraordinary fertility. Borings have been made to the depth of sixty feet without reaching the bottom of the loess, which is identical in its chemical elements with that in China, and only needs irrigation to be as fertile. The desert sand in places is diminishing, especially along the line of the railway, where vegetation is increasing. This is partly owing to the setting out of plants, and partly to the order prohibiting the cutting of any plant within three miles of the railway on either side. Gen. Annenkoff proposed in conclusion that the following measures should be carried out: the publication of all necessary information in regard to this region for the use of intending colonists; the study of the best systems of artificial irrigation and their application to Central Asia; and the establishment of agricultural schools in which instruction should be given in the cultivation of cotton, silk, the vine, hops, and wheat. Among the other articles in this number is one on erosion by the tides, with a map of a part of the Bay of Fundy, and one on Oklahoma, with an excellent map of the Indian Territory.

Dr. F. Nansen, the hardy explorer who made last fall the first successful attempt to cross Greenland, arrived in Copenhagen about a month ago, and has published a brief account of his expedition. This has been translated into French, and appears in a supplement to the *Temps* of June 8. It is a most modest recital of only the chief events that marked a difficult and dangerous journey. The party set out from Christiania on a sealer which left them on the ice off the east coast of Greenland on July 17, 1888. It was twelve days before they could make a landing, and in that time they had drifted south about 280 miles. It was not till the 10th of August that they made their way back again to Umivik, the point from which they intended to start. Here they packed their provisions and instruments into five sledges, to be dragged by hand, and set out inland. The country rose slowly till at about the 1st of September they reached an elevation of 9,000 feet. They were now on "an extensive plateau, like a frozen sea." Much hardship was encountered in traversing this, the temperature being as low as 50° centigrade at times, and the weather severely stormy. On the 19th of September they reached the edge of the western slope, and started on a rapid descent, which was full of danger from the numerous hidden crevasses. On September 26 their goal was reached: the inland ice had been crossed. They had traversed 300 miles in about forty days. By the 12th of October all the members of the party had arrived at Godthaab, and the expedition was finished.

Richard Kiepert has charted for the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society the routes of the late African traveller, E. R. Flegel, and three sheets are given in No. 140–141. Flegel was, as Kiepert tells us, an untrained observer, and, feeling his deficiencies, attempted to make up in abundance what he lacked in accuracy of details. His diaries have been used in making the maps here given of the Benué, the eastern tributary of the Niger.

La France Littéraire, the *filia pulchrior* of the lovely and reputable *Décadent*, is dead—dead ere its prime. It may also be said that it has not left its peer, and that the literary atmosphere of France is all the clearer on this account.

—The July *Century* utilizes as a frontispiece a beautifully engraved cut of Mr. Cole's from Gentile da Fabriano. It is a "detail" from his picture of the Adoration of the Kings in the Florence Academy, but, as the portion selected is the heart of the painting, it is more completely illustrative than the description suggests. Mr. Stillman's accompanying text is admirable, though Mr. Cole's own note shows better the enthusiasm of the artist in the work before him, independently of all historical and critical questions. Public attention cannot be too repeatedly drawn to these remarkable reproductions of early Italian art, in which everything but color is so sympathetically rendered. The cuts which accompany in this number Mrs. Van Rensselaer's article upon Winchester Cathedral are also noticeably beautiful. Mr. Kennan exhibits a good deal of pleasure at his success in outwitting the military official stationed at the Kara mines, and draws his portrait with unsparing power; he sets the man's weaknesses before the reader almost with malicious reality, but deservedly, and with a lifelikeness that might be the despair of the realistic novelist. What he learned from the political prisoners, however, he does not tell, but only describes the night meeting which he attended in one of their cabins; the effect of their revelations upon his own acute sympathies is made plain almost unconsciously. The decoration of the steamer *Puritan*, the general subject of presentiments and visions, the early Irish, the Indians as they appear on their reservations, and the renomination of Lincoln, are the remaining topics.

—It is with regret that we note the last of Miss Preston's papers upon Cicero in the *Atlantic*. In this number we have the story of the last days and the death, told with the same grace and penetration of character on its refined side which have made the series at once attractive and valuable. Such essays are best fitted to give the non-classical reader a taste of the spirit of what was noblest in old Rome, and of the interest which makes Latin literature charming to the lover of cultivation; nor do we call to mind any interpreter among ourselves whose work has been so successful as Miss Preston's. Agnes Repplier contributes a pleasantly humorous piece upon the "Books that have Hindered Me," in which satirical spirits will find something to their mind. The author's gain in lightness of touch since her first appearance is particularly evident in this paper. Miss Jewett, whose hand we look for with most certainty in this magazine, especially when her story is of the best, contributes a brief character and wayside sketch, in which she puts into a little space an astonishing amount, outdoing herself in conciseness and completeness of expression. Her work artistically is work to be modelled after. Mr. Nelson raises the common question of the abuse and danger lying in the Speaker's power in Congress, with a side glance at the filibuster. Mr. Downes continues his previous artistic papers with one upon the old masters in the Metropolitan Museum, and Prof. Shaler writes with cheerfulness about college discipline, in the new scheme of which at Harvard he has a ready faith.

—*Scribner's* is devoted, with the exception of an article on the telegraph, to fiction. There are six short stories, and a comedietta in one act which may be regarded as a seventh. As a whole they are not likely to fill the discerning critic with superfluous pride in the resources and power of the American school. It is likely that in preparing a special fiction number the magazine would make some effort to obtain unusually excellent stories; but these are distinctly the work of mediocrity. There is, too, in several of them, a lack of finish and of compacting in the narrative which is not so easily excused in our days. We expect the manner to be correct, however dubious we may think the prospect of matter in what is said. The subjects are sufficiently varied, and range from a Kentucky horse-race to the glaciers of the Alps, from the quiet of the Redwood Library at Newport to the violence of a cyclone which tears a train apart and steals a carload of silver bricks. These excursions of the imagination are interleaved with bits of poetry, five in number, of the same commonplace character, which may also be reckoned as fiction. The reader, somewhat cloyed by the unchanging diet, turns to Mr. Stevenson's romance with relief, and finds at least something to interest him. With that he may best rest content, and not permit himself to experience what the Howellsian comedy can become in the hands of the last contributor.

—A too tardy tribute has just been paid to Douglass Houghton in a memoir of 300 pages by one of his associates, Alvah Bradish. Houghton was a martyr of science, being drowned forty-four years ago in Lake Superior, the shores of which he was well-nigh first to explore. As early as 1832 he was with Schoolcraft at the source of the Mississippi. As the first State geologist of Michigan, which is now foremost in the production of copper, salt, and iron, he discovered her wealth in these staples. His revelations were at first discredited by Silliman and other wise men of the East, but were confirmed wherever miners followed his lead. His career early illustrated the value of the Rensselaer Institute, which, when he studied there, was the only scientific school in the

country. The arduousness of early surveys comes over us with cumulative force as we trace the manifold and year-long perils and privations of Houghton. His death was only after scores of hair-breadth 'scapes. He was lost in October, 1845, and his remains were not found till the lake opened in the spring. They were buried in Detroit. He has a cenotaph on the University grounds at Ann Arbor, where he was a professor. His chief geographical monument is his name given to the county on the shore of which he perished, as well as to its capital, which is one of the two largest copper-mining towns. But whoever would understand the merit of the man must read not only his memoir, but the reports of his surveys, which fill more than half the volume. His years were thirty-six, but, as was said of Enoch, the most short-lived antediluvian, "being made perfect in a short time he fulfilled a long time."

—MM. Hachette & Cie., publishers of the great 'Atlas Universel' of MM. Vivien de St.-Martin and F. Schrader, the preparation of which is now finished and its publication going on, have just begun the issue in monthly parts of a smaller 'Atlas de Géographie Moderne,' which will contain sixty-four maps, thirty by forty centimetres in size. This will be edited by M. Schrader, with the assistance of M. F. Prudent, of the Service Géographique of France, and M. E. Anthoine, Chief Engineer of the Service de la Carte, who will use in its preparation the collections that were made for the larger work. The first *livraison* is just out, and two of its maps—those of Switzerland and of the Russian Empire—have been given as supplements to the *Temps* and the *Figaro*. These seem to us excellent, especially the map of Switzerland. Tints and shadow are so cleverly used as to give a very clear and striking impression of the physical geography of the country, as well as its outline and the position of towns and rivers and mountains, which is all that one finds on an ordinary map. Another thing worthy of praise is, that the editors have not made their map a maze and labyrinth of proper names. Not too many place-names are given, and these seem to have been chosen with judgment and carefulness.

—At the annual meeting of the Société d'histoire diplomatique, which was held in Paris on the 29th of May, the Marquis de Gabriac read a very interesting account of a journey into France which his maternal grandmother, the Duchesse de Guiche, made in the year 1801. This account was written by the Duchess herself. She was living in London in 1801, and was one of the body of French nobles who formed a sort of little court for the Comte d'Artois. The princes sent her over to France charged with the delicate mission of trying to find out whether the First Consul was well enough disposed towards the monarchy to be willing to assist in its restoration. The Duchess tells the story of three interviews that she had on this subject, with Maingnaud, Fouché's commissary at Calais, with Fouché himself, and with Josephine, the wife of Bonaparte, at Malmaison. Fouché and Maingnaud humored the royalist sentiments of the noble lady, but told her plainly that the choice of England for a place of refuge by the royal princes had had a very bad effect in France; that the country was not pleased to see them consort with its worst enemies, and especially that it found the intimacy between the Comte d'Artois and the bloodthirsty Duke of Portland very offensive. The Duchess replied that the Duke of Portland was a stupid and sensual person, who cared a good deal more for wine than he did for blood. Whereupon Fouché: "On n'a pas besoin d'être spirituel pour être sanguinaire!" "Oh, nous le savons bien," the Duchess retorted, looking at him fixedly. Before this, Fouché had said: "The French have always been brave, but just now they have completely fallen in love with military glory. They absolutely require a soldier for their head. The restoration of the legitimate monarchy at this moment is impossible. *Moi et Bonaparte*, we should like it, but we could not do it." Josephine showed herself very royalist; she assured the Duchess that Bonaparte would repulse with horror the thought of being a usurper. But she complained, as Fouché had done, of his bad surroundings. The parvenu generals and officers would fear, in case of a restoration, that they would be sacrificed to the noblesse. She also pointed with pride to the efforts her pious husband had made to inspire his lieutenants with correct religious sentiments. She said that Lannes, in particular, professed a thorough conversion.

—One can well imagine the thrill of surprise and incredulity that must have run through the audience at the reunion of the Société de Biologie in Paris on June 12, when its President, the illustrious Dr. Brown-Séquard, mounted the tribune and began his address thus: "Gentlemen, I believe that henceforth the question of the rejuvenation of existence may be studied and resolved by the aid of the present data of science." But even a vivid imagination can hardly picture the mingled emotions with which his hearers must have listened as he went on slowly and gravely to unfold his story of the studies and experiments in the renewal of life and youth that have occupied him now for more than twenty years. Dr. Brown-Séquard believes that he has discovered the secret of perpetual youth—nay, more, that he himself is experiencing rejuvenation, and is become ten years younger than he was when he made the first trial of his method upon himself on May 15. We will not even try to sketch the outline of the discovery till we have received the full text of his address in the *Bulletin Médical*. The whole first issue of the number which contains it was sold almost instantly, and no copy was to be had at the time of the last mail. It shall be enough to say that Dr. Brown-Séquard's process consists in the subcutaneous injection of a fluid containing particles of the living organs of certain young animals, like guinea-pigs, etc. As yet, of course, nobody has a right to any opinion whatever on the announced discovery. Dr. Brown-Séquard's authority is of the greatest, but until the personal equation in his experiments and observations has been determined one cannot tell what weight they carry. It is possible that even a very great savant may have been self-deceived and been self-cured of age by "faith," or what Feuchtersleben calls "the dietetics of the soul." But the new theory will at once be tested by many men and in many ways, and the world will watch intently to see whether it shall prove true or not.

—A couple of months ago we noticed at some length the report of Dr. Dujardin-Beaumetz upon hydrophobia in the Department of the Seine, and its successful treatment by the method of M. Pasteur. This report showed that under Pasteur's treatment the death-rate in hydrophobia had been lowered from the 14 to 16 per cent. reported some years ago by Drs. Brouardel and Leblanc to only 1.04 per cent. The statistics of the Institut Pasteur for the year ending May 1, 1889, have just been presented to the Académie des Sciences, and they show a considerable reduction even of the last low figure. During the year, 1,673 patients who had been bitten by animals believed to be mad received inoculation at the Institut; of these only thirteen died—three after treatment, and ten while the treatment was still going on. This brings the rate of mortality down to a little less than .78 per cent. If this success shall continue (and there seems to be no reason why it should not), the panegyric on Pasteur which M. de Vogüé delivered the other day in his address at the Academy reception will not be thought extravagant.

RECENT MUSICAL LITERATURE.

Chopin, and Other Musical Essays. By Henry T. Finck, author of 'Romantic Love and Personal Beauty.' Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

The History of German Song. An account of the progress of vocal composition in Germany from the time of the Minnesingers to the present age, with sketches of the lives of the leading German composers. By Louis C. Elson. Boston: New England Conservatory of Music.

Lessons in Musical History. By John Comfort Fillmore. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser.

Operatic Tales. By F. R. Chesney. Scribner & Welford. 1889.

THE rapid growth of our nation's musical literature is one of the most interesting as well as significant features of the progress of the art in America. The current number of the London *Musical Times* makes the frank acknowledgment that "American musical critics are beginning to be read in England," and extends a cordial welcome to Mr. Finck's essays and to Mr. Krehbiel's annual record of musical performances in New York. Other writers whose works have appeared during the past three or four years might well have shared the same welcome. It is equally if not still more gratifying to know that these works are meeting with extraordinary favor in the United States, all of which demonstrates a steady and healthy growth of American musical taste and scholarship.

Mr. Finck's volume of essays is marked by an originality of thought and boldness of treatment, particularly in the sketch of Chopin, which will be sure to challenge attention on all sides, and perhaps to invite criticism from some who do not go as far as he in their admiration of the great genius of the piano-forte. His work includes, besides the Chopin essay, a paper showing "How Composers Work," "Schumann, as Mirrored in his Letters," "Music and Morals" (which is refreshing reading after Haweis's rhapsodical and watery treatment of the same theme), "Italian and German Vocal Styles," and "German Opera in New York." The Chopin essay was not needed to revive an interest in that master, and it is evident this was not the object Mr. Finck had in view. The Polish composer still dominates the programmes of piano recitals, and the test question applied to every prominent player is, "How does he play Chopin?" Mr. Finck's purpose was rather to establish a title to the exalted place which he claims for the great tone-poet in the musical Pantheon, and he leaves the reader in no uncertainty on this point.

"No doubt Chopin is in some respects inferior to Bach and Beethoven, but in other respects he is quite as unquestionably superior to them." "Chopin was the piano-forte genius *par excellence*, and in his field he stands above the greatest of the German composers, what-

ever their names." "Some years ago I wrote in the *Nation* that if all piano-forte music in the world were to be destroyed, excepting one collection, my vote should be cast for Chopin's preludes." "Chopin is the composer for the few, and he is the composer *par excellence* for musicians. From him they can get more ideas, and learn more as regards form, than from any one else, except Bach and Wagner."

This is high praise, but why is Beethoven omitted, from whom Wagner himself derived both ideas and form? Mr. Finck not only states his claim, but propounds his reasons with an audacious enthusiasm which will be sure to enlist the attention even of those who may consider them heterodox. The latter will not relish his onslaught upon what he styles "æsthetic Jumboism," or the proclivity to admire productions and results simply because they are mammoth. He dwells upon this point with great force and at considerable length, and it is sound, healthy doctrine. He also finds that the German tendency to depreciate Chopin grows out of Teutonic and Slavic antipathies, which is also a point well taken. In following the natural drift of his subject he also throws many side-lights upon Chopin and his works which are of extreme interest. He particularly calls attention to many of his compositions which are almost unknown to modern répertoires, and makes a scholarly criticism in declaring against the practice of arranging his piano-forte pieces for the orchestra. His remarks upon Chopin's use of the pedal and of the *tempo rubato* and his innovations in accent will command the approval of all thoughtful musicians.

Some, however, will not be so quick to accept his strictures upon the sonata form and Chopin's relations to it. We shall readily agree with him that Chopin did not write sonatas *con amore*, but can hardly concede that "the sonata form could not master him." Even if Haydn and Beethoven had not exhausted that form, Chopin's temperament was not in touch with it any more than it was with the orchestral or with any form requiring severe study of polyphony, much as he needed it for his complete expression. Chopin was more unacademical and unconventional even than Beethoven. We doubt if it was so much the form of the composition as the form of the composer himself that stood in the way. As to the general dictum which underlies this essay, however, namely, that Chopin is the greatest genius of piano-forte music, there can be little doubt of its strict correctness. Mr. Finck evidently shares the opinions of George Sand, who was in a position to speak with authority. Somewhere she says:

"The day will come when his music will be regarded as superior to anything in the piano partitur, and then everybody will know that this genius, as vast, as complete, and as learned as the greatest masters whom he resembled, preserved an individuality more exquisite than that of Sebastian Bach, more powerful than that of Beethoven, still more dramatic than Weber. He is all three united and he is still himself. The whole of Mozart alone is superior to him, because he has more of the calmness of health, consequently more of the fulness of life."

In this individuality of Chopin lies his power as well as his greatness. More than any other composer, he individualized the piano, recognized and developed the organ of speech which belongs to it, and made it speak its own language. Mr. Finck has fully recognized this, and he states his beliefs with an enthusiasm, boldness, and suggestiveness which, while they will offend no one, may at least have the result of setting those to thinking who cannot fully agree with him.

We have devoted the most space to the opening essay because its importance warrants it, and because it is destined to open up a profitable discussion upon the true place of Chopin in the musical world; but at the same time the reader will not do wisely to neglect the remaining essays, which, though briefer, are charmingly written, and extremely interesting in subject. The last two, on "Italian and German Vocal Styles" and "German Opera in New York," show that the writer is as ardent a lover of Wagner as of Chopin, notwithstanding the radical dissimilarity in personality and style, as well as in theories, of the two. He is a most zealous champion of German opera, but let him not exult too heartily. Italian opera, English opera, opéra bouffe, even "Pinafore," have had their day when they eclipsed all other forms, only in turn to be eclipsed themselves by some new comer. It is German opera now. What will come next?—for it is the fate of opera in this country to be governed by the laws of fad. Nevertheless, Mr. Finck has written a book which will command admiration in all quarters, though it may fail to command assent in some. It is an exceptionally valuable contribution to American musical literature.

In the 'History of German Song,' another exceedingly creditable contribution has been made to our musical literature by Mr. Louis C. Elson, the accomplished critic of the Boston *Advertiser*, whose industry, ability, and scholarship find numerous opportunities of employment in criticisms, essays, correspondence, magazine contributions, and active work in connection with the New England Conservatory of Music. Notwithstanding his many occupations, he has found time to write a well-considered and discriminating treatise on German song, dedicated to Robert Franz, and not without significance, for in one of his letters Franz writes: "There is no doubt that the basis of all musical forms is the vocal and not the instrumental style." The title of Mr. Elson's book is somewhat of a misnomer, though the sub-title satisfactorily explains it. It is in no sense a history of the German *Lied*, as one might fancy at the first glance. It has a much wider scope, and aims in a general way to cover the ground of vocal composition in Germany from the time of the Minnesingers, and their successors, the Mastersingers, to the present. He begins with Wolfram of Eschenbach, and closes with Wagner, and the journey leads to many pleasant discursions, such as the etiquette and habits of the Minnesingers, and the instruments employed by them; the contests of the Mastersingers, and their pedantries, which Wagner has burlesqued; the ancient dances of Germany; organ-playing, especially as it was developed by Sebastian Bach; the influence of Goethe and Heine upon music, and Wagner's operatic innovations and reforms.

The main subject of the book, however, is always kept in view, and the discursions do not mar its continuity. The history of the Minnesingers and their influence upon the art, considering the necessarily brief space devoted to it in the general scheme, is excellently treated, though it would have added to its completeness had the distinction between the *Minnelied* and the *Spruch*, or the love songs that were sung and the didactic poems that were spoken, been clearly indicated, since the latter are among the finest instances of the art of the representative Minnesinger, Walther von der Vogelweide. The chapter devoted to the Mastersingers is an admirable statement of the artificial and pedantic methods of the Tabulatur and of the practices of the musical guild, which, alas! produced but one really great name, Hans Sachs, the cobbler of Nuremberg. The disappearance of the Mastersingers is followed by the folk-songs, the *Marienlieder*, and the chorales, and these bring our author down to the rise of secular and operatic music in Germany, leading up to Handel, Mattheson, Bach and his sons, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. The chapters devoted to these composers are in the form of excellent condensed biographies, which are specially noticeable for their accuracy of statement and the absence of the romantic and rhapsodical speculations which are so often found in sketches of this kind.

In his statement of the origin of operatic composition in Germany, Mr. Elson says: "It was the Italian opera of 'Daphne,' by Rinuccini, which had the honor of first representing the new school in Germany." This is hardly exact. Rinuccini only wrote the poem of "Daphne." The original music to it was written by Jacopo Peri (1597). The version of this poem of "Daphne" which was produced in Germany was entirely German. The text was translated by Martin Opitz, and the music was set by Heinrich Schütz, chapelmaster to the Elector of Saxony, who also revised, if he did not entirely rewrite, the text. It was, as Mr. Elson says, the first opera performed in Germany, and it was also the first opera written by a German, though not the first genuine German opera, as it was clearly a reflection of the Italian.

The remainder of Mr. Elson's essay is devoted to the Lied composers, Schubert, Schumann, Franz, Mendelssohn, Brahms, Rubinstein, Jensen, and Karl Loewe, the ballad composer, closing with an excellent sketch of Wagner and his works. Whether we consider the biographical or critical contents of these sketches, they are alike admirable, and deserve to be carefully digested by the musical student. They show the conscientious work of a true scholar and the skill of the trained critic. A short paper on "The Last Hours of Great Composers," which seems to be apart from the main purpose of the volume, though it has an interest of its own, closes the book.

Mr. Fillmore has been identified with the cause of musical education, especially at the West, for many years. His name has long been a familiar one at all gatherings of instructors and in the annual national conventions of teachers. His little volumes have also been educational in character, the latest addition to which is 'Lessons in Musical History.' It is, as its name indicates, a text-book, not only compiled for purposes of reference, but designed for class work, as is shown by the lists of questions following each chapter, and might be utilized for grammar or even high-school and academy purposes. The general scheme of the author has been to present in a compact space a history of music from the earliest times to the present, with necessarily brief biographical sketches of the prominent composers, and passing references to others, as well as notices of their work. Mr. Fillmore's book presents only the outlines of this history, and yet it is far from being a primer or a bald statement of generalities. Its information is well digested and singularly accurate, and interwoven with it are pithy criticisms, which must prove of value to musical pupils, and suggestions of a highly practical nature. One such is contained in the preface, in which, after enumerating various works which the student should read, he pays a well-deserved tribute to Riemann, the German historian, essayist, and theorist. We can heartily endorse his commendation. Every one of Riemann's numerous works deserves to be carefully translated into English, and should be in every student's library. We

cannot follow Mr. Fillmore, however, in his recommendation of the Rev. H. R. Haweis's utterly useless disquisition on 'Music and Morals,' or his 'Musical Memories' as "excellent reading." A very important and altogether praiseworthy feature of the volume is the comparative table of chronology which forms its appendix. It is very neatly arranged, and correlates with the history of music the most important events in art, science, literature, religion, politics, and sociology. It was a very happy thought, and is highly creditable to Mr. Fillmore's scholarship. The contents of the book are presented in very neat form, which makes one regret all the more that the proof-reading is now and then defective; the errors, however, being mainly typographical.

It is not exactly clear why Mr. F. R. Chesney should have written his 'Operatic Tales,' or what useful purpose they can subserve. The author, who is an Englishman, has selected twenty-three operas, nearly half of which are already shelved, and tells the story of them in a rambling way. It is not easy to discover the standards of his choice. Why, for instance, should he have selected "Lohengrin" and "Die Meistersinger" of Wagner, and "Aïda," "Louisa Miller," "I Vespri Siciliani," and "Un Ballo en Maschera" of Verdi, and left other and still more important works of these composers unmentioned? Perhaps his answer is contained in the preface: "It has been suggested that a series of tales on which operas are founded might supply a want in current literature. Those which have been selected in this volume have, it is believed, never before appeared in a similar garb." The answer, however, is not creditable to Mr. Chesney's musical reading. The story of every one of these operas (and many more) will be found in the sumptuous work, 'Beauties of the Opera and Ballet,' published in 1844 by Charles Heath, or in Annesley's 'Standard Opera-Glass' (1888) —both English books; as well as in Pardon's 'Tales from the Opera' (1864), 'Operas: their Writers and their Plots,' by Notelrac (Carleton), (1882), and Upton's 'Standard Operas' (1886), published in this country, the last-named of which contains not only the stories, but analyses of the music of the operas.

The field which Mr. Chesney covers so meagrely and in such desultory fashion had, as will be seen, already been completely occupied by the above writers. Everything about the book is an enigma. Even before he opens it, the reader will be astonished at finding Lohengrin on the cover in black coat of mail and barred helmet, standing on the back of his swan, apparently knee deep in its plumage, and with his huge sword jabbed well into the body of the unfortunate bird. Evidently the engraver had not "followed copy," which would have informed him that "a swan appeared on the waters of the Schelde, guiding a little barque in which stood a knight clad in resplendent armor and who held the swan by a golden chain attached to his neck." Perhaps the artist belongs to the realistic school, and preferred to have the hero arrive at Antwerp swanback.

ENGLISH IN THE NEW WORLD.

Americanisms Old and New: A Dictionary of Words, Phrases, and Colloquialisms peculiar to the United States, British America, the West Indies, etc., etc., their Derivation, Meaning, and Application. Compiled and edited by John S. Farmer. London. 1889.

Now that the American Union, with everything pertaining to it, has come to attract so largely the study of Englishmen, a competent exhibition and exposition of the peculiarities of phraseology noticeable among us, the predominant subject of this book, would be an achievement that might reckon on a warm welcome in our ancestral home. Unmistakably, however, Mr. Farmer, in essaying to supply a desideratum, has undertaken an enterprise for which he is in no respect whatever adequately qualified. At most, one has merely to read any half-dozen of his pages to light on evidence beyond all gainsaying in establishment of this conclusion. A certain expression, according to his account of it, is "a survival in New York State and on the Hudson River." Whether things analogous to this are not, with him, when under guidance of the *intellectus sibi permissus*, the rule rather than the exception, may, indeed, be questionable. At any rate, where he is not simply copying, it is but slight exaggeration to say that, save in blundering, or in doing worse, he is hardly himself. In literal truth, only by the addition of something like a perpetual commentary, corrective and supplemental, could his compilation be transformed so as to satisfy any but the most uncritical.

These are no unweighed judgments. The merits of his book, in its present form, even the most favorably disposed reviewer will find it a problem to discover, whereas its demerits obtrude themselves at every turn. One of these, conspicuous enough, and yet not more so than a variety of others, is its accounting as Americanisms words that can on no rational ground be so denominated. Among words of this description are *alcoholism*, *alligator*, *Anglo-Saxendom*, *argufy*, *asininity*, *atremble*, *ballyrag*, *bam*, *banana*, *bandanna*, *beaverdam*, *being* (for *since*), the verb *best*, *betweenity*, *biddable*, *blowen*, *bolero*, *bothersome*, *bruiser* (for *prize-fighter*), the phrases *to save one's bacon* and *to talk like a book*, the slang *to do brown*, and so on. All these, and much besides, reference to Dr. Murray's Dictionary, which is cited under *betterments* and often elsewhere, evinces to be misleading surplusage. Such reference would, for instance, have precluded the statement that *authoress* was "first coined in America"; Dr. Murray giving quotations for it dated 1645 and 1654, with others, dated 1583, 1603, 1632, and 1724, for the contracted *authresse*. And again it would have kept the compiler from calling *attitudinize* "an American creation," and from saying that it "is given in Worcester, . . . but by no other authority"; seeing that, as Dr. Murray shows, Boswell puts it into the mouth of Dr. Johnson in 1784, and that Miss Hannah More is quoted for it by Dr. Webster's editors. *Blatancy*, further, though Dr. Murray proves its existence in 1610, "has not," it is alleged, "yet been admitted to the dictionaries." We are told, too, that *biblioklept*, *bibliolarty* (*sic*), "the worship of books," *bibliopegist*, *bibliophile*, *bibliopole*, and *bibliotaph* "can fairly claim American birth"; a notion wholly gratuitous, unless, as is most improbable, Dr. Murray is to be corrected regarding those expressions. But we have dwelt more than sufficiently on a single class of misrepresentations.

Nor can we help censuring the recognition, in the work before us, as Americanisms, of nonce-words, devices of personal whim or playfulness, which their originators did not intend seriously, or else ventured ignorantly, and which have met with no appreciable acceptance indicated by adoption. Of these coinages are, with plenty more of their congeners, *angeliferous*, *appetitical*, and *balditude*.

The compiler's observations on genuine Americanisms may next be slightly touched on. *Aunt*, he says, is "a familiar name often given, in the States and West Indies, to negresses of advanced age." With its exceptional application in the interior of New England, and likewise with that of *uncle*, he has no acquaintance. Of the antiquity of the substantive *avails*, as still current in parts of the United States, mention should have been made by him, but is wanting. *Back and forth* he pronounces to be "a New England Puritan survival"—a reckless guess; it being, in all likelihood, a slight alteration of the *back and fore* of Scotch immigrants. *Bank-bill*, on his warrant, "is the name by which Bank of England notes are generally known throughout the States." What name, then, can he suppose that Americans give to the paper money of their own banks? *Boost*, he has it, with his headlong hardihood as to facts, is "an old English word." Worse still is this: "At Harvard, 'To have no *bowels*' is to be poor, destitute, or without means. Of Scriptural derivation; the word being used in a somewhat similar sense in the Bible." Where? "The use of the word with this signification has arisen, probably, from a jocular reference to a quaint Scriptural expression," says an American glossarist to whom he is here, as frequently, indebted. *Bubby* is expounded to be "a pet name for a baby"—an evolution from the inner consciousness of the expounder, for whose second edition *bub* and *sis* must wait to receive due attention. "A fire is *built*, instead of made, probably from the piling up of logs, one upon another, for that purpose [*what* purpose?], in the backwoods." From a man presumably new to old-fashioned hearths and the mystery of andirons, some such conjecture, if he did not prefer judicious silence, was, of course, to be expected.

In the matter of linguistics and etymology Mr. Farmer shines with phenomenal lustre: "The prefix A is an Anglo-Saxon survival"; "the old Anglo-Saxon prefix A"; in this we have the revelation of a discoverer. Under *allottee*, mistakenly reckoned an Americanism, we read: "This class of words, during late years, has become increasingly numerous; the form of termination being American in origin." Miserable as is here the style of expression, it is nothing to the demand made on our credulity. *Legatee* and *referee* are adduced in illustration, notwithstanding that Dr. Johnson vouches Dryden for one and Roger L'Estrange for the other. And what of *absentee*, *appellee*, *appointee*, *assignee*, *bargainee*, *cognizee*, *committee*, *covenantee*, *devotee*, *donee*, *feoffee*, *grantee*, and a host of their fellows? If Americans have, with the exception of *employee*, any term of the species to which these belong that is not acknowledged English, it escapes us at this moment. So much for *allottee*, and only briefly; for we hasten on to the masterpiece of the compiler's philology, elicited by *billiardist*. In connection with this we are told: "Words terminating in *ist* (an 'agent') are multiplying on every hand. One of the earliest introductions was 'scientist.' . . . Except in very rare instances, the combination is intolerable to educated ears, and little enough can be said in defence of the usage." Looking to the enormous number of our derivatives in *-ist*, the great age of scores of them, and their many divisions and subdivisions, it is all but incredible that this should have been written. The veriest tiro just entering his teens could explode such ridiculous sciolism.

After what has been shown above, it is no surprise to see the abbreviations *A. V.*, *Ph.D.*, and *S. T.D.* set down as Americanisms; nor could we count on different Latin from "boves per dolum *amtas*," with "*Torgnum* saccharatum" as the botanical appellation of *broomcorn*.

Pretty constantly, however, the compiler has his "head in Coventry" (*sic*), if we may have recourse to what he cites, to our enlightenment, as "an English slang phrase." As to his critical discrimination of the vesture of English literature, significant of it is his "stately, rounded, yet pedantic periods of *Addison*, *Steele*, and Johnson." Once more, where, characterizing us physically, he is pleased to say that "already the American type is a distinct one," we have a strong suspicion that he is beholden, for his idea of that type, to the cartoons in *Punch* or else to some equally scientific authority.

Wholly apart from the purpose of his book, and with unconscious supererogation, Mr. Farmer furnishes, in the course of it, a notable anthology of the kind of grammar and English which a pedagogue is wont to lay before his younger pupils for syntactic and other emendation. In the effusion of a recent penny-a-liner whose studied elegances have attracted us, some one, in the fulness of time, was moved to "*partake of* a wife"; and, in the dialect of his literary compeer with whom we are engaged, "to take a big or long drink is to *partake of* liquor from a large glass." A few more samples of his proficiency in composition, leading off with the perpetration of the suspensive participle, here follow:

"Broadly *viewing* slang as a possible element of the grammar of the future, and grammar as accepted slang, this fact is, of itself, significant." (P. viii.)

"The language of the Older England of the Seas and [that of] the Newer England of the West is [are] essentially the same." (P. xiv.)

"To foretell its coming *or* forecast its course *are* alike impossible." (P. 38.)

"Base-ball. The American national game, taking, with *them*, the position that cricket holds with us." (P. 42.)

"One who will *neither* allow others a voice in any matter, *or* permit dissent from his own views." (P. 53.)

As the compiler has acquitted himself under A and B, so, and neither better nor worse, he has acquitted himself to the end of the alphabet. A slovenly collection of pillage it is impossible to commend. Of relevant materials at his disposal there was no lack, while, on his part, the lack is deplorable of success in turning them to appropriate account. Moreover, it should have occurred to him, on the slightest reflection, that, in default of an intimate personal familiarity with this country, it must be indispensable, towards the avoidance of all sorts of errors, to submit the outcome of his labors, before putting it in print, to the criticism of some one on this side the Atlantic. As the result of neglecting this obvious precaution, we find him even transcribing, with or without acknowledgment, what he does not himself understand, and what will not be understood in England. For example, under *ball up*, *barney*, *blood*, and *bull*, his borrowed "recite" and "recitation" have, among us, senses which, in Great Britain, are entirely unknown. As regards his style, only in rare cases does it rise above that of a third-class newspaper. And here, with apologies for our prolixity, we conclude our appraisal of a quarto which, by the contrast of its comeliness of aspect with its peculiar contents, recalls the venerable simile extorted by the Scribes and Pharisees from their denouncer. What with its imposing pretensions, its wretched shortcomings, and its costliness, we are not conscious that we deviate from even-handed justice in summing it up, compendiously, as a portentous catchguinea, if an aggravated catchpenny may be so designated.

The Banquet (Il Convito) of Dante Alighieri. Translated by Katharine Hillard. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1889.

To Miss Hillard belongs the honor of having made the first satisfactory translation of the 'Convito' into English, for that published in the "Universal Library" in 1887 scarcely deserved the name of a translation. That the 'Convito' should be so late in taking its place among the English versions of Dante's writings is not to be wondered at. The 'Divine Comedy' and the 'New Life' will always be the two works of Dante most read and most prized. The 'New Life,' a young lover's story of his love, written in large part for a single friend, is distinctly personal in its charm. All true lovers find their love repeated in it, but it is in itself the narrative of a completely individual experience, without the slightest attempt at generalization. The 'Divine Comedy,' on the other hand, written for all mankind, the sum of Dante's final convictions in their final form, is, perhaps, the most tremendous generalization on the facts of a single human experience that has ever been made. The 'Convito' stands between the two, lacking the sweet, lyrical charm of the 'New Life' and the architectural unity and completeness of the 'Divine Comedy.' But it has a charm and an interest of its own.

Dante's 'Banquet' was a feast which he spread liberally before the unlearned but inquiring minds of his time and his nation, served in their own way and in their own language. The texts which he used for the discourses that make up this feast were certain of his poems which had been much misunderstood; but Dante's real object was higher than a mere personal explanation. He meant to benefit his people, to encourage noble virtues, to check the wrangling of parties, the insolence of the foolish, and the hypocrisy of false learning. The method of his discourse is rambling and diffuse; it is full of citations of learned authorities, and excels in the gymnastics of logic in which schoolmen were expert. Hence its form as well as its subject-matter has made it one of the least read of Dante's writings. Of late years, however, in the effort to explain Dante by Dante, more and more attention has been given to the 'Convito,' and scholars see that they can look to it not only for a collection of Dante's opinions on ethics, physics, and metaphysics, but for a glimpse into the workshop of his mind. The 'Banquet' is to the 'Divine Comedy' what an author's commonplace book is to his novels. We often find in the former the same opinions—in germ or already developed, the same point of view, even the same figures of speech, that we find in organic form in the latter.

But, in spite of many beautiful passages, the 'Convito' is hard reading even for the adept, and for this reason students of Dante of almost every grade will welcome Miss Hillard's translation. Unfortunately, the text of the 'Banquet' is extremely corrupt, and no translation of it can be called final which is based on an edition like that of Giuliani. After making this allowance, however, one has nothing but praise for this careful and idiomatic rendering of a work involved and often obscure both in thought and in expression. Here and there, to be sure, there are words and phrases about the rendering of which one might differ from the translator; but in the passages which we have tested, we have not found a single instance of mistranslation. The notes at the bottom of the page, too, are usually excellent, sometimes original and suggestive, and especially definite in points of historical allusion and in parallels between corresponding passages in the 'Convito' and in the 'Divine Comedy.' A fuller commentary, amounting at times to a running paraphrase and summary of the line of thought, is often needed, and this the translator has unfortunately not attempted to supply; an index, too, would have added greatly to the value of the book. These lacks, however, do not impair seriously the general adequacy both of the translation and of the notes.

The introduction, of some sixty pages, which Miss Hillard has prefixed to her work, bears signs of much careful thought. We differ, however, widely from certain opinions which she expresses on points of some importance because they involve the chronological sequence and actual date of Dante's writings. In the first place, Miss Hillard follows Fraticelli, Scolari, Selmi, Renier, D'Ancona, and others in giving to a portion of the 'Convito' a date before 1300. Here the question of Dante's whole intellectual development is involved. The proof depends somewhat upon the resemblance in matter and in style between parts of the 'Banquet' and parts of the 'New Life.' Much of the comparison which Miss Hillard makes is suggestive, and might perhaps lead one to suspect a closer chronological connection between parts of the two works than is ordinarily acknowledged, were it not that all other considerations either fail to corroborate such a supposition or go directly against it. There are certain instances, to be sure, in which Dante is supposed to correct in the 'Commedia' statements with regard to physics and the like which he had made in the 'Convito.' Hence Miss Hillard supposes (p. xxiv) that the treatise of the 'Convito' which contains statements thus corrected must have been written before 1300, the date at which Dante set the vision of the 'Comedy.' But the obvious reply to this is, that, although Dante feigned himself in the year 1300 with regard to the chronology of births, deaths, and historical events, the opinions of the 'Comedy' about physics, astronomy, and philosophy were those of the moment in which he wrote. For Dante to carry the fiction so far as to express in the 'Divine Comedy' only the opinions with regard to such matters which he held in the spring of 1300, would have been impossible, and a correction in the 'Paradiso' of any statement found in the 'Convito' merely shows that the 'Convito' was written before the 'Paradiso,' not that it, or any part of it, was written before 1300.

Another argument which Miss Hillard uses is drawn from allusions in the 'Convito' to persons as living who were really dead at the ordinary date given for the composition of the book. Of the three instances of this which are most often alleged, Miss Hillard makes use of only two. In the first of these, the reference to Gherado da Camino (iv, 14), she contradicts herself. In the 'Convito,' she says, he is mentioned as dead, but he is known to have been alive in July, 1301 (p. xxxi). Hence (p. xxxii) the fourth treatise of the 'Convito' is supposed to have been written *before* July, 1301. But if that treatise of the 'Convito' mentions him as dead, it must have been written *after* July, 1301. As a matter of fact, Gherado was alive even later than that, and the argument, if it proves anything, proves precisely what Miss Hillard does not wish it to.

Again, in the case of Asdente, the cobbler and prophet of Parma, the allusion does not point to a date before 1300. Asdente, says Miss Hillard, is mentioned by Dante in the 'Convito' (iv, 16) as alive, "while he is spoken of in the *Inferno* (xx, 118) as among those recently dead; most of the critics consider,

therefore, that he died in March, 1300." But in the 'Convito' Asdente is spoken of rather as a notorious character than as a living man; in the "Inferno" he is not spoken of as recently dead; and furthermore he probably died long before 1300, for Salimbene mentions him in 1239 as already famous. At all events, then, to sum up, the burden of proof still rests with those who try to set an early date for the 'Convito' by arguments drawn from historical allusions, for, without exception, these allusions are either indefinite in character, or point to a date in the first decade of the fourteenth century (probably 1306–8).

Another important point about which Miss Hillard seems to us to be mistaken is the date at which Dante first saw the Lady Philosophy, love for whom led him to forget Beatrice for a time. Upon that date depends the date at which the 'New Life' was written, and it is therefore necessary to determine it precisely. Dante tells us that he first saw her (p. 56), when two revolutions of Venus (in that circle of hers which makes her appear as evening and as morning star at different times) had been completed after the death of Beatrice. The question is, how long is a revolution of Venus in that circle. On this point Miss Hillard is not explicit. Once (p. 56, n.) she says 180 days; again (p. xxiii), 365 days; and still again (p. 59), 348 days, basing her opinion on a passage from Witte which he afterwards expressly retracted. Now, Dante wrote according to the Ptolemaic system of astronomy, and it would be natural to suppose that he referred here to the period in which Venus appears to revolve about the earth—a period of almost exactly a year. But the revolution of Venus around the earth is not that which makes her appear as morning and as evening star, as may be seen from any simple explanation of the Ptolemaic system. The revolution in question is, then, the revolution of Venus in her epicycle, a period of about 225 days, and Dante first saw the *donna pietosa* in September, 1291.

Such slips as these with regard to the exact determining of certain important dates will not detract from the reader's appreciation of the earnest care with which Miss Hillard has prepared the introduction to her excellent translation. One can only wish that in these instances and others she had consulted the more recent works which touch the subject she treats; and that she had sometimes been less rash in accepting without investigation plausible statements in matters about which most writers have a theory to prove at any cost.

The War of Independence. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

George Washington. An Historical Biography. By Horace E. Scudder. Same publishers.

THESE two very elegant little volumes are the first instalments of the "Riverside Library for Young People." The publishers announce that it is their aim to raise the standard of juvenile literature by producing books which shall attract and interest young people, and yet have a permanent value and be really fitted to form the foundation of a library. The books before us are undoubtedly an excellent beginning of the enterprise. Mr. Fiske and Mr. Scudder are both learned historical scholars, who write pure English, and also who write what people like to read. It would be entirely out of place to discuss these productions of theirs at length. We can and we do commend them heartily, as eminently worthy both of writing and publishing at a time when such a flood of publication has been and continues to be poured over the history of that period which these books comprehend. To a certain extent they invite comparison, and we must in justice pronounce Mr. Fiske's the superior of the two. His hand is stronger on the events, his eye for historical perspective is truer, his tone rings firmer in marshalling, ordering, and deploying his facts. It is never well to be too positive on a matter of taste, but Mr. Scudder gives the impression of being much too fond of the pictorial side of history. He talks excessively of how Washington looked on important occasions, as if the writer were one of a crowd that ran to see him, rather than a friend who shared his counsels or pondered his achievements. In Mrs. Oliphant's capital novel, she tells us how "Lucilla Majoribanks's friends always spoke of her as a large girl." Mr. Scudder dwells on Washington's stature and hands as if their size had absorbed his thoughts, as they might a casual spectator's. So the battle of Monmouth is detailed to the disproportionate sinking of the other battles in the Middle States, apparently because Washington's personal gestures and tones on that occasion have been more elaborately depicted than on any other. Yet Mr. Scudder leaves out not a few very notable personal anecdotes. We have failed to find President Davies's prophecy.

The style of both works is in general unexceptionable; but Mr. Scudder must go back to his *Autocrat*, and learn of Dr. Holmes to say a "blood" horse and not a "blooded" horse. The maps in Mr. Fiske's book are very helpful; the pictures of events in Mr. Scudder's will just do, but the portraits of Washington and Samuel Adams, with all the advantages of admirable originals, are coarse and stiff as we could hardly have believed the publishers could consent to issue.

Prisoners of Poverty Abroad. By Helen Campbell. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1889.

THIS book is, for several reasons, of less value than the author's account of the condition of workingwomen in this country. Her investigations in France and Italy were not extensive enough to make her conclusions authoritative, while the condition of the London poor has within the last two years been described by such competent observers and with such scientific accuracy as to put Miss Campbell's more sentimental—not to say hysterical—methods at a disadvantage. Nevertheless, a book of this kind will be read by many persons who would be repelled by anything in the nature of a scientific investigation, and it is well that the ignorance of one-half the world as to how the other half lives should be removed. It is a dismal theme, but that is no reason why well-to-do people should avoid it, for if there is to be any reform, they must originate it. On the other hand, it is not necessary to exaggerate the evils of the existing state of affairs, and Miss Campbell clearly exaggerates. To say that 500,000 women in London live by certain industries "not one of whom has ever received, or ever will receive, under the present system, a wage which goes beyond bare subsistence," is to use strong words with feeble effect. So, to declare that "the story of labor to-day for the whole working world is one of degradation," is simply to discredit the judgment of the person making the statement.

What we find most discouraging in the book and in the situation is the character of the remedies that suggest themselves to so many benevolent persons. So far as deserving workmen are concerned, it may be possible for the purchasers of goods to improve their condition by patronizing shop-keepers who are known to deal fairly with their employees, although it can be no easy matter to find out who they are. But this is the only practical suggestion in the book. The scheme of a general union of all poor women is shown to be visionary by the collapse of the Knights of Labor. The proposals of Henry George, which Miss Campbell seems to favor, will not be carried out without a revolution in which workers for wages must be the greatest sufferers. Coöperation is only for the better class of workmen, and industrial education would tend to promote the cheapness of products, which the author regards as an evil. The real problem is how the drunken, lazy, untrustworthy, improvident, and feeble, and their offspring, shall be provided with the rewards of sobriety, industry, truthfulness, prudence, and strength. But though this book furnishes no solution of the problem, it throws light upon the conditions, and it is, therefore, worthy of consideration.

Prince, Princess, and People. An Account of the Public Life and Work of their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales. By Henry C. Burdett. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

IT is related of Rowland Hill that at a certain council held in the Post-office Department he explained to his subordinates that official phraseology was a good thing in its way, but very often did not describe the actually existing state of affairs. "For instance, in writing to you, gentlemen, I am accustomed to describe myself in official phraseology as your obedient humble servant, whereas"—sitting back and glaring savagely through his spectacles around the board—"whereas, I am nothing of the sort." If there are any who doubt the existence of human beings of such simplicity as to take these conventionalities in their literal sense, they will be converted by the perusal of this book. The ingenuous author has actually been at the pains to construct an ideal Prince of Wales out of his official utterances and donations, and in good faith offers this buckram creation to his readers as veritable flesh and blood. He sincerely believes that the Prince lies awake at night meditating the foundation of new charities, and draws his check every morning before breakfast for some benevolent enterprise. His Royal Highness opens an exhibition, visits an hospital, inspects a factory, or attends an agricultural fair, and very appropriately declares that he has long taken the deepest interest in those matters respectively; whereupon his loyal subject will have it not only that this is literally true, but also that these enterprises are, to a great extent, the result of the comprehensive wisdom and indefatigable industry of their eminent patron. Thus, after describing the Fisheries and Colonial Exhibitions, he remarks that he wishes "to emphasize the fact that the whole of them are due to the initiative of the Prince himself, and may be attributed in great part to that self-education in all matters relating to the best interests of every class throughout the British Empire, the progress of which this narrative has aimed at recording." Verily 'Sartor Resartus' was written in vain.

There is, however, a serious side to all this, and Mr. Burdett's foolish book is not altogether without value. The social and ornamental functions are now all that is left of monarchy in England, but they are important functions in every community, and are of more convenience and even necessity than we are apt to suppose. The Prince of Wales is, we may say, *ex officio*, presiding officer of every gathering at which he is present, and the very

existence of such a functionary adds dignity to the gathering. Whatever we may think of him as a man, this book plainly shows that he attends decorously and assiduously to his public duties. The list of his donations is long enough to prove that much of his money is not ill spent, and the record of the charities and public institutions in whose founding he has participated is in itself instructive. There is little to be found in the book concerning the Princess Alexandra; but the beautiful photograph which serves as a frontispiece is sufficient to win her more regard than the record of many gifts and speeches. The book can interest only a limited class of readers in this country. It is elegantly printed.

American Resorts; with Notes upon their Climate. By Bushrod W. James, A.M., M.D. 8vo. Philadelphia: F. H. Davis. 1889.

A CERTAIN inconsecutiveness is a familiar trait in most treatises on watering-places and climate. It is, indeed, almost a necessity where such different themes are described as climatic features, the chemistry of mineral springs, and the merits of hotels and boarding-houses. Dr. James's book is no exception to the rule. His main themes are the theories of climatology and of climatotherapy, the brief description of American health resorts by the seaside, upon the lakes, and in the mountains in winter and in summer; and there are chapters upon Mexican and South American resorts. The concluding chapter relates to North and South American climate and the Atlantic Ocean, and is translated from Dr. Woeikof's 'Die Klimate der Erde'; it occupies more than one-third of the entire work, and is perhaps its most interesting portion. It is not, indeed, a very practical chapter from the invalid's point of view, for it describes the climate of the highest northern latitudes, as far as atmospheric pressures and currents have been studied in the Arctic zone. It is interesting to learn that in the European part of the Arctic Ocean the month of January is considerably warmer than December, February, or March, and nearly as warm as November and April, and that this is true of most of the Arctic islands. The author seeks for the cause of this curious circumstance, and ascribes it to the fact that the centres of cyclones pass northward near the points mentioned more frequently in January than before or after.

"In West Siberia," he adds, "the severest cold usually occurs in calm and clear weather; that is, under conditions favorable for strong local refrigeration. . . . On the islands of the Arctic Ocean, under the meridians of Europe (Bear Island, Spitzbergen, west coast of Nova Zembla), the winter is not so much remarkable for its cold as such as for the continuity with which the temperature remains below zero during periods ranging for about eight months on Bear Island, and seven on Jan Mayen, up to nine months on Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla. It is obvious that neither agriculture nor tree-growth is possible under such conditions. . . . The sea and the islands north of Siberia and east of the meridians of the Yenisei are, as yet, a *terra incognita* to climatology."

Dr. Woeikof gives many points that will interest climatologists; but the invalid, looking for a winter climate, will turn to Dr. James's too brief description of Florida, Southern California, and, best of all for nervous and pulmonary troubles, the more genial latitudes of the Hawaiian Islands. A chapter upon mineral waters does little more than name the leading springs of the United States, classifying them under the accepted heads of alkaline, saline, sulphur, chalybeate, calcic, sulphated, and thermal. One of the most needed features in a book of this sort is lacking—that of a careful description of the accommodations for visitors at the respective places. In any given case, the mineral water is but half the cure; the rest comes of proper food, surroundings, and medical supervision. But Dr. James's book will serve a good purpose in the physician's reference library.

Report on the Custody and Condition of the Public Records of Parishes, Towns, and Counties. By Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner. Boston. 1889. 8vo, pp. 379.

THE commonwealth of Massachusetts is doubly fortunate in possessing records, and in a public spirit which cares for their preservation and utilization. That there has been a period of neglect, even within the last century, is undeniable and deplorable; but the present generation has done its duty, and is repairing past injuries both by care of documents and, still better, by their publication. The records of Massachusetts and of Plymouth down to 1692 have been printed. The Laws of 1660 and 1672 have been reprinted by the city of Boston; those from 1692 to the Revolution are printed or prepared for the press. Cities and towns have found that the cheapest and best method of preserving their records is to put them in type, and are rapidly following the example set by Boston. In 1884 the State appointed a commission to report on the condition of its archives, and in 1888 Mr. Wright was directed to report also on the public records of parishes, towns, and counties. He appointed as his deputy Mr. Robert T. Swan, and this report is the consequence.

It is impossible to give even an abstract of the book, except to say that it covers classified lists of church records, town records, county records, and court records. That the work will be found to have a few errors and many omissions is no reflection upon the evident care and diligence of Mr. Swan. The first edition of such a book is really to be considered merely as proof-sheets issued for correction. Information is often withheld, from ignorance, laziness, or a disbelief in the project; but when the work has taken shape, corrections are freely given. So we trust and believe it will be in this case, and we congratulate Mr. Swan sincerely on his present success.

Mr. Wright's large experience in such matters gives great weight to his suggestion that the information desired can never be obtained by correspondence. He recommends that a paid official should make the perambulation of the State and examine personally into the facts, especially into the condition of records and the enforcement of the statutes regarding them. We are not aware whether this Legislature paid any attention to his report; but the disgraceful persecution of Mr. Goodell, the editor of the Provincial Laws, by a clique of prominent politicians makes us fear that nothing was done.

The Sleeping-Car, and Other Farces. By William D. Howells. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Mouse-Trap, and Other Farces. By William D. Howells. Harper & Bros. Illustrated.

IN the course of the past ten years Mr. Howells has written eight little stories in dialogue, and these he has now collected into two volumes, calling them farces. These pieces are each in one act, and are in dialogue. They lack the dignity and the variety of comedy, but they are not farces—unless the word is to change its meaning wholly. Sheridan's "Critic" he called a farce, and Garrick's version of "Katharine and Petruchio" is a farce, and Mr. Pinero's "Magistrate" and Mr. Bronson Howard's "Saratoga" are farces; and if these are all farces, Mr. Howells's dialogued sketches are not. Perhaps more than any other form of dramatic composition, the farce demands a practical knowledge of the stage and a solid skeleton of constructed situation. Now, the winds of whim and the breezes of fantasy blow through the loose joints of Mr. Howells's scenarios, and his knowledge of the stage is but a younger brother's portion. Two adaptations of his, "Yorick's Love," from the Spanish, and "Saul," from the Italian, have been publicly performed, together with two plays, one dramatized from his story, "A Foregone Conclusion," and one written originally for the theatre, "A Counterfeit Presentment"; but the author's apprehension of the inevitable needs of the stage does not seem to have been increased by this experience. The earliest of these little pieces, "The Parlor Car," was written for Mr. Daly, so we have understood, and it is by far the best of them. It is really actable; it is, in fact, a slight but interesting comedietta, with genuine movement; we can see in it the *action* which is the essence of dramatic art. The companion piece, "The Sleeping Car," is also theatrically possible, and although quite unconventional in form, no doubt it would bear acting and reward the great carefulness of production needed to make it effective. But, of the other six, hardly one even pretends to be playable. In the "Register," for example, there is a perfectly wanton change of scene, easily to have been avoided with a little ingenuity. It is as though Mr. Howells, disappointed in the theatrical success of the first of the series, had abandoned all thought of the stage, and had paid less and less attention to the technic of playmaking. This is greatly to be regretted. The stage needs recruits as keen-sighted, as ingenious, as witty, and as aggressive as Mr. Howells; but they can take rank there only after they have learned the manual of arms and practised the goose-step. There is no need to say that some of Mr. Howells's cleverest writing is to be found in these two volumes.

The Poets of Essex County, Mass. By Sidney Perley. Salem: Published by the Author.

"NEARLY all of the great American poets have some connection with Essex County," writes Mr. Perley in his General Sketch. Whittier, of course, is a native of that weightiest corner of Massachusetts soil. But, "at Newbury, in an old mansion lately standing, the great-grandfather of Longfellow was born; and at the Jonathan Johnson house at Nahant his 'Song of Hiawatha' was written. James Russell Lowell also traces his family back to old Newbury, where his lineal ancestors lived for several generations; and Ralph Waldo Emerson is a direct descendant of the Ipswich family of that name." The list of minor poets born in the county is not inconsiderable in quantity or quality: Joseph Story and his son, W. W. Story, Jones Very and his sister Lydia, Alonzo Lewis, George Lunt, Epes Sargent, W. L. Garrison, Charles T. Brooks, Samuel Johnson, John W. Chadwick, Lucy Hooper, Lucy Larcom, William Winter. Add George E. Woodberry, whose Gibraltar sonnets (reproduced from the *Atlantic*) show that the poetic strain is renewing itself with a high promise. Mr. Perley takes account of all these, and likewise of some, not native,

like Anne Bradstreet, Hannah Gould, and Albert Pike, who had their characters formed in Essex County; as well as of mere sojourners like J. Q. Adams, John Pierpont, Mrs. Stowe, and T. W. Higginson. The selection from Mrs. Bradstreet's seventeenth-century "Contemplations" is much the most striking piece in the book, and has a distinct Wordsworthian flavor:

"Under the cooling shadow of a stately elm,
Close sate I by a goodly river's side,
Where gliding streams the rocks did overwhelm;
A lonely place, with pleasures dignified.
I once that loved the shady woods so well,
Now thought the rivers did the trees excel,
And if the sun could ever shine, there would I dwell."

Mr. Perley has not sought to mass his poets so as to make the greatest impression. He strings them along in alphabetical order, with neither table of contents nor index, mingling the best with the poorest on the most democratic footing. The critical will find fault with the catholicity which thus rescues from oblivion many names and performances that merit (and will yet obtain) it. Still, there is something instructive in the repetition of biographical notices which tell how this one courts the muse while cashier of a live-stock company in Nebraska; another while manufacturing morocco in his birthplace; another as a book-binder, another as a life-insurance agent, etc. We know that these are not conditions favorable to the production of enduring verse, but the endeavor is pleasant to observe, and, we suppose, may be set down to the undeniable poetic spirit of Essex County. Mr. Perley's sketches are modest, and often very felicitous, and will be referred to hereafter for their data. Twenty pages of appendix give a summary account of a still larger number of writers, with occasional specimens of their poesy. In the body of the work, a single piece is the rule by way of example.

Du régime conventionnel des fleuves internationaux. Par Ed. Engelhardt, Ministre Plénipotentiaire. Paris: Pichon. 1879.

Histoire du droit fluvial conventionnel, précédée d'une étude sur le régime de la navigation intérieure aux temps de Rome et au moyen âge. Par Ed. Engelhardt. Paris: Larouse & Forcel. 1889.

THESE two works treat of a subject of practical importance which has given rise to many able diplomatic discussions in which the Government of the United States has borne an honorable and influential part. In the first work, which bears the marks of laborious preparation, the author has endeavored to set forth and explain the general laws which, in our day, govern the enjoyment of the great arteries of three continents. The second is an argumentative and painstaking historical review of the law of rivers in respect of its origin and gradual development. In it the author reviews the correspondence that took place in the latter part of the last and early in the present century between the United States and Spain in regard to the navigation of the Mississippi. He also gives an account of the dispute that arose at the beginning of the present century between the United States and Great Britain in reference to the use of the St. Lawrence, in which this Government maintained and contributed to the establishment of the principles sanctioned by the Congress of Vienna in 1815, in respect to the navigation of the Rhine and other European rivers, under which such navigation was to be free, as that of a common river, as between the States bordering upon it, at least for commercial purposes.

In his instructions of the 19th of June, 1826, to Mr. Gallatin, who was authorized to negotiate at London on the subject of the St. Lawrence, Mr. Clay, in a passage which the author prefixes to his second work, said: "These regulations—the transactions at Vienna—relative to the navigation of the European rivers, and other analogous stipulations, should be regarded only as the spontaneous homage of man to the superior wisdom of the paramount Lawgiver of the Universe, by delivering his great works from the artificial shackles and selfish contrivances to which they have been arbitrarily and unjustly subjected." It was not, however, until the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, signed by Mr. Marcy and Lord Elgin, that conventional provision was made for the navigation of the St. Lawrence by the citizens of the United States. This treaty was terminated March 17, 1866, under resolution of Congress of January 18, 1865. But, in the Treaty of Washington of May 8, 1871, it was finally stipulated (Article xxvi) that "the navigation of the river St. Lawrence, ascending and descending, from the forty-fifth parallel of north latitude, where it ceases to form the boundary between the two countries, from, to, and into the sea, shall for ever remain free and open for the purposes of commerce to the citizens of the United States, subject to any laws and regulations of Great Britain, or of the Dominion of Canada, not inconsistent with such privilege of free navigation." A reciprocal provision was inserted in the same article for the navigation by British subjects of the rivers Yukon, Porcupine, and Stikine, which take their rise in British territory and flow through Alaska into the sea.

The same principles partly prevailed in the negotiations opened between the United States and Mexico in regard to the Rio Grande and the Colorado. The United States also participated in the Berlin Conference which placed the Congo and the Niger under international control. These precedents, as well as others which might be cited, touching important water courses of South America, such as the Amazon, the Orinoco, and the Rio de la Plata, disclose the interest which the works above mentioned possess from an American point of view.

It is proper to advert to a recent case which, at the time of writing those works, had not come under their author's notice. By a treaty concluded on the 24th of December, 1886, the Governments of Nicaragua and Costa Rica agreed to submit to the arbitration of the President of the United States certain questions as to the validity and interpretation of the boundary treaty between Nicaragua and Costa Rica of April 15, 1858. By the sixth article of this treaty it was provided that the Republic of Nicaragua should have exclusive dominion and jurisdiction over the San Juan River from its source to its mouth, but that the Republic of Costa Rica should have the perpetual right of free navigation of the waters up to the point where they ceased to constitute a common boundary between the two countries and flowed wholly within Nicaraguan territory, "for the purposes of commerce either with Nicaragua or with the interior of Costa Rica." One of the questions submitted to the arbitrator was whether, if the treaty of 1858 should be held by him to be a subsisting engagement, Costa Rica had "the right of navigation of the River San Juan with vessels of war or of the revenue service." An award upon the various questions submitted was rendered by President Cleveland on the 22d of March, 1888. He held that the treaty of 1858 constituted a valid and binding agreement; and as to the navigation of the San Juan, his decision was as follows:

"The Republic of Costa Rica, under said Treaty and the stipulations contained in the 6th article thereof, has not the right of navigation of the River San Juan with vessels of war; but she may navigate said river with such vessels of the Revenue Service as may be related to and connected with her enjoyment of the 'purposes of commerce' accorded to her in said article, or as may be necessary to the protection of said enjoyment."

La Société française au Dix-septième Siècle. By T. F. Crane, A.M., Professor of the Romance Languages in Cornell University. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

PROFESSOR CRANE'S 'Tableaux de la Révolution française' and 'Le Romantisme français' have had a deserved success, yet it is doubtful whether these books possess a degree of usefulness equal to that which will be found in his 'La Société française au Dix-septième Siècle.' No period in the literary history of France is fraught with so much interest as that famous seventeenth century which French historians have proudly dubbed *le grand siècle.* It saw a radical change in the language, which attained a degree of perfection since unsurpassed, and its literature has remained a standard seldom reached by more modern writers. The style may have become more terse, unnecessary pomposity and redundancy may have been done away with, but for purity and correctness, for elevated thought, nobly expressed, we still seek our models in the great masters of the seventeenth century.

The student who, not satisfied with accepting the effect, must seek the cause of this superiority, traces it to certain influences which, exerted for the purpose of modifying the manners and improving the morals of a society long disturbed by foreign and civil wars, achieved also a complete reform in the language and created a new literature. The study of the progressive action of these social influences is indispensable if one wishes to enjoy thoroughly the works of the best authors of that time, and Prof. Crane justly remarks that, without some knowledge of them, Corneille, Molière, and Boileau are often incomprehensible. This study, however, presents a difficulty which the majority of students cannot conquer: hundreds of works, many of them very rare, and not a few unattainable in this country, should be consulted ere the knowledge is gained. This laborious research Prof. Crane has accomplished with the most gratifying results. Many valuable works—from Mlle. de Scudéri's 'Grand Cyrus' to the rarest "Recueils" and "Mémoires" that throw light on the subject—have been laid under contribution to make up these excerpts; and the student, with the aid of this little volume, may obtain a very satisfactory glimpse of that society which had its birth in the Hôtel Rambouillet, whence its influence spread until it prepared the mind for the literary marvels of Louis XIV.'s reign. The Introduction and the copious notes at the end of the book contain much valuable information. They should be studied and frequently referred to, as giving the key to much that may puzzle the student in some of the extracts.

Up and Down the Brooks. By Mary E. Bamford. (Riverside Library for Young People, No. 4.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. Pp. 222.

THIS is a book which it is a pleasure to read and a duty to praise. Miss Bamford tells us of her rambles by the Californian brookside, and of her acquaintances made there; of their habits, their transformations, death and burial, or happier release after a period of observation by the captor. The book is not a manual of

collecting, nor a monograph of the brook animals, but a narration of the experiences of the author with several of the more common animals, chiefly insects, intermixed with a spice of literary allusion and half-serious, half-jesting allegory, difficult to characterize, but which makes very pleasant reading. This sort of thing is easily overdone, and then becomes silly or tiresome, which should be borne in mind by this author when she has another book in hand. On the present occasion she has kept herself on the right side of the line which separates natural liveliness from a straining after effect, but her dangers evidently lie in this direction.

If one were to venture any criticism, it would be that the classical allusions are sometimes aimed rather high for "young people"; but it will perhaps be all the better for them if they have to turn occasionally from the brook or vivarium to the library and the classical cyclopædia. The illustrations are almost too crude for the quality of the book. In these days of easy photo-relief reproduction, the insertion of a mere sketch, apparently made with a stub pen, is hardly warranted when we consider the slight cost of a drawing which should be at once clearer and more artistic. But here again there is a certain harmony between the breezy naturalness of the text and the off-hand scratchy diagrams which illustrate it. On the whole, we do not know among recent books any more likely to give pleasure to the nature-loving boy or girl, or more calculated to stimulate the taste for healthy recreation and good reading.

Incidents of a Collector's Rambles. By Sherman F. Denton. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1889. Pp. 272, 8vo.

THE author of this book is a son of William Denton, formerly well known as a lecturer on geology and spiritualism. While on a collecting and lecturing tour in New Zealand, Australia, and, finally, New Guinea, it became necessary for his sons to join him with as little delay and expense as possible. The story of that journey, in emigrant train and steerage, and of wanderings after the family was reunited—closing with the death, by fever, in New Guinea, of the elder Denton—forms the subject-matter of the volume, which is illustrated with effective though rather coarse process-cuts from pen-drawings by the author. Some of the illustrations are very good, others not so good. The text would have been benefited by the revision of some literary friend who might have corrected a few errors of taste and eliminated some unnecessary profanity.

There is nothing of serious importance in these 'Rambles,' but they may serve to convey some slight idea of the life and experiences of a collector of objects of natural history for commercial purposes, in the region described. There is no map or index.

The Progress of Religious Freedom as shown in the history of Toleration Acts. By Philip Schaff, D.D., LL.D. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1889.

IN this little volume of 124 pages Dr. Schaff has undertaken to trace the history of the progress of the idea of religious liberty from Galerius to the Constitution of the United States. He has not tried to be original, nor to do more than arrange in convenient order these bits of history, which, so far as we know, cannot be found elsewhere in just this connection. At the close of the volume is given a complete text of the Edict of Constantine and Licinius in 313, the public articles of the Edict of Nantes in 1598, the Edict of Revocation in 1685, the Toleration Edict of Potsdam in the same year, the English Act of Toleration in 1689, and the provisions of our Constitution securing religious liberty. Worth noticing is the distinction, not always clearly perceived, but emphasized by Dr. Schaff in his short introduction, between religious liberty and religious toleration. It is well worth pointing out to every American that his is at present the only country of the world in which religious liberty, in the full sense of that term, exists.

Readings in Church History. By the Rev. James S. Stowe, D.D. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

DR. STOWE has written a book which neither has nor pretends to have any claim to thoroughness or profundity. It is a series of disconnected sketches, eighteen in number, dealing with certain picturesque episodes in the life of the Church, selected mainly for their poetic or dramatic interest. The style is readable, a little too elaborate for a severe taste, but likely to please the average reader, for whom the book is intended. The theological point of view is the orthodox Protestant, but this is not made offensively prominent. The author has evidently read a good deal of original material, and shows considerable skill in extracting therefrom such passages as will prove entertaining to the reader. The book may be commended as pleasant reading for any one who does not wish to go into very serious study of the life or institutions of organized Christianity.

Indoor Studies. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

MR. BURROUGHS'S refined and appreciative criticism is well known through his papers in the periodicals, and in being bound into a book they do not come before us for the first time. In writing of Thoreau and Gilbert White he is upon his own preserves, and it is interesting to learn that his appreciation of the latter writer came late; of the former none has written more favorably. The book deals largely with Arnold, Emerson, and Carlyle, each of whom is acknowledged master in his own domain; generally, however, Mr. Burroughs pleads against Arnold and the academical, and calls for more generous recognition of the substance in Emerson and Carlyle which makes them, he says, great writers in spite of their defects in literary form. He speaks as a disciple of Emerson, whose influence is perceptible upon every page of these essays in the literary handling, if not in the thought. His remarks seem to us the best that have been made, both in substance and temper, by any of the apologists whom Arnold's lecture upon Emerson called out. He closes the volume with several brief essays of the nature of literary editorials, and an autobiographical chapter, in which the special qualities of his style and temperament have the best field for their play.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bailey, P. J. Festus: A Poem. Fiftieth-anniversary edition. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Drage, G. Cyril: A Romantic Novel. 3d ed. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
Horsford, E. N. The Problem of the Northmen. Cambridge, Mass.
Morley, Prof. H. Tales of the Seven Deadly Sins, being the Confessio Amantis of John Gower. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Morley, Prof. H. The Earlier Life and the Chief Earlier Works of Daniel Defoe. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.
Perry, G. B. Uncle Peter's Trust; or, Following the Drums. Harper & Bros.
Pfeiffer, Emily. Flowers of the Night: Poems. London: Trübner & Co.
Philippi, E. Schiller's Lyrische Gedankendichtung. Augsburg: Adelbert Votsch.
Postgate, J. P. Sermo Latinvs. A Short Guide to Latin Prose Composition. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Putnam, E. A Woodland Wooing. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Roberty, E. de. L'Inconnaissable: sa Métaphysique, sa Psychologie. Paris: F. Alcan.
Rubáiyat of Omar Khayyám. Translated by Justin H. McCarthy. London: David Nutt.
Ryan, M. E. Merze: The Story of an Actress. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Sauveur, L. Les Chansons de Béranger. F. W. Christern.
Schultze, A. The Books of the Bible Analyzed. Easton, Pa.: *The Book Antiquary*. 20 cents.
Scudder, V. D. Macaulay's Essays on Lord Clive. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Sergeant, L. The Government Year-Book for 1889. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Changed Brides. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Stables, G. Hints about Home and Farm Favorites. Frederick Warne & Co.
Starcke, Dr. C. N. The Primitive Family in its Origin and Development. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Stedman—Hutchinson. A Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. In 10 vols. Vols. VII. and VIII. Charles L. Webster & Co. $3 per vol.
Stevenson, R. L., and Osbourne, L. The Wrong Box. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Stone, Dr. J. S. Readings in Church History. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1.50.
Stowell, T. B. Syllabus of Lectures in Anatomy and Physiology. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Sunderland, J. T. The Liberal Christian Ministry. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Sunflowers: Poems Written by Various Hands in the State University of Kansas. Lawrence: Journal Publishing Co.
Sweetser, M. F. King's Handbook of Newton, Massachusetts. Illustrated. Boston: Moses King Corporation.
Swinburne, A. C. Poems and Ballads. Third Series. Worthington Co.
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OF

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FOR JULY, 1889.

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III. A NEW VIEW OF THE THEORY OF WAGES. *Stuart Wood.*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 11, 1889.

The Week.

THE ballot law which has been enacted in Michigan is in many respects unlike any of those which have been put upon the statute-books of nine other States. It provides for exclusive State ballots of uniform size and color for general Congressional, State, and county elections, no other ballots to be legal. Each political party is to adopt a vignette to distinguish its ballots from those of other parties. Provision is made for a secret ballot by means of booths and a railing at each voting place. The inspectors are to place a rubber band around each ballot when it is deposited so as to detect when the votes are counted whether a voter deposits more than one ballot. There are careful provisions about counting the ballots so as to avoid any possibility of manipulating them. Severe fines and punishment are provided in case any one attempts to influence voters. These provisions are somewhat like those of the Milwaukee law which has worked so well in practice. The candidates' names are not grouped upon one ballot, as they are in the laws of the eight other States which have adopted that principle of the Australian system, but in other respects the law is in accordance with the Australian idea. An exclusive official ballot and absolute secrecy in voting are most important principles, for they do away with the worst evils of our politics. The effect of the Michigan law is likely to be the same as that of the Milwaukee law—to create a demand for its extension and amplification into the complete Australian method.

Only a few days before the Civil-Service Commission visited Milwaukee and made its report censuring Mr. Paul for disregarding the Civil-Service Law in making appointments, President Harrison removed the Collector of Internal Revenue at Milwaukee, Mr. Edward C. Wall, and appointed in his place Mr. Henry Fink. The letter which the President sent to Mr. Wall is as follows:

> EXECUTIVE MANSION, June 13, 1889.
> You are hereby removed from the office of Collector of Internal Revenue for the First District of Wisconsin, to take effect upon the appointment and qualification of your successor.
> BENJAMIN HARRISON.

It will be observed that the President assigned no reason for this act. We believe no one has ever been heard to question the fidelity or efficiency of Mr. Wall's administration of his office. That he was competent to discharge, and did in fact honestly discharge, every duty of his office is attested by all. Every dollar that was due the Government was economically collected and accounted for. Besides conducting the business of the office to the entire satisfaction of all, he had regard for the "spirit and purpose" of civil service reform, and this, too, without the sanction of a law or the solemnity of a promise. The Commission, in reporting upon Postmaster Paul, do not charge him with having violated the law for political purposes. It would be gratifying if this could be said in extenuation of the President's removal of Mr. Wall.

Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson has already appointed as postmaster in one town of this State a burglar, and in another a convicted keeper of a disorderly house, so that nobody will be surprised to learn that he has commissioned in an Arkansas town a man who had been convicted of sending obscene letters through the mails. Henry E. Sharpe was arraigned and convicted on this charge in the United States District Court at Springfield, Mo., in September, 1887, and, in default of the fine imposed, was sent to jail. Upon his release he removed to Lead Hill, Ark., and it was recently announced that Henry E. Sharpe had been appointed Postmaster at Lead Hill, Ark. Of course Mr. Clarkson will plead that he made the appointment, after his usual fashion, "not knowing the facts." It seems that Mr. Clarkson also does not know the laws which govern the appointment of postmasters. He recently appointed as Postmaster at Covington, La., a negro who was not merely objectionable on the score of character, but who was not a resident of the place. The Revised Statutes, section 3831, declare that "every postmaster shall reside within the delivery of the office to which appointed."

The Washington *Post* gives a scrap of conversation between a chief of a division and his Senator, which contains a moral for the spoilsmen as well as for the civil-service reformers. The chief had obtained his position through the influence of the Senator, and then, instead of being "true to his party" by making as many places as possible for the other boys less fortunate than himself, he actually gave the menaced subordinates his protection. When reproached by the Senator for this, he said: "I have worked all my life like a slave for a bare living. Now I have an easy place with a lot of subordinates who know all the details of the business, who will do all there is to be done and save me the bother. Now, if you think I am going to throw them out, and put in a lot of greenhorns, and then work myself to death learning the business and teaching them, you don't know me." Whether this conversation really took place or not does not matter. That there have been chiefs in abundance who acted upon the principles indicated in it, there is no question. The real chiefs, of course, were the poorly paid clerks "who knew all the details," and who worked with double vigor when they perceived that their retention largely depended upon their saving the chief all "the bother." This is rather expensive—having a real and a nominal chief in each of the many divisions in the Washington departments—but, at any rate, the work is done, and well done. It is the plan which we have urged should be generally adopted, namely, a paid officer, with no functions to perform, rewarded with the place and the pay because of his political services, and another non-political, permanent, every-day, hard-working servant getting his pay on the principle of *quantum meruit*. We doubt not that the self-indulgence of such chiefs as the Washington *Post* tells of will so disgust office-peddling Senators as to hasten the day when their friends will be given the pay, but not the opportunity to befriend and protect the underlings of the office.

The Supreme Court Justices of this State appear to hold varying views in regard to the interpretation of the law declaring that preference in employment must be given to honorably discharged soldiers. A few days ago we had the decision of Justice Andrews of this city, upon the attempt of Mr. Gilroy, the Commissioner of Public Works, to get rid of a soldier in his department by declining to assign work for him. The Justice decided that while Mr. Gilroy might legally decline to give the man work, he violated the law when he assigned his work to some other man, and issued a peremptory mandamus for the soldier's reinstatement. Two other Supreme Court Justices have made decisions recently which appear to be somewhat opposed to this. Justice Williams, presiding at Watertown, was asked to issue an order compelling the trustees of the village of Little Falls to appoint a certain man Village Attorney under the law giving preference to honorably discharged soldiers. He denied the application, on the ground that the applicant for the place must not only be an honorably discharged Union soldier, but also fit, competent, and of sufficient business capacity to perform the duties of the position. As to these qualifications it is the duty of the trustees to determine. Such determination, if judicial, cannot be reviewed, reversed, or directed by mandamus. Justice Putnam, presiding at Saratoga, denied a similar application in the interest of a man who desired to compel the trustees to appoint him Superintendent of Streets, holding that the law should be carried out faithfully, but declaring that he could not properly interfere with the reasonable discretion of the trustees if it appeared that they had exercised that discretion in good faith. He also declared that, once appointed, an incumbent could not be removed except for cause.

An amusing report was telegraphed from Maine on Saturday, that when Secretary Blaine passed through Bangor on Friday on his way to Bar Harbor, Congressman Boutelle studiously avoided meeting him. It is added that this is the first time that Mr. Boutelle ever allowed Mr. Blaine to pass through Bangor unnoticed by him, and that there is a coolness between the two statesmen arising over a disagreement upon the distribution of Maine patronage. There is something very droll in the idea of a coolness

between Mr. Boutelle and the author of his political greatness, for if Mr. Blaine had not by main strength lifted him into politics and public life, he never would have been heard of outside of the State of Maine. Mr. Blaine did this service for him, as he has done it for many other men of similar calibre, because he wanted him for a personal agent in his own political schemes. First and last, Mr. Boutelle has been useful to him. He has sounded the praises of Mr. Blaine with great fluency and unction at all times and in all possible places for many years. In return for his efforts, Mr. Blaine had him elected to Congress, where he has simply emphasized by his conduct the great value of the service which his patron performed for him. That he should show coolness after all this is scarcely credible. The rumor must be a midsummer journalistic joke.

Mr. George O. Jones, who carries under his own hat almost the entire remains of the National Greenback party, has issued a call to himself to assemble in convention at Cincinnati on September 12. We do not know whether or not he has sent a copy of his call to Messrs. Randall and Dana, joint owners of the high-tariff-and-trust Democratic party, but he ought by all means to do so. They could "get together" with him, and thus they as well as he would be assured of a convention from 50 to 200 per cent. larger than would otherwise be possible. Father McGlynn and Gen. Butler, if approached in the proper manner, might also be induced to join, and a nucleus would thus be formed for a movement which might possibly attract a sufficient number of the disappointed and hungry of all parties to make it worth while for the National Committee of one or the other of the great parties to "buy it up" in 1892. It is very evident now that unless the rag-tag and bob-tail of politics do "get together" in this or some other way, none of them will be of sufficient consequence to "strike" a National Committee successfully three years hence.

The news comes from the South of the killing by "Dan" Alston of a quiet and law-abiding Scotchman, named Wilson, who, with many of his countrymen, has been for several years developing the stone resources of Lithonia, Ga. "Dan" Alston is the son, the only surviving son, of that Robert A. Alston who was killed about ten years ago in the Capitol building of Georgia by "Ed" Cox. Cox was found guilty of murder, but the jury recommended him to the mercy of the court, and the judge, under this recommendation—a piece of legislation of which Alston himself was the author—sentenced him to the penitentiary, or, more accurately speaking, to the chain-gang, for life. When Gov. Alexander Stephens subsequently pardoned Cox, the only man in Georgia, perhaps in the South, who had ever been subjected to really severe punishment for killing in a perfectly "gentlemanly" manner another man, was permitted to go free. "Dan" Alston, who was by nature rough and wayward, thus lost while yet a mere boy a father whose courage was devoid of all bravado, and whose bearing was high and honorable. In short, he lost the one person who could have managed him and who would have civilized him. Since that tragedy, "Dan" has run wild. He has lived among those who have perpetually reminded him that no Alston has yet died except in his boots. The ruffianly part of him has become each year more prominent. "Ed" Cox has had every reason to believe that "Dan" Alston was to be feared, for there have been many, it is said, to hint to the latter what he owed to the memory of his father. And now we see the product of this kind of education: "Dan" Alston, the rowdy, celebrating the Fourth of July in cowboy style, interfering with social reunions, disturbing the peace, breaking beer bottles over the heads of those who sought to eject him from their premises, and finally killing a respectable citizen who sternly rebuked him for his "dirty tricks."

The Buffalo *Commercial*, while approving of our recent comments on the McDow murder trial, thinks that there are too many miscarriages of justice in the North, and too many cases where the acquittal of assassins has been marked by the applause of men and women, to warrant us in visiting severe condemnation upon South Carolina society in this instance. If this had been a mere miscarriage of justice, the *Commercial's* caveat would be entirely proper, but it was nothing of the sort. It was the regular course of things in the South, as everybody knows. The prevailing idea is that the gallows and the State prison were never intended for gentlemen, because they never kill each other without strong provocation. A crucial test of the strength of this sentiment was furnished in Kentucky a few years ago, when a defeated suitor shot and killed the Chief Justice of the State for deciding against him in a case involving the title to land. It was something of a struggle to get this fellow clear, and it was even necessary to confine him a short time in a madhouse. But the underlying maxims and principles instilled and cultivated by the institution of slavery asserted their dominant force, and this cold-blooded murderer was finally acquitted. Can our Buffalo contemporary imagine a case in which killing, by a person in good society, and unconnected with robbery, would be punished by death at the hands of a jury? If no such case can be imagined, then the acquittal of McDow was not a miscarriage of justice, but a part of the normal social movement in South Carolina. That there are many good people in Charleston and in all parts of the South who deplore the verdict in the McDow case, and would have voted the other way if they had been on the jury, we have no doubt, but they are not sufficiently numerous to constitute society. If they were, we should have verdicts of a different kind.

There are some thousands of males in the country entitled to vote who would rather be the victor in Monday's prize-fight than be President of the United States. In fact, the honors of the Presidency are of small concern in their view compared with those that adorn the brow of John L. Sullivan. Of course every exhibition of this kind, where the fighting is real and not sham, and where money is staked on the result, makes an appetite for more. Yet there has been a sensible decline in the public interest in these brutal displays since the great Heenan-Sayers fight, which enlisted the attention of statesmen in England and of society in both countries. Although crowds went to the bulletin-boards on Monday evening, they were small as compared with those who struggled for the first news of that greater battle. Although Boston "went wild" on Monday, it was a lower Boston than that which bought the "extras" which told how Sayers was knocked around the ring like a wooden image, receiving little more harm than a billet of hickory under like treatment, until finally he closed both of Heenan's eyes and finished him off. The interest in the Sullivan-Kilrain engagement ran in a lower stratum decidedly. It is not to be supposed that any match, national or international, would now engage the thoughts of educated persons, unless the battle were fought in their immediate neighborhood. Moreover, it is quite certain that no such efforts would have been made by the public authorities in the South a quarter of a century ago, to prevent the fight, as were made by the Governor of Mississippi. He seems to have done his whole duty. If the Sheriff of Marion County disobeyed his orders, it is to be hoped that he will be punished according to the measure of the law.

The Minister of Persia to the United States is a victim of one of the most pernicious habits of our time—that of reading newspapers. By excessive indulgence in this practice he has lost his situation as Minister. The consequences are somewhat serious, or would be such if all Persians were addicted to the habit in the same degree. Not only is Mr. Hodji Hossein Ghooly afflicted in the manner described, but he furnishes matter for the newspapers also, having contributed a half-column interview to a Washington interviewer on the Fourth of July. Mr. Ghooly's bad practices do not end even here. He collects all the unpleasant things he finds in the newspapers and puts them in a scrap-book, so that he can refresh his grief if he finds himself at any time getting into a cheerful mood. Pointing to his scrap-book, "I tell you," he said, "that I cannot bear all these things to be said about my King, who in his heart has the kindness to favor the American Minister and all the American citizens in Persia. When I arrived in this country, I came by way of New York. I saw there the statue of Liberty Enlightening the World. I was glad, and I thought, 'Here one can live always without trouble or annoyance.' Now, after being here nine months, I go away as fast as I can, and like a prisoner escaping from his prison. For this purpose and to say these things I re-

sign my position as Minister from Persia, and speak as a private citizen of that country. As a Persian Minister I could not say this." The only cure for the evils described by Mr. Ghooly, and they are undoubtedly great, is to break off his bad habits gradually, if need be. He should first give up his scrap-books at whatever cost, and then limit himself to a certain number of newspapers per day, reducing the allowance according to some fixed rule. He might in the end conquer the habit entirely, but if he should not succeed so far, he would certainly be on the road to self-control. If any word from us could reach his master, the Shah, we should advise him to choose his next American minister by competitive examination in languages, the highest mark being given to those who cannot read at all, the next highest to those who can only read Persian. All who can read American newspapers with facility should be barred out.

A correspondent asks us whether it is true, as stated by Col. T. W. Higginson in a recent letter in these columns, that the Government administers a railroad when it is in the hands of a receiver. The answer is that the Government does administer the railroad, but not in the sense that Col. Higginson implied. He meant to say that if the Government could administer a railroad through a receiver, the presumption would be that it could take up railroad administration as a branch of its regular functions—not that it ought to, but that it could do so fairly well. Col. Higginson overlooks the fact that administration by receivership is really administration by opposing claimants of the property under the umpirage of the court. In the first place, if the claimants can agree upon a receiver, the person they agree upon is always chosen. If they cannot agree, the judge chooses one and puts him in charge, subject to the criticism of all the claimants. Then every order and every act of the receiver is open to review and argument at all times, in term-time and in vacation, by the parties in interest, no matter how small the interest. To establish the parallelism that Col. Higginson suggests, we must imagine all the railroads in the country operated by umpires who are bound to hear arguments from private persons whenever a new locomotive or a ton of steel rails is wanted or a bridge needs repairing.

The report made by Maj. Marindin to the Board of Trade concerning the introduction of the electric light into London seems to be of a very instructive character. It is proposed to divide the territory into districts, and to apportion them among a number of companies in such a way that only two companies shall lay their wires in any district. In order to provide facilities for operating motors, only one of these companies is to use the alternating current. A maximum charge for light is fixed at the outset, subject to revision at the end of seven years, and after forty-two years the local authority will have the right to terminate the concession and buy the property of the company. It is further provided that, after a 10 per cent. dividend has been paid, a portion of the profits shall be applied to reducing prices. While this scheme apparently extinguishes competition, our experience in this country shows that this may not be so objectionable as it sounds. As Stephenson said long ago, where combination is possible, competition is impossible; and lighting companies can always combine. As the expense to consumers is never permanently lessened by such competition as takes place, it seems wise upon the whole to recognize the teachings of experience, and at least prevent the streets from being dug up a number of times when once should suffice. The interests of the consumer should be protected when the concession is granted, as they seem to be by this plan. Its operation will be watched with interest from this side of the Atlantic.

A new process for the production of white lead from lead ore has been brought out in England, which may possibly deliver the American public from the tender mercies of the Lead Trust. The process follows, in the main, the Bessemer process of making steel, the oxidation being produced by air instead of acids. The process is not poisonous to workmen, as the old acid process is, and the product is said to be better as well as cheaper. There are two ways by which the American people can avoid getting the benefit of this discovery. One is for the Trust to absorb the new invention, and the other is to increase the duty on white lead so as to "equalize the conditions of production." The present duty on white lead is three cents per pound. If the new process lowers the cost three cents per pound, we can easily meet that difficulty by doubling the duty, and this would be the most obvious course to follow if Mr. Hanney, the inventor, should be unreasonable in his demands for the use of his invention. The precedents are in favor of the latter course, for when Mr. Siemens of Berlin invented a new and cheaper method of making glass bottles, and offered it to the American manufacturers, they refused to take it, but went to Congress and got the duty on bottles raised to a figure sufficient to neutralize Mr. Siemens's discovery. This was much cheaper than paying Siemens for his invention.

Vague notices have reached this country of the treaty negotiated between several South American Powers, to establish an international law of procedure in civil cases. This treaty was signed at Montevideo January 11, and its text has now been published. The countries taking part in the conference for the discussion and settling of its terms were Paraguay, Uruguay, the Argentine Republic, Chili, Brazil, Bolivia, and Peru. The great aim was to secure uniformity of law touching the innumerable and vexing cases of commercial litigation arising between citizens of different countries. While it has not been possible to secure this entirely, yet much has been gained by the final agreement in which the delegates from all the Powers united. The contracting States bind themselves to recognize the legal processes of each other, and to recognize and enforce, each within its own limits, decisions made in the courts of any of the others affecting its own citizens. The establishment of boards of arbitration, in certain cases, is also provided for, and their decisions, when arrived at under conditions named, are to be held as binding by all the States. All this marks a great advance in the simplification of the business relations of the merchants of these various countries. It indicates, also, decided progress in the appreciation and adoption of civilized methods of settling international controversies on the part of Governments which we have been too much accustomed to regard as barbarous. The Pan-American Congress at Washington next October will be a much more pretentious affair, but it may well be doubted if, at the end of all the palaver, so definite and valuable a document as this of the Montevideo conference will get the signatures of all the delegates.

The concern of the French Government at the preference shown by French emigrants for the countries of South America over the colonies of France finds its latest expression in a letter of M. Étienne, Under Secretary of State for the Colonies, to the President of the Chamber of Commerce of Paris. The object of the letter is to show the great opening for laboring men in some of the French colonies, New Caledonia for example, and to express an opinion as to the best means to be employed to turn the tide of French emigration away from lands of alien speech and institutions to the new settlements which France is pushing in various parts of the world. M. Étienne thinks that France must learn from other countries: if they provide free passage for the emigrant, so must she; if they guarantee him wages and tools and a sure location, so must she. He admits that the right of the State thus to act has not yet been clearly fixed; it is one of the questions to be referred to an International Congress at the Exposition. But it is clear to his mind that, unless France warns intending emigrants against the deceptive statements made by the agents of other governments, and bestirs herself in pointing out desirable locations in her colonies and giving needful aid in reaching such points and in becoming established there, she will fail to see many of her sons going to those "national sheep-folds," as he calls them. It is evident, however, that it is something more than ignorance that leads French emigrants to shun French colonies. To go to them would be their obvious course, and they must have good reasons for adopting another. What the reasons are may be inferred, at least in part, from a letter which the *Temps* recently published from a French colonist. He represents the new community as prosperous enough if only it could be let alone; but it is weighted by French officialism, so that "when we earn four sous, the local government takes from us at least three and a half."

OUR DIPLOMACY.

ALL of our countrymen ought to welcome heartily an exposition of the needs of our diplomacy by one who has been the diplomatic agent of their Government at London during four years, and especially by one who achieved such well-earned eminence in the office as did Mr. Phelps. In his recent utterances before the Harvard Phi Beta Kappa Society he said, "The time has come when we need to have established a distinctive, definite, wise, grand, and, above all, a consistent American policy in our international relations." It is not to be inferred that he intended to imply that heretofore the United States has not had such a policy, as consistent as changing circumstances would permit. Heretofore it has been the rule among us, fairly well observed, that party politics ceased at the ocean's edge. When the President is of one party, and a majority of the Senate is of an opposite party, there is naturally a tendency on the part of the Senate to hamper the President in the conduct of foreign affairs, or rather to postpone action on matters which can be postponed, in the hope that the next turn of the wheel will give the Presidency to the party which has the Senate. And foreign governments are quick to discern and take advantage of a conflict of opinion and purpose between the President and the Senate, and to yield when they discover concert of purpose between all the branches of our Government. Mr. Phelps indicates his appreciation of this fact in the following sentence:

"Changing hands so often as our Government does, we can have nothing worthy the name of a foreign policy, nothing that will either be respected abroad or effectual for its purpose, unless by the establishment of principles, of traditions, of modes of procedure such as shall stand the test of experience and the criticism of mankind, and that shall pass on unimpaired from Administration to Administration, from party to party, the common property of all, the inheritance of each from its predecessor."

But the establishment of what principles, traditions, and modes of procedure would, or could, have relieved the friction of the last four years between the State Department and the Senate in regard to the Extradition Treaty and the fisheries? The country was hampered by the hostile purposes of the President and Senate, which, of course, impaired our diplomacy. Every one will say that our foreign policy during the last four years should have been founded "on the highest morality and justice," but the impediment came of divergence in that regard between the two independent Powers to whom the Constitution had committed the making of treaties. Mr. Phelps adds:

"It is idle to expect that a foreign policy of this kind—kind, elevated, just, consistent, and resolute—can be maintained by our country unless the subject can be withdrawn from the field of party politics. That the contests of the party must continue is inevitable. They are the curse of free government, but are a part of the price of it. In questions between other nations and our own in measures that involve not the success of the party, but the interests and honor of the whole country, we should present the same united front in the controversies of peace as in those of war, and give a generous support to the Administration, of whatever politics, that is charged for the time being with the support of the common cause."

Is not that ideal politics? Can it be seen in England, or anywhere else, under representative institutions and universal suffrage? Indeed, could Mr. Phelps, if he were a Senator, avoid voting with his party friends, if, for example, a new fishery arrangement were sent to the Senate by Secretary Blaine? Is it not true that, when the President and a majority of the Senate are of opposing views in party matters, the office of President calls for the very highest and best sort of diplomatic work to bring about a *modus vivendi* between opposing leaders in the Senate, and to help along the purposes of the Department of State?

But we began our references to the suggestive views expressed by Mr. Phelps at Harvard in order to invite attention to what he tells us is needed to enforce our "*policy*" on foreign governments *after* it has been formulated in Washington—which formulating by the President and the Senate seems to us to be, as we have indicated, the critical part of the business. Mr. Phelps said that

"to enforce such a policy, a navy should be created that would leave nothing to fear from any other naval Power. Naval strength, he remarked by way of an epigram, is the right arm of diplomacy, and if necessary he would wipe out the surplus in the construction of a suitable navy, and would build strong coast fortifications. He also advocated the sending of an ambassador to each of the first-class Powers instead of a minister plenipotentiary. The American representative in the great capitals of Europe should not only have his proper rank among his diplomatic colleagues, but he should be provided with an official residence becoming the dignity of his country. Our representative should likewise be provided with a sufficient pecuniary allowance to enable him to maintain with credit the position in which he is placed and return suitably the hospitalities he cannot decline."

What Mr. Phelps advocates is a raising of the titular rank of our diplomatic agents at the great European capitals; an increase of their salaries; an appropriation of money to be expended by them in social hospitality; the purchase and maintenance for them of a house for an official residence. We are quite certain that Mr. Phelps will agree that if such things should be done for our diplomatic agents abroad, they should be (excepting increase of titular rank) done at home for our Vice-President, our Supreme Court judges, and the heads of departments. He has also meditated, no doubt, on the question whether or not our State Department, or, indeed, our Government at Washington, is now equipped to deal satisfactorily with the ceremonies and formalities which must come if we send, and then, of course, receive ambassadors as ours will be received at Berlin, St. Petersburg, Vienna, Madrid, and possibly at Paris and London? Really, would the increased rank and salary, an official residence, and the allowance of an entertaining fund, have given an iota of added power to the pen or tongue of Mr. Phelps in his contention with the British Foreign Office in the fishery matter? The country should be glad to listen to Mr. Phelps whenever he has a fitting opportunity to consider that question.

But what Mr. Phelps says of the need of a great navy, in addition to increased rank and salary, as the "right arm" of our ambassadors, is most important of all. He defines "a suitable navy" as one that "would leave nothing to fear from any other naval Power." To that end he would "wipe out the surplus." Those opinions, coming from such a source, cannot be put aside as inconsequential. They will receive cordial approbation from the political leaders and party workers now in the ascendancy at the White House and in Congress. The building of a great navy is already on their cards. They have a quick eye for all that such a building implies in the way of expenditure and employment of "workers." But, quite apart from all that, has any foreign government ever, from 1778 at Paris to 1889 at Berlin, and in our most successful foreign diplomacy, yielded anything to us on account of fear of our naval thunder? Is it worth while now to increase our taxes merely and solely in order to build a great navy to be the "right arm" of our ambassadors, and to rival the colossal naval equipments of England, Germany, and France? Did the recent success (as represented) of our Samoan diplomacy at Berlin depend at all on our navy, or even on the rank or salary of our diplomatic representatives? Would our success have been a whit greater if we had possessed the whole navy of Great Britain, and had been represented by three dignitaries each equal in rank to a mandarin of the red button?

"PROTECTION" FOR ARTISTS.

No one doubts that a protective tariff, whether or not it be a good thing for the country at large, is a very good thing for the protected manufacturers themselves. No one doubts that Mr. Carnegie, for instance, finds his interest in the duties upon iron. Yet there is a body of producers engaged in a single "industry" in this country who are almost unanimous in their opposition to a duty imposed, presumably, for their benefit, who have repeatedly protested against its continuance and petitioned for its removal, and who have recently formed a national organization solely for the purpose of procuring its abolition. These producers are the artists of the United States, and this organization is the National Free Art League.

Are we to believe that these men are actuated altogether by altruistic motives, and are so raised above common humanity that they are indifferent to the appeals of self-interest? It seems to us more probable that they are as human as their neighbors, and that if they do not desire "protection" for the industry they are engaged in, it is because they are convinced that their interest does not lie that way, and that, in their own case at least, protection does not protect. Let us see, then, what they have to say for themselves, and why it is that they are found in the unique position of a body of men protesting almost unanimously against a tax levied for their own benefit.

In the circular issued by the National Free Art League may be found the following sentences:

"The present tariff upon works of art *is not in the nature of a protective tax.* The price of a work of art depends upon the individual reputation of the artist, and a cause which enhances the price of foreign works of

art *has no beneficial effect* upon domestic production."

This is the gist of the whole matter. The artists who are enrolling themselves as members of the League are not self-sacrificing heroes, bent upon immolating themselves for the public good; they are not, as a body, free-traders or even revenue-reformers. Many of them are as good protectionists as Mr. Carnegie himself. They are simply men who believe that in their own trade, owing to peculiar differences between it and other industries, protection is not a benefit. A man is presumed to be the best judge of his own interest, and the reasons the artists give for their belief are therefore worth some examination.

"The price of a work of art depends upon the individual reputation of the artist." There is no such thing as a market price for pictures. At the same sale a picture by Millet may bring many thousands, while a picture by some little-known American sells for as many dollars. The big price is not given because the picture is larger or handsomer or better, but because it is painted by Millet. We must have coats and shoes and steel rails, and if we cannot, for any reason, get them from one manufacturer, we must get them from another, but we can do quite well without pictures, and if we cannot afford Millet's or Meissonier's, we do not therefore buy Jones's or Robinson's. Jones's pictures or Robinson's pictures are not the same thing and do not supply the same want. If we want a picture by Meissonier, and cannot afford to buy it, we go without, but we do not buy a picture by some American artist instead. The essence of the marketable value of a picture is that it is unlike all others and that *the same thing* cannot be produced. A copy might, doubtless, be made of Millet's "Angelus" so closely resembling the original that it would deceive good judges; but it would not *be* the original, and its value in the market—unless it were fraudulently sold for the original—would be insignificant. Nay, even in the case of a replica by the master's own hand, the second picture would be worth less than the first, while the value of both would be lessened by the fact that there were two of them. The fact is that, commercially speaking, there is no such thing as "a picture"—there is only this or that particular picture by this or that particular artist. You cannot tax a picture, as such, and thereby raise the price of all pictures; you can only tax a particular picture, and thereby raise the price of *that* picture or of other pictures by the same hand. The only person you can possibly benefit directly by levying a 30 per cent. duty on pictures by Corot is the American manufacturer of Corots; and as, if such a manufacturer exists, his whole trade is forgery, he is not a person we need be concerned to protect. The honorable American artist who is not engaged in producing fraudulent Corots, but in painting genuine Smiths or Browns, has gained nothing, and he knows it. The enhanced price of Corots has not raised one penny the price of Smiths, and, *the difference in price between a Smith and a Corot having been increased*, he finds himself, in popular opinion, marked more clearly than before as an inferior artist. The same self-interest that prompts the wool-grower or the iron-manufacturer to desire an increase of the tariff leads him necessarily to demand its abolition.

Strangely enough, while our artists thus find themselves opposing the continuance of the tariff upon works of art, some of the dealers in foreign art works are on the other side. We said above that the only person directly benefited by this tariff was the forger of imitation foreign pictures, but there is an indirect benefit to the dealer in genuine foreign pictures also. The ordinary picture-buyer knows little of the artistic merit of a painting, and the dealer can always point to the fact that he has found it worth his while to pay a 30 per cent. duty upon it as proof positive of the superiority of the foreign work over that of domestic production. In many cases he deducts the duty from the buying price, while he adds it to the selling price, thus receiving twice what he pays once, and making the price of the veriest daub respectable enough to seem a guarantee of merit to the uninstructed buyer. The present ad-valorem duty of 30 per cent. encourages rather than discourages the importation of the cheaper products of foreign studios, and only tends to keep out those better works that every true artist would wish to see imported in greater numbers. It swells the profits of picture-dealers without benefiting either our own or foreign artists, while it increases the cost of works of art to the purchaser. Is it any wonder that the artists of this country find that protection does not protect *them*, and that they energetically protest against being "protected" in this way?

The Republican party now has control of the Government in all its branches. It is committed to the doctrine of protection, and cannot reduce the duties on manufactures without alienating the influence of the protected industries. Yet there is the surplus. Why not reduce it by taking off the only tax of them all "the abolition of which," to quote the League's circular again, "is not only not objected to, but is demanded, by the class sought to be protected, the artists of America"?

THE SUGAR DUTIES.

The Boston *Advertiser* has a leading article entitled "A Calm View of the Sugar Situation." There is danger, it thinks, lest passion and prejudice should get the upper hand and cause serious injury to one of the most important business interests in Boston. It is glad to observe that the Sugar Trust "is making some concessions to public sentiment," by charging a little less for refined sugar than the tariff allows. It would prefer that there were no such thing as a Sugar Trust, but it cannot sympathize with those who would like to see the refining business "destroyed" simply because it is controlled by a Trust. Accordingly it opposes the plan of the Boston *Herald* to make the duty on sugar uniform at two cents per pound, and recommends instead that raw sugar be put on the free list, and that the duty on refined be fixed at one-half cent per pound. While making this recommendation, it says that "the Sugar Trust needs no especial protection." A duty of one-half cent per pound would amount to a bonus of $15,000,000 per year to the refiners on the present consumption of the country—or say, 3,000,000,000 pounds. This, in the judgment of the *Advertiser*, is not "especial protection."

If the Trust has made some concessions by charging a little less than the tariff allows, that result is due to the fact that a high price curtails the demand. The advance in raw sugars, not the conscience of the Trust, has cut down in some small measure the profits of the refiners. Conscience has nothing to do with prices anyway, in sugar or in anything. With or without Trusts, the price of an article is what the law of supply and demand establishes. Society would be in perpetual turmoil if we were in the habit of expecting the producers of goods to abate their charges as a matter of kindness and hospitality. When the price of raw sugar falls to its former level, the Trust will pocket the whole of the margin between raw and refined as fixed in the tariff, and ought to. If they have anything to give away, they will give it as other charitably disposed persons do, like Mr. Andrew Carnegie, for example. The country has voted this margin to them, and there is not the slightest reason why they should not pocket it.

The margin is between 1¼ and 1½ cent per pound, depending upon the grade and quality of the sugars imported. The bulk of the sugar which came in last year tested between 92° and 96°. The duty on each hundred pounds of raw testing 92° is $2.08. The duty on the same quantity of refined is $3.50. The margin of protection is the difference between these figures, viz., $1.42. At 96° the duty on raw is $2.24 and the margin of protection is $1.26. This is what the law doth give. If the refiners take any less, they must do so either because the maximum price lessens the demand, or because they see in the public impatience, which the Boston *Advertiser* deprecates, a threatened repeal or reduction of the discriminating duty.

It is not likely that the latter consideration enters into their business arrangements at all. They may have it in view as a theorem or abstract conception, like a future state of existence, but they would be very foolish to give up a present profit for a future uncertainty. What Congress may do is doubtful. Among the things least likely to have weight would be a plea that the Trust had been, on the whole, generous, and had not taken all that it might have taken. To any Congressman who wanted to repeal the duty, such a plea would be a laughing-stock. To any one who wanted to adhere to the Chicago platform, the difference between a cent and a cent and a half in the margin of protection would be perfectly immaterial. Any good business man—and the Sugar Trust is certainly composed of such—would prefer to make hay while the sun shines, taking his chances of the rainy day hereafter.

The significance of the *Advertiser's* article

lies in the fact that one of the deafest protectionist newspapers in the country has heard that there is thunder somewhere around the horizon. Others had heard it before. The proposition to reduce the tax for the benefit of the monopoly to about $15,000,000 per year is an encouraging symptom. How it is to be reconciled with the Republican national platform, which demands the repeal of the whiskey tax rather than the reduction of any protective duties whatsoever, we leave to the *Advertiser* and others like minded to explain. We do not think, however, that any half-measures will be adopted with reference to the Trust. To cut down the margin between raw and refined to half a cent per pound would call attention to the fact that the Trust has its fingers in every sugar-bowl in the country, and that the half cent is a sheer gratuity differing from the present tax only in amount. The Boston *Herald's* proposal to make a uniform duty on all sugars is much more reasonable, but the duty ought not to exceed one cent per pound. At this rate the tax would yield nearly $30,000,000, and this is quite sufficient to be imposed upon an article of food used by all classes and conditions of people, and paid chiefly by those in humble circumstances, because they are the most numerous body of consumers. The *Advertiser's* glib assumption that the sugar-refining industry would be "destroyed" if the protection were taken away, calls to mind the similar pretence of the quinine manufacturers when theirs was repealed. "The boy lied."

THE PRICE OF LIBERTY.

In the *Popular Science Monthly* for July, Prof. Sumner gives a severe shaking to the various isms whose aim is that some men shall live at the expense of others, viz., anarchism, socialism, nationalism, State absolutism, and compulsory altruism. All these things require that personal liberty shall be first overturned, because under the régime of liberty each man is charged with his own support. The right to pursue happiness is conjoined with the necessity of using one's powers with intelligence and industry. Society can go back to servitude, from which it has, after much pain and struggle, emerged, but it cannot have liberty and servitude at the same time. If there are such things as natural rights and equal rights, they are incompatible with a system which requires one man to support another against his will, whether the system be called socialism or feudalism.

There is perhaps no phrase that stands more in need of definition and defence than that of "natural rights." It is made to do a great deal of service on the stump, in Congress, and in the press, by persons who have never asked themselves what are the rights that nature has conferred upon man. To answer this question it is necessary to observe what rights men in the state of nature enjoy and what they have enjoyed in the past. When we enter upon such an inquiry, we find that they are not the rights which we mean when we use the phrase natural rights. Among Australian savages, these being by common consent nearest to the state of nature of all existing tribes, the right of a young woman is to be brained with a club if she does not follow the man who first takes a fancy to her. Among Terra del Fuegians the right of an aged person is to be eaten instead of the more useful dogs of the family. In general the right of the strong man in the state of nature is to take the weaker man's property, his wife, his life, or his liberty. The right of the weaker man is to submit.

The state of nature is the last place to search for "natural rights." Least of all is it the place to look for the right to liberty, a right which was denied even in our own country down to the year 1865. If there is any one thing in the world's history that denies and stultifies the right to liberty as being "natural," it is the almost universal prevalence of slavery, and its persistence down to our own time, even among the most highly civilized races. The republics of Greece in their palmy days enslaved each other's free citizens with no more compunction than Tippo Tib feels in his present operations in Central Africa. Our ancestors in Massachusetts thought it not wrong to sell the children of Quakers into slavery, and they made no distinction between Indians and Africans in that regard, as, indeed, there was no reason why they should. The *natural* right of a prisoner of war is to be killed or made a slave of. The right to life and the right to liberty, as they now exist, are artificial and conventional rights evolved from the painful experience of ages. Such they are historically, and no man can affirm that they are different in any other sense, except by taking refuge in theological dogmas which have no more foundation in the Bible than they have in the natural state of man.

What are commonly called natural rights are ideal rights, the product of ideas gradually accepted by mankind and moulded into the form of law. "The most important fact in regard to the history of the dogma of natural liberty," says Prof. Sumner, "is that *that dogma never had an historical foundation*, but is the purest example that could be brought forward of an out-and-out *à-priori* dogma; that this dogma, among the most favored nations, helped and sustained the emancipation of the masses; and that by contagion it has, in the nineteenth century, spread liberty to the uttermost parts of the earth." By dint of calling these rights natural when they are in the strictest sense artificial, having been forged by the sweat of ages, minds have been opened to believe that a lot of other things follow as corollaries, such as the right to a living, the right to labor (*i. e.*, the right to be provided with suitable employment), and the right to marry (*i. e.*, the right to have one's offspring taken care of). These things are inseparable from the right to pursue happiness, and if this be a natural right, the others cannot be denied. If it is only an artificial right, hammered out by painful effort, the others are in like manner to be won by toil and patient mastery of the conditions in which man's lot has been cast on earth.

The right to liberty having been gained by slow effort, protracted certainly through the whole historic period of the race, the presumptions are mightily in favor of its being beneficial, of its being something worth clinging to at all hazards—as is the common understanding of all who enjoy it. Those who advocate Government control of the means of existence, generally speak of it as a larger liberty than is now vouchsafed to any people, since it offers, in their opinion, opportunities for the enjoyment of life, and freedom from anxiety, to larger numbers of human beings. The common answer—and it is a true one—is that such opportunities for enjoyment, and such deliverance from anxiety, are won only by labor conjoined with intelligence, and that the question at bottom is whether governments can direct the labor of men more intelligently than they can direct it themselves, supposing for the moment that all are as willing to work for common ends as for their own ends. "But you must," says the socialist, the nationalist, the compelling altruist. Ah, then you begin by subverting liberty. Your first step is to overthrow and bring to naught something which your fathers and grandfathers wrought out with great effort and shed their blood that you might enjoy, and which, in a general way, you hold to be your most valuable earthly possession. More than ever does it seem true that the price of liberty is eternal vigilance.

COLOR PREJUDICE.

The recent appointments of black men as postmasters in some Southern towns where nearly all the mail matter is sent and received by white people, have aroused much local criticism, which in turn has provoked no little comment in the Northern press. In one case, at Covington, La., a negro was appointed who had never been a resident, who was unknown to the people of the town, and against whose character charges were made. But the most conspicuous case has been that of the office at Bay St. Louis, a summer resort for well-to do people of New Orleans, of which it is really a suburb. Here a negro was appointed Postmaster whose character is conceded to be good, but whose selection is complained of solely on account of his color. The men of the families being generally absent in the city during the day-time, the postal business is done almost exclusively by the women and children, and the local press complains that it is disagreeable for these white women and children to find a black man in control of the office.

When such complaints by the local papers reached the North, a number of the Republican organs were moved to expressions of the most violent indignation. "An insane prejudice," it was called by a Massachusetts paper, while the loud-mouthed Boutelle declared, in his Bangor *Whig and Courier*, that "this is simply monstrous." Why white people at a summer resort in Louisiana should object to taking their letters and buying their stamps from a black postmaster, was something which these New England people professed to believe past their

comprehension. "Why should a good colored man be offensive as a postmaster?" asked Boutelle, with the air of a man who knew that nobody living could answer his question. In the same line were the remarks of Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson, who is quoted as having talked in this way to one party of protesting Southerners: "Does not a colored servant cook your meal, another wait on your table, another shave your face, and still another mix your toddy for you? You admit that. Well, then, I'm unable to see why it is that if you can take your breakfasts from black hands, you can't also take your letters and newspapers from the hands of negro postmasters. At the office in question, Senator, a colored man will be appointed before night."

There is, however, nothing extraordinary about this particular manifestation of the color prejudice. There are other exhibitions of the same feeling, North as well as South, which are even more remarkable. A newspaper conducted by colored men has recently been calling attention to the fact that the dry-goods merchants of Boston will not employ black men and women as clerks, salesmen, and saleswomen, no matter how deserving the applicants, simply because they are black. Another newspaper conducted by colored men mentions an incident which illustrates the fact that color prejudice is sometimes stronger among Northern men than among Southern. A correspondent of this journal who visited Knoxville, Tenn., not long ago, and observed the many large buildings in course of erection, was struck by the entire absence of negro mechanics. Knowing that many of the best houses in the city had been built by negro mechanics, and that less than twenty years ago but few white mechanics were employed, he asked a citizen the reason. "He told me that white mechanics had been imported from the North, and that they refused to work with negroes. The result was that the negro mechanic could not be employed." This is not an exceptional case. It would be hard to find a white man in the North who would consent to serve under a negro foreman, but such a sight is by no means uncommon in Southern cities.

Occasionally somebody like George W. Cable comes forward with a sad tale of color prejudice in the South—perhaps a lamentation that in Atlanta, Ga., the most refined and educated negro can only go to the theatre on condition of sitting in the gallery. But the same thing is true to this day in the city of Brooklyn. Even black members of the Grand Army of the Republic in that "City of Churches" are forbidden the privilege of sitting beside their white comrades in the body of the house at an entertainment for the benefit of their organization—and the reason is because the managers of the theatres complain that it would hurt their business to let negroes into any other part of the building than the gallery. Nor is this the worst manifestation of the prejudice. The Young Men's Christian Association of this city closes its doors to black men, simply and solely because they are black. At Asbury Park, N. J., colored men are not allowed to bathe in the ocean at the same time as whites. The feeling appears to be no less strong in other parts of the country. During a recent Congregational convention in Iowa a lady of Grinnell, a town distinguished for its educational institutions, in describing the work of the "Society of Christian Endeavor," told how the Society had extended its aid to a colored girl who was finely educated, but who, on account of her color, could find no employment except that of a life of drudgery, for which she did not have the required physical strength, and from the effects of which she died.

While such things are true at the North, it is arrant hypocrisy for Northerners to prate about the "insane prejudice" of Southerners against the negro. The truth is, that this color prejudice is entertained by most white people—by a great many who concede that it seems unreasonable, and yet who confess that they cannot get over it. How far this prejudice is the result, conscious or unconscious, of slavery; how far, if at all, it is really a race feeling which is permanent—these are questions which nobody can settle offhand. It is emphatically a matter which calls for patience and forbearance. We must remember that it is only about thirty years since Abraham Lincoln, in his famous joint debate with Douglas, in answering on the 18th of September, 1858, the question whether he was "really in favor of producing a perfect equality between the negroes and white people," replied:

> "I am not, nor ever have been, in favor of bringing about in any way the social and political equality of the white and black races. I am not, nor ever have been, in favor of making voters or jurors of negroes, nor of qualifying them to hold office, nor to intermarry with white people; and I will say in addition to this that there is a physical difference between the white and black races which I believe will for ever forbid the two races living together on terms of social and political equality."

Abraham Lincoln would not stand by that doctrine if he were living in 1889, when a white man is tried for murder in Charleston, S. C., before a jury half of whose members are negroes; but neither would Abraham Lincoln, in 1889, call it "monstrous" for Southern people still to entertain a prejudice of color which he had himself once so fully shared. He would be likely to suggest to the Boutelles and the Clarksons that they had better devote all their energies for the present to the task laid before them by a candid Iowa editor who says, apropos of the Grinnell incident: "Hadn't we better pick out some of the beams from our own eyes before we make such a fuss about the motes in the eyes of others?"

THEODORE DWIGHT WOOLSEY.

To President Woolsey belongs the rare honor of taking the lead in two great intellectual movements. He laid the foundations of American scholarship; he taught men to apply that scholarship to the social and political problems of the day. In each of these departments of his life work he was preëminent; in the combination of the two he stood alone and unrivalled.

He began his professorship of Greek at Yale College in 1831. In 1834 he published his edition of the "Alcestis" of Euripides. Fifty-five years have elapsed since that time, but Woolsey's "Alcestis" has not been superseded. It is to-day, for its purpose, the best edition in existence. In spite of the advances in philology and in textual criticism, we have nothing which so well meets the need of the student. No higher praise than this can possibly be given to his work. Yet it was done wholly without obtrusion of himself. The notes were not written to show the learning of the author, but to assist the learning of the student. Vast as is the range of knowledge which they display, in philology, in literature, and in politics, the self-restraint and self-effacement of the author are still more striking. His work was everything to him, his own share in its credit least of all things. Similar editions of classical authors followed in rapid succession. The "Antigone" appeared in 1835; the "Prometheus" and the "Electra" in 1837; the "Gorgias" in 1843. Side by side with his friend Prof. Felton, he gave the world tangible evidences of American scholarship which did not need to fear comparison with the best which Europe could produce.

His election to the Presidency of Yale College in 1846 interrupted his distinctively classical work, but only to give him a wider field of influence in the College and in the world. He at once raised the standard of quality in all departments, as he had previously done in his own. Nor was this result confined to Yale alone. At the time of President Woolsey's resignation, a leading Harvard professor truthfully said that all our colleges should share in honoring the man to whose work they were all alike indebted for their standard of scholarship, and for no small part of their progress towards its realization.

No direct comparison can readily be made between the work of President Woolsey's generation and that of President Eliot's. The two are essentially different in kind. The one was primarily an advance in quality; the other, in breadth and extent. The latter has more visible monuments to display, but the former was the necessary prerequisite to it. The man who laid the foundation accomplished what was in many respects the most difficult part of the task. To have done this, and to have done it well, is President Woolsey's highest honor. It is true that he did not foresee what Yale College and other colleges have since become. Our universities have developed on lines different from those which he expected, and in directions which he would in some instances have opposed. But it is none the less true that his work made subsequent development possible. Sound scholarship, vigorous teaching power, and the influence of a strong man on strong men were the vitally necessary basis for all healthful growth. These he furnished. That the subsequent development took a different line from what he expected is no discredit to him. To a man who cared so much for his work and so little for himself, it involves no shadow of failure, but marks rather the

highest success, to have builded better than he knew.

The completeness with which President Woolsey did his work has made it hard for the younger generation to realize its magnitude, while his complete absence of self-assertion in carrying it out has perhaps prevented his personality from taking so strong a hold on the general public as it might otherwise have done. Ten people have a definite idea of President Hopkins to one who has any such picture of President Woolsey. This is what President Woolsey himself would have wished. But it was not the result of any lack of strength of character on his part; it was rather from that excess of strength which could make him afford to be self-forgetful. Those who were under his influence could not for one moment be blinded to his greatness. His self-restraint was not the result of timidity, but precisely the reverse. He had so strong a sense of the importance of the work to be done that he knew no fear in doing it. In the days of his tutorship the most turbulent of the students who came under his eye were afraid of him. However reckless they might be in their wrong-doing, there was a recklessness in his right-doing which was more than a match for them, and which frightened those who otherwise feared neither God nor man. This quality he retained to the end of his life. He was ready to tell the truth regardless of consequences. Towards the close of his Presidency he was asked, under somewhat delicate circumstances, his judgment of a man with whom he had been brought in contact, and was assured that if he gave a hint of his opinion, it would be used in such a way as not to compromise him. Scorning all such concealment, he openly replied: "You may tell people that I think very little of the man." Some years later, when a prominent politician tried to frighten President Woolsey into a retraction of certain expressions of which he had made use, the only reply was a reassertion of the same views, with such added force that the politician was only too glad to let the controversy terminate without another word.

His modesty alone prevented the world from knowing the vastness of his range of information. At a time when breadth of education was far rarer than it now is, he had read both law and theology, and had pursued a course of classical and philological study in Europe lasting several years. Nor did he allow the duties of his college office to narrow his range of subsequent work. Let one instance suffice. In the year 1864 the *New Englander* published a series of articles on the revival of learning in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Knowledge of the Italian Renaissance was not at that time so easy to acquire as it has been since the appearance of Mr. Symonds's work. Such articles as these could only be the result of hard individual study at first hand. Yet the author was none other than President Woolsey himself, who, in the midst of his classics and his politics, his interest in the duties of his office, and his equally absorbing interest in public affairs, had found time to carry out, almost as a diversion, what would have exhausted another man as a specialty by itself.

The influence of President Woolsey's character on those who came in contact with him can never be adequately described. He served as a model to those who worked with him, as well as to those who worked under him. Though strong in will, he was so scrupulously truthful that those who differed from him always had a fair chance to make their views known. They might complain of opposition, they never could complain of unfairness. His character was an ever-present force. His sermons—which to many Yale graduates formed the most impressive part of his teaching—were not mere essays, however full they might be of accurate knowledge and sound reasoning; they were the outgrowth of his life and his personal experience, and their words had the whole weight of his personal character behind them. He was a religious man in the best sense of the word—one to whom the supreme importance of moral questions was an ever-present fact, and who had fully learned the lesson of self-renunciation and the strength which comes from it.

President Woolsey's political work began when his educational work culminated. As President of Yale College, he felt the necessity for more vigorous teaching of history and politics. Not that he had ever in his earlier years lost sight of this fact—his notes to the Greek classics are full of allusions to profound questions of law and public morals. But his position as President gave him a wider opportunity for these teachings, of which he was not slow to avail himself. The first and most important published result of these labors was his 'International Law,' which appeared in 1860. It is a most characteristic book, in which it is as hard for the casual reader to see the amount of effective work which it represents, as for the casual observer to do justice to President Woolsey's influence on the cause of American education. But the more thoroughly the careful student knows the difficulties of the subject, the more he will appreciate the book. The men who rate it highest are those, like Sir Henry Maine, who themselves stand highest and see clearest.

In 1869 President Woolsey published his 'Essays on Divorce,' a leading event in an agitation which has already borne practical fruit. His 'Political Science' appeared in 1887. It was a much larger work than any of its predecessors, but a less successful one. The author originally intended to write on a more limited topic—the theory of the State and the doctrine of rights. It would have been better if he had done so; but he allowed himself to be over-persuaded by friends, and gave the book its present scope in deference to their advice. It is a work of wonderful learning, but out of harmony with the political and ethical thinking of the time. It has been a monument of the author's knowledge rather than a living influence upon others.

It is rare that a man stands so high that an obituary notice can tell the whole truth, and record his limitations as well as his achievements, his less successful deeds as well as his more successful. But President Woolsey was such a man. He told the truth without respect of persons; he wished others to do the same about himself. A smaller man might need to be set on a pedestal. President Woolsey requires no such artificial enhancement of his greatness. He could afford to scorn exaggeration or concealment, and stand before the world for what he was. Thus he did in his life, and thus we have tried to do in this imperfect sketch of his career.

OFFICE-HOLDING IN THE COLONIES.

WASHINGTON, July 1, 1889.

THE recent publication of the letter-books of Horatio Sharpe, Proprietary Governor of Maryland during the French and Indian war, throws much light upon the internal management of the province at that time; and among the many interesting points covered is that of Government patronage and the distribution of offices in those days. To say that the conditions are the same to-day would be claiming too much; and yet the principles that controlled the bestowal of positions in 1755 were essentially the same that control the distribution of spoils in 1889. I have before me some unpublished letters of Richard Henry Lee, a man to whom history has not yet awarded his full due, and the two volumes of Governor Dinwiddie's correspondence, from which illustrations will be drawn. In Virginia, a royal colony, and in Maryland, a proprietary government, the use and abuse of office-holding were similar, and by no means inapplicable to the conditions of to-day. If a well-ordered system could be looked for anywhere in the British colonies of America, it ought to be found in these tobacco-growing colonies, the "brightest jewels" of the English crown, because the highest examples of the wisdom, justice, and power of the selfish and costly mercantile system.

In the royal colony, Virginia, all honor flowed from the King. The Governor was appointed by his Majesty, but usually resided in London, Lord Botetourt being the first to reside in Virginia since Lord Culpeper's time; an interval of nearly a century intervening between the two administrations. The burden of government thus fell on the lieutenant-governor and a council, whose members were appointed by royal mandamus, and usually on the recommendation of the lieutenant-governor. The judges in the higher courts were members of the council, and those of the county courts held their office of the executive, while nearly all minor offices were at its disposal also. The House of Burgesses, composed of two members from each county, represented the popular branch, and with the Governor and Council formed the General Assembly. It is curious to find R. H. Lee lamenting in 1766 the absence in the Virginian Constitution or form of government of some balance like the House of Lords in England. "All the executive, two-thirds of the legislative, and the whole judiciary powers are in the same body of magistracy"; and he quotes Montesquieu to show that such a condition means the worst of slavery.

More than this, the Assembly was a popular branch only in name, as it was subject to the will of the Governor. There was no law directing the calling of new assemblies; there was none appointing any time for the meeting of the representative body when chosen. The

Assembly did pass an act, modelled after the English statute adopted after the Revolution, directing that a new assembly should be called once in seven years at least, and should hold a session at least once in three years; but the royal approbation was not granted, and so the question of holding sessions remained a prerogative possession. The laws of this body were not final, but were subject to the King's veto, which will account for the poverty of the statute-books in what may be called real legislation. Petty matters of detail, entails, rents, formation of counties, erection of townships, and establishment of ferries, were the leading subjects, and it is only when a proposition to form a "bank," that is, to issue a paper currency, arises that any indication of the struggle between royalty and the people which gradually developed into the Revolution, is encountered.

The position of a royal governor was no sinecure; that of a proprietary governor was even more laborious, as it represented rather a business than a political interest. He was the land agent of the proprietor, controlling the disposition of lands within the colony, and collecting the quit-rents; he was the civil and military head of the province, and responsible for the defence and safety of the colonists. But between the conflicting interests of Proprietary and colonists, the means obtained from the people by various charges or rents, and jealously guarded by the Legislature, were not commensurate to the ends, and the refusal of a grant of money by a "levelling House of Burgesses, too much of a republican way of thinking," reduced the Governor to a state of powerlessness in which he easily became a vulgar scold. In Pennsylvania, in Maryland, and in Virginia the relations of the Governor to the Legislature were so strained that it was difficult for them to obtain money even for the most pressing emergencies.

That the Proprietary or the Governor was, too often, to use a vulgar phrase, "on the make," using his powers and his patronage to further his own ends, is merely the bald truth. In Pennsylvania, no important act of the Assembly could receive the sanction of the Proprietary Governor without a "present," which amounted to as much as £500 a law, and was divided between the Governor and the Proprietary. "It is a happy country," wrote Franklin in regard to this abuse, "where justice, and what was your own before, can be had for ready money. It is another addition to the value of money, and, of course, another spur to industry. Every land is not so blessed."

If legislation was brought to such a market, it is reasonable to expect that places of honor and profit should be subject to the same system of disposition. Col. Plater, when offered the office of Secretary of Maryland, looked into the profits of the place, and concluded to refuse should he have to "pay more than one-fourth part of the income," and a like proportion of what money or presents he might receive on the nomination of county clerks; though Sharpe thought he "ought to have offered one-third of the profits at least." Richard Henry Lee, in 1772, requested his brothers, William and Arthur, to use their influence with the Ministry to "fix the profit of some place" with him.

"Have an eye to the deputy secretary's place. I suppose more than £1,000 per annum cannot be paid the principal [*i. e.*, the secretary, an absentee], and I really believe 'tis worth £3,000 per annum this currency. Suppose, then, £1,000 sterling was paid the principal, this, at 25 difference of exchange, would leave £1,750 currency for the deputy. One-half of this I would undertake most readily to do the business for, and remit the rest. In this view, it might be well to give a pretty good sum for the deputyship besides the annual composition."

Was ever bribe more openly offered for an appointment?

The Governor's Council should have been composed of good executive ability, and in Virginia a high order of talent was obtained, the King's representative being anxious to gain the influence of men of property and spirit. In Maryland the Governor was pestered with recommendations, although he wrote more than once that "to be free from fault, or to be a worthy man and good companion, is not, in my opinion, sufficient at this time [1755, the year of Braddock's expedition] to recommend a person to a seat at the Council Board."

"I think I have already hinted to you that I am not permitted to dispose of any of the most honorable and lucrative offices, because another person loves to have all the applications made to himself. This perhaps is of itself sufficient to lessen the weight and influence that a governor would otherwise have; but as it has been thought proper of late to saddle these offices with about £550 per ann., and I am charged with the care of making the most advantageous bargains, I submit to your own judgment whether it is possible for a person in my situation to continue always popular. Anybody that can get introduced to Mr. Calvert, is sure to bring me an open letter desiring I will appoint him to this or that, or the first vacant office. Should I have any objection to the person so introduced and recommended to me, or for any other reason neglect to comply with the terms of such letter, that man thinks himself hardly dealt by, and immediately commences my enemy."

"I begin to see," he wrote to Calvert on another occasion, "that the art of disposing of places so as to avoid offence is one of the most difficult parts of government"; and, after an experience of three years, to Lord Baltimore, "Any privilege or power of nominating to vacant offices is one that, in my opinion, no governor has reason to be very fond of. For my own part, I can assure your Lordship that it has made me many enemies, and that, on account of the recommendations that I have been obliged to accept, it has been very rarely in my power to make a friend by that means." Still, office was sometimes used for political effect, and the position of councillor was offered to a member of the lower house to abate his "virulency," and the profits of the surveyorship were considered a fitting instrument to make a "useful tool" of a member of the House who, by his "cunning and capacity," might lead or "impose on" some of the Burgesses. Church-livings were dispensed in the same way, and the revenue of the colony mortgaged through pensions given to gentlemen for whom the Proprietary had a great regard, although the recipient of a favor was not required to remove to and reside in the colony.

The governors were, however, only too anxious to extend their own influence; and honor, place, and profit were the easiest and least expensive means offered. Dunmore, in making nominations to a vacancy in the Council in 1772, reminded the Earl of Dartmouth, in terms of deference, that Lord Hillsborough had promised that "no one not nominated by him [Dunmore] should be appointed." So Sharpe, in spite of his complaints, would much have liked to distribute the plums of patronage:

"I have before hinted to you what channel all preferment has gone through since I have been honored with his Lordship's commission, and if a reformation be not shortly made, the authority of a governor in this province will be a very shadow. . . . I hope you will be able to convince him that a governor without power to oblige or reward, as well as to punish, can never make many friends, and that it is more than likely that a majority of those who obtain favors without my approbation or interest, set light by my power or commence my enemies."

But the Proprietaries were bent upon retaining the function for themselves; and when the Pennsylvania Assembly recommended to the Governor a person for the trivial office of receiving a lighthouse duty, it was characterized as "an encroachment on the prerogative of the Crown."

All the offices being at the disposal of the Governor (as representing the King or the Proprietary), and the activity of the Legislature being curbed by the Executive, the sphere of action to one who did not happen to be in the good graces of the Governor was necessarily limited, and not likely to call out the best talents attainable. Sharpe complained that, owing to the short term of membership in the lower house, "few gentlemen will submit so frequently to the inconveniences that such a canvass for seats in that house must necessarily subject themselves to; by which means there are too many instances of the lowest persons, at least of men of small fortunes, no soul, and very mean capacities, appearing as representatives of their respective counties." Lee, as early as 1769, only a few years after his bold attack on the scheme of the defaulting treasurer of the colony, and the prominence he had gained in connection with the protests against the Stamp Act, found the "attendance on assemblies so expensive, and the power of doing good so rarely occurring, that I am determined to quit that employment." And a year later he wrote: "I have many reasons that are absolutely decisive against continuing a popular candidate any longer. . . . If, therefore, I am to continue in the public service, it must be in the Council, . . . the power of checking ill, and the means of doing good, occurring oftener in our upper than in our lower house."

The manner of conducting the elections and the expense involved were some of the reasons that made popular representation an undesirable effort. Those who were "in" did not hesitate to truckle to the people's views. Sharpe declared that, as an election approached, the Legislature would become perverse and obstinate, standing out for its rights, and catering, as it were, to the popular vote; full of its own opinions, and entirely deaf to argument and reason; seeking to cast odium on the Governor by passing bills speciously framed so as to comply with his recommendations, b[ut] only on the sacrifice of his duty to his maste[r], or so as to satisfy a popular demand that c[ould] be gratified only by the Governor's diso[beying] his instructions.

Those who were "out" were [forced] to seek the favor of the powerful. Was[hington], when only twenty-three, expressed a w[ish] to "stand a poll" and represent his county [in the House] if his "chance was tolerably g[ood]" and he asked his brother to sound his [friends] on the subject, and, should they seem i[nclined] to promote his interest, to beg the [assistance] "Conduct the whole till you a[re satisfied] of the sentiments of those I have m[entioned], with an air of indifference and un[concern]; after that you may regulate your conduct according to circumstances." Before he was twenty-six, this ambitious youth had run as a candidate to the Burgesses, and met with a bad defeat, receiving only 40 votes out of a total of 581. In 1758 he was successful, and his accounts give some light on the election methods of that day, for his friends expended nearly £39 in entertaining the freeholders (all but £3 went for liquor), and Washington wrote to his manager that his only fear was that the money had been spent in that way "with too sparing a hand." Being

absent at the time with Col. Bouquet in his march against Duquesne, Col. Wood, a local celebrity, acted as his representative, being "carried round the town in the midst of a general applause and huzzaing for Col. Washington." A "dull barbacue, and yet duller dances" were features of the election, and then the excitement subsided. All appeared to depend on the personal favor and address of the candidate, for, save in Pennsylvania, no definite issues were mentioned or discussed. Franklin recorded in 1764, doubtless with no little pride: "In none of the fourteen elections [he had won to the Assembly] did I ever appear as a candidate. I never did, directly or indirectly, solicit any man's vote." And he speaks of "double tickets" and "whole boxes of forged votes" as weapons used to defeat him by the Opposition—practices of which the present generation know somewhat.

The position of the Governor saved the colonies from one great abuse, an interference with the county elections. There might be "Government candidates," but the frequent elections (annual) made much of such local interference with a free choice too costly and nugatory, for the people would remain opposed to the Executive, and it was in the people that the choice of delegates ultimately resided. An unpopular representative was too easily shelved to make it an object to back him; and whatever favor and influence the Governor sought was in preference obtained by the distribution of the offices at his disposal, and not by an attempt to determine the complexion of the House. Every effort was made to extend this influence; but when the Revolution came, it was seen how hollow and unreliable it was. We have had in our day attempts to build up a party by the abuse of patronage that have been no more successful than were the attempts of these colonial governors. In short, we may find in the problems presented by the civil service to-day much the same conditions and difficulties that were met with 130 years ago.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

RUSSIA BEFORE EUROPE.

PARIS, June 27, 1889.

THE success of the French Exhibition has amounted to a sort of intoxication, and created a sort of optimism which has rendered us almost indifferent to the incidents of the politics of Europe. Some of these incidents, however, have been such as to attract attention, and even to create a sort of uneasiness, and almost of anxiety. The Emperor of Russia lately spoke of the Prince of Montenegro as "his only faithful ally." These words had the effect of a thunderbolt in a blue sky. To speak of a chieftain who can, in his mountains, arm from ten to twenty thousand men only, as his sole ally, is to say that Russia needs no allies, that she is strong enough to resist all the forces of the triple alliance of Prussia, Austria, and Italy. Russia repeats now what Charles Albert once said: "L'Italia farà da se."

There is no use denying the fact—the tension between Germany and Russia is increasing every day. Immediately after his father's death, the young Emperor Wilhelm II. made a visit to Cronstadt and to Peterhof. This visit has yet to be returned by the Emperor of Russia; it is stated that he absolutely refuses to return it with any pomp at Berlin: all that he is willing to do is to see the Emperor of Germany somewhere on his way to make his usual visit to the Danish royal family. There is little doubt that the advances made by Wilhelm to Alexander have had no result whatever; the Emperor of Russia is immovable in his determination to enter into no combinations, no alliances, no political arrangements with Prince Bismarck. He considers that his father made too many sacrifices to the ambition of Prussia, and was never rewarded for it; that the Treaty of Berlin robbed Russia of all she could expect in the East, after she had conducted her armies to the very gates of Constantinople. He is biding his time. Pacific, and determined not to engage in any war, he believes that time works for him, and that he has no need of entering into direct hostilities with Austria and with Prussia; that Panslavism is gradually doing the work of Russia, not only in the Balkan peninsula and in the newborn principalities of Rumania, Bulgaria, and Servia, but even in the Slavic provinces of the Austrian Empire. His policy has become a sort of masterly inactivity; and this inactivity helps him better than any direct interference. It is a curious fact that whenever there have been Russian delegates and generals in Bulgaria and Servia, there has been an outcry against Russia; as soon as the Russians leave these provinces the Russian influence again becomes uppermost. It is at the present hour predominant in Servia, though the Regents are apparently completely independent.

Panslavism is a mysterious force: it addresses itself sometimes to reactionary, sometimes to revolutionary passions; its chief support is the Greek religion; the metropolitans are everywhere the most powerful instruments of Russian ambition. Last September an incident occurred in Slavonia which made a great noise. The Emperor Francis Joseph reproved in strong terms, at the Castle of Bellovar, Bishop Strossmayer of Diakovar, who had addressed a telegram to Kiev, on the day of the anniversary of Saint Vladimir, who introduced Christianity into Russia. Bishop Strossmayer spoke in his telegram of the destinies of Russia and of her great mission in the world. The opposition to Prince Ferdinand in Bulgaria is headed by the Metropolitan. The Metropolitan of Servia was the chief adversary of King Milan, who represented the Austrian influence. The struggle between Austria and Russia in the Balkans is in reality a struggle between Catholicism and the great Orthodox Church; this rivalry underlies all the small incidents of daily politics.

The Emperor of Austria has found it necessary to make an indirect answer to the speech in which the Emperor of Russia asserted his friendship for the Prince of Montenegro. He has given a warning to all the Powers, in saying that "the situation of Europe continues to be little reassuring." While hoping that peace can still be long preserved, notwithstanding the great armaments which are continually increasing, he regrets that the resolution of King Milan of Servia has placed the power in the hands of a Regency during the minority of the young King. He expresses a hope that the prudence and the patriotism of the Servians will preserve their country from grave dangers, and he has some words of encouragement for Bulgaria, where order continues to reign and where great progress is making, notwithstanding the difficult situation of the principality.

Nothing could be clearer than this language, guarded as it is. It is evident that all the dangers to which the Emperor of Austria alludes, the difficulties he speaks of, have their origin in the policy of Russia and in the agitations of the Panslavist party. For a long time it seemed as if the word of Chancellor Gortchakoff after the Crimean war might be repeated: "La Russie ne boude pas, elle se recueille." The great Northern Empire had a merely negative and defensive policy. For a long time after the Treaty of Berlin, the old policy of the alliance of the three Emperors did not seem quite abandoned, but Russia by degrees assumed a more independent policy, and her independence now borders upon hostility. In vain has Prince Bismarck tried every means of conciliating the Emperor of Russia; all seems to be lost on his solitary will, his impenetrability and sullenness. The Emperor is influenced by the passions of his people, which feels an innate hostility to German culture and to Germans. In a country which has no parliamentary institutions, no free press, no chambers, the sovereign, while he seems autocratic, is nevertheless swayed by a sort of public opinion which finds its expression in a hundred ways. The order of the day in Russia is now a return to old Russian habits, costumes, institutions, prejudices, a total severance from all occidental influences. The Emperor leads the people, and the people leads the Emperor in this new crusade. A war between Russia and Germany would really be a war between two different civilizations.

Everybody has felt that France and Russia were drawn towards each other during the past few years by an almost irresistible instinct. There has never been a complete political understanding between them, no treaty of alliance has been signed; but the two nations have felt more interest in each other, they have made a sort of moral alliance. The Russian Government has several times intimated that Russia desired to see France make herself stronger. The instability of our cabinets, the character of our republican institutions, the conservative sentiments of the Emperor have prevented any definitive alliance. But the Emperor's advisers have persuaded him lately that too much importance ought not to be attached to the incidents of our parliamentary life; that beneath our political divisions there is a strong undercurrent of patriotism; that in case of war all party division would rapidly disappear, and that the chiefs of the army would play the principal rôle in the development of events. On the subject of the French army, the Emperor receives very special and complete information, and the conclusion which has been arrived at by his informants is, that the French army to-day is in excellent order, has very able commanders, and constitutes a political element of the greatest importance.

It was thought, at one moment, that the painful incident of Sangallo would make bad blood between Russia and France; Russian blood had been shed, and there certainly was much irritation manifested in the Russian press. On the first occasion when, after the affair of Sangallo, the Emperor met the diplomatic body, the French Ambassador, M. de Laboulaye, naturally felt some anxiety and his colleagues much curiosity. The Emperor approached M. de Laboulaye with his usual courtesy, and merely said, "I regret deeply the incident which has just taken place," and then, after a short pause, "But it will not embroil us" (*cela ne nous brouillera pas*).

Between the constellation formed by the three Powers of Central Europe, Prussia, Austria, and Italy, and the nebulous moral alliance of France and Russia, what will be the conduct of England? Her interests are at present in the hands of a very able man, Lord Salisbury, who has lost much of his old ardor, but has gained in diplomatic knowledge, in foresight, in true statesmanship. He fully understands the forces which are opposing each other, he feels keenly the great responsibilities of his post; he has, so far, not committed a single fault. England has her hands free; she is so

placed that she can observe the development of events, bide her time, and choose her hour. We regret that in the small matter of the conversion of the privileged debt of Egypt, the French Foreign Office should have shown some ill-will to England, at a time when it is essential that France should make no enemies. All the Powers had assented to this conversion, which would benefit the Egyptian fellah. France has asked some guarantees, and demanded the fixing of a date for the evacuation of Egypt. Our Foreign Office cannot be consoled for the diminution of our influence in the valley of the Nile. Time will show what effects this attitude of the French Government may have on the orientation of the English policy.

THE ITALY OF HAWTHORNE.—I.

Rome, May, 1889.

There are few books put so often into the hands of English and American visitors to Rome as Hawthorne's 'Marble Faun,' or, as it is more generally known here, 'Transformation,' from the cheap and widely circulated Tauchnitz edition, which has followed the English title. Pilgrimages are made to what is now generally known as Hilda's Tower; and when young ladies go to the Capuchin church to see the picture of Guido, they almost dread to find a dead monk laid out and bleeding from the nostrils. The book gives a strong impression of local color.

Like every one else in America, I read the book soon after its first appearance, and was naturally struck by the mysteriousness and fancifulness of the story, which, in my ignorance of Italy, seemed perfectly possible. I was deluded by this feigned impression of local color; and as Ruskin and the other art teachers of the moment were then decrying Raphael and all the more modern Italian painters, we were inclined to agree with Hawthorne that nothing better could be done with many frescoes and paintings than to whitewash or burn them, without reflecting that the works of art thus devoted to destruction were those so highly praised by the pre-Raphaelite school. Twenty years later the book came into my hand one day at a hotel in Perugia. I had some dim remembrance of the scenes laid there; but when I found that there had been given to the cathedral a wonderfully beautiful façade which does not exist and never has been built, the book was impatiently thrown aside. It is plain enough that the front of the great church at Siena is meant, as it is described in the romance in almost the same words as in Hawthorne's 'Italian Notebooks,' and the error may be due to a freak of memory.

Again, out of idle curiosity, I have read the book. But this time it amused me to make contemporaneously a study of all that is published under Hawthorne's name, including his 'Notebooks' as well as his various biographies. It is a sad confession to say that, after all, the book of his which I look back to with most affection, and which I have just learned that he chiefly wrote—'Peter Parley's Universal History'—was not published with his name.

It is interesting to study the manner in which Hawthorne's novels were made up; and for this the materials are ample. Few authors have been so thoroughly exploited by their family as Hawthorne: it would seem as if there were scarcely a scrap of his writing still remaining unpublished, except that, with a certain amount of deference to his feelings, some passages of his 'Notebooks' have been omitted which would be of the greatest interest to us, as they have admittedly been rewritten or used with slight changes as component parts of his finished works. It is impossible to agree with his latest biographer that it is idle and useless to study Hawthorne's life and books in connection. Whatever may be the case with his family, it is certainly not true for us, that "if he had never written a line, he would still have possessed, as a human being, scarcely less interest and importance than he does now." Nor has for us "his literary phase seemed a phase only, and not the largest or most characteristic." Indeed, for the world at large, this phase is the only important part of his life, and in general we care to know only so much of his biography as throws light on his books.

We wait with sympathetic impatience for the book of Mr. James Russell Lowell, who knew Hawthorne more or less intimately—so far as one could really know him. Of what has been published, the biography by his son Julian Hawthorne is too long and trivial, although it contains many interesting details. The best thing, on the whole, is the appreciative little book of Mr. Henry James, which does, in some sense, justice—although many Americans say injustice—to Hawthorne's surroundings during the first fifty years of his life.

For a study of the composition of the first two American romances the materials are scanty or have been withheld. The ideas of both plots come from old New England traditions, and the stories themselves are similar to those in 'Twice-Told Tales' and 'Mosses from an Old Manse,' although developed to far greater length and with more minuteness of detail. We know also that Hawthorne, when he wrote the 'Scarlet Letter,' was in a very gloomy state of mind, owing to his having recently been turned out of his position as Surveyor of the Salem Custom-house. This may account in part for the sad tone of the book. The 'House of the Seven Gables' was written in happier moments and amid brighter scenes—the charming landscape of the Berkshire Hills. But even Lenox was not always pleasing to him, for he says in a letter:

"This is a horrible, horrible, hor-ri-ble climate: one knows not, for ten minutes together, whether he is too cool or too warm; but he is always one or the other, and the constant result is a miserable disturbance of the system. I detest it! I detest it! I detest it! I hate Berkshire with my whole soul, and would joyfully see its mountains laid flat."

The 'Blithedale Romance' was written, after another change of residence, in West Newton, a rural suburb of Boston, where—as his son says—"the omnipresent ugliness compels a man to write in self-defence." The background of the book is, of course, Brook Farm, where Hawthorne spent a year as a participator in that absurd and fantastic socialistic experiment. Much of the charm of the book is due to personal reminiscence, and in Miles Coverdale Hawthorne treated himself in a humorous, semi-autobiographic way—much as he has done in his private letters and in the introduction to the 'Scarlet Letter.' In Zenobia we seem to have a glimpse of Margaret Fuller, as she appeared to the imagination of those who did not know her, in spite of the great want of likeness. But, as Mr. Henry James very well says:

"There is no strictness in the representation by novelists of persons who have struck them in life, and there can in the nature of things be none. From the moment the imagination takes a hand in the game, the inevitable tendency is to divergence, to following what may be called new scents. The original gives hints, but the writer does what he likes with them, and imports new elements into the picture."

It is on the whole to be regretted that President Pierce ever gave to his friend that Nessus shirt of the consulate at Liverpool. That productive artistic power which had culminated in the 'Blithedale Romance,' ceased for a long time; and neither 'Our Old Home' nor 'The Marble Faun' reached the level of the American novels. Hawthorne was greatest when on his native soil and writing about characters whose nature he could understand and appreciate. English life, notwithstanding its many resemblances and points of connection, was to him always a foreign one. In spite of his long residence at Liverpool and of his frequent trips to all parts of England, and the possibility of many and interesting acquaintances, he could never assimilate himself to English life, nor even thoroughly accustom himself to English surroundings. In Liverpool he lived in a second-rate or even fifth-rate boarding-house, confining himself chiefly to the society of American ship-captains. Although often in London for months at a time, he saw very little of London society, even of its literary coteries. He himself felt his isolation, for he several times mentions it—rather, however, as if it were a praiseworthy thing, and one to be proud of. In a London suburb, he says, "the preceding occupant of the house (evidently a most unamiable person in his lifetime) scowled inhospitably from above the mantelpiece, as if indignant that an American should try to make himself at home there." And again, in his journal, "I seem to myself like a spy or a traitor when I meet their eyes, and am conscious that I neither hope nor fear in sympathy with them, although they look at me in full confidence of sympathy. Their heart 'knoweth its own bitterness,' and as for me, being a stranger and an alien, I 'intermeddle not with their joy.'" And yet Hawthorne had two very good English friends, Henry A. Bright and Francis Bennoch—the former of whom, however, he had first met in America.

It is absurd to say, with Hawthorne's son, that few Americans ever journeyed thither "better equipped than they [his parents] for appreciating and enjoying what lay before them." Doubtless they had read many books, though the absence of allusions to reading or to interest in any book of the day in Hawthorne's extremely objective notebooks and journals is as curious as the lack of me[n]tion of any love of literature in his biograph[y]. Poetry and literary and historical associat[ions] had prepared their imagination for appr[e]ciating what they were about to see; but ver[y often] external circumstances interfered. Th[is] pecially noticeable in Italy.

The journey, chiefly by sea, from M[arseilles] to Rome was wretched. Genoa seeme[d] less; Leghorn and Civita Vecchia wer[e] During the early part of the stay at R[ome] weather was cold, though sunny; t[he] came on, and Hawthorne caught co[ld] finally had to sit shivering over a fire [in] of warmer weather. Even after this [he was] not comfortable nor happy. As he k[new] most no Italian, he could not enter into [the life] of the people, and his daily walks thro[ugh the] streets of Rome and in the Campagna could only show him the outside of things. As his son says, he cared less and sympathized less with Italy than he had done with England:

"Upon Italy, however, his eyes rested with no deeper sentiment than belongs to a respectful and intelligent curiosity. He had no personal stake in the matter; whatever faults or perfections Italy might possess were merely phenomenal to him, not vital. The Italian genius had no affiliations with his own; it was objective to his mind—something to examine and speculate about, not intuitively to apprehend. The Italian people might be what they

chose, and do what they liked ; his equanimity would remain undisturbed."

The journey from Rome to Florence was an agreeable change, and he wrote in his diary :

" I absolutely walk on the smooth stones of Florence for the mere pleasure of walking ; and, warm as the weather is getting to be, I never feel that inclination to sink down in a heap and never stir again, which was my dull torment and misery as long as I stayed at Rome. I hardly think there can be a place in the world where life is more delicious for its own simple sake than here."

Part of that summer and autumn he spent at the Villa Montauto, on the hill of Bellosguardo, which has one of the most beautiful views of the neighborhood, looking on one side over and beyond Florence towards Vallombrosa, and on the other over the valley of the Arno far off towards Pistoia. It was so near as to enable him to walk into Florence almost daily. Scarcely had he returned to Rome when one of his daughters was taken down with Roman fever, and for four months he was too anxious and despairing to enjoy the life of Rome. Perhaps from his ignorance of the language, Hawthorne apparently made no Italian acquaintances, and, with few exceptions, seems to have known no one outside the American and English colonies. He saw something of Mr. W. W. Story and something of the Brownings; had occasional glimpses of Mrs. Jameson, Miss Bremer, T. A. Trollope, Gibson, and Read, as well as of passers-by such as Mr. Bryant, of whom he always speaks very harshly; Mr. Hamilton Fish, Mr. John P. Kennedy, and his old friend ex-President Pierce. But his chief intimate friends were apparently a few American painters and sculptors, such as Brown and Thompson at Rome and Powers at Florence. Yet, although these sufficed to interest him and helped him to pass the time, he saw their shortcomings and felt their inferiority. Of one of them he wrote, and the description is applicable to more than one:

" Mr. —— has now been ten years in Italy, and after all this time he is entirely American in everything but the most external surface of his manners; scarcely Europeanized or much modified even in that. He is a native of ——, but had his early breeding in New York, and might, for any polish that I can discern in him, still be a country shopkeeper in the interior of New York State or New England. How strange! For one expects to find the polish, the close grain and white purity of marble in the artist who works in that noble material; but after all he handles *clay*, and, judging by the specimens I have seen here, is apt to *be* clay—not of the finest—himself."

He saw through all their little quarrels and jealousies, and remarks once: " I repeat these words only as another instance how invariably the sculptor uses his chisel and mallet to mar and deface the marble work of every one."

Mrs. Hawthorne had some notions of art. She had dallied with brush and pencil, and had once " copied so perfectly a highly finished landscape of Allston that (as Ellery Channing said), being framed alike, when the two pictures were seen together even Franklin Dexter did not know which was which." Having, therefore, some notions of art, her great delight in Italy was to visit the galleries and study the pictures, trying, like so many others who can be seen there nowadays, to discover their inward meaning, but not perhaps always succeeding. Hawthorne, on the contrary, had not the least feeling for art. There are persons who by experience and hard work can become good judges of pictures and learn to tell copies from originals; can even get to appreciate the possibilities of an artist from his early attempts, and whose opinion, therefore, as connoisseurs, is worth having. These in the end must get to be fond of pictures, if only in a technical way, although in point of fact they are only a finer kind of tea-tasters and wine-tasters. Hawthorne had not even this quality, but, because he thought it was his duty, he dragged himself wearily through miles of picture galleries, though admitting to himself that it was a great trial, as he could never take in more than a few objects at a time. Sculpture he thought he could appreciate, but he disliked the nude. " I do not altogether see the necessity of ever sculpturing another nakedness. Man is no longer a naked animal; his clothes are as natural to him as his skin, and sculptors have no more right to undress him than to flay him." But as to pictures he was in a hopeless state of confusion. He wanted the colors all strong, bright, and fresh, and even then they often lacked the charm of being in brilliant frames; just as he thought that the mosaic of the " Transfiguration " must give a better representation of Raphael's idea than the original picture in its present state, and just as he preferred the churches which had the most gaudy interiors of colored and polished marbles. While admitting his ignorance, he was somewhat astonished at Mrs. Jameson, who took him on a drive one day.

" She says that she can read a picture like a page of a book; in fact, without perhaps assuming more taste and judgment than really belong to her, it was impossible not to perceive that she gave her companion no credit for knowing one single simplest thing about art. Nor, on the whole, do I think she underrated me; the only mystery is how she came to be so well aware of my ignorance on artistical points." E. S.

Correspondence.

STILL ANOTHER.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir: A large audience was assembled in the Sanders Theatre at Cambridge on the 27th of June, to listen to an address by the Hon. Edward J. Phelps, our late Minister to England, before the Harvard Chapter of the Phi Beta Kappa Society. Sharing in the privilege, I was impressed with the fact that the whole discourse formed one long premise to the conclusion of which your readers are so tired.

Mr. Phelps says that foreign affairs should be kept out of party politics, for which domestic affairs furnish a more than sufficient field; that foreign policy should be firm and consistent, which it cannot be while it is the sport of changing parties, instancing the important case of the Fisheries Treaty rejected in the Senate by a strict party vote. He says, again, that other first-class Powers have ambassadors, while we have only ministers plenipotentiary and envoys extraordinary, who are regarded in the diplomatic hierarchy as only of the second rank, so that our men have to take lower places, and only second-class men are, as a rule, sent to us in exchange. He says that it is unworthy of a nation as great and rich as ours that diplomatic posts can be held only by men rich enough and willing to draw largely on their private resources; and, moreover, that while other first-class Powers furnish official residences for their Ministers, our Government leaves even Ministers to Great Britain to find lodgings as best they can. Obvious personal reasons prevented him from referring to the greatest disgrace of all, namely, that foreign embassies should be distributed as rewards for the services of party politicians—a practice to which, in his case as well as in others, Mr. Cleveland made a happy exception.

The explanation of all this is perfectly simple. Foreign affairs are especially the business of executive administration, but Congress has taken possession of administration, and reduced the Executive to impotence except in obedience to its commands. Congress is composed of local men, each of whom cares only for his own constituents and his own seat, and little or nothing for the national interest; or, if he does care, can do nothing about it, and, if he should attempt to, would only injure his party standing. No man can lift his voice in Congress who in any way officially represents the nation. How can a purely national interest be expected to receive any attention? Congress cares nothing what becomes of foreign ministers or of the national dignity abroad. It only knows that, such as they are, these places are good enough to stimulate the best party work at home. While ready to take fat salaries for its members, and to distribute with both hands pensions which are supposed to secure local popularity, it is so jealous of the Executive as to starve and pinch it in every possible way, knowing full well that it has no voice even for remonstrance. Much as it is needed in every department, in none more than foreign affairs is it imperative that the high executive officials should be heard in Congress before the country. Mr. Phelps praises the English because in foreign affairs they give up party discord and support the Government of the time. That is merely because they have somebody outside of party who stands for foreign affairs. Here nobody but party represents anything.

In this connection I may refer to the letter of your correspondent Ernest Bruncken. He admits that the Legislature has taken possession of and abuses the whole power of government, and suggests as a remedy that we should have a separate body, elected solely for administrative purposes. But this idea embodies two principles which are perfectly fatal to good administration—a numerous body with separately elected members. Instead of one set of committees, with anarchy, confusion, and intrigue, we should have two. All the secrecy, lobby work, and infirmity of purpose, with the absence of all responsibility, would be just doubled. If it is wanted to see how such a body, intrusted with executive power, would work, there is a plenty of examples in the school committees of cities and towns. And, after all, the legislative body would get the upper hand, because that branch is always the strongest which holds the purse. What is the need of any such expedient? We have already an ideal administrative organization—a President elected by the whole people, a Cabinet of individual heads of departments appointed by him, and down through the one hundred and twenty thousand or so of offices, single men in every post, and all radiating from the President. Nothing could be more perfect, and to this is owing the incomparable superiority of the Federal Administration over that of any State or city. The reason that it fails at all is because it is paralyzed by the usurpation of Congress. The Executive has no initiative, no guidance of policy, no power of appeal to his constituents, no weapon of defence. He has to feed out the offices to suit his masters of the party machine—except so far as the power of appointment is taken out of his hands by an irresponsible commission—and has to sit idly by while Congress carries on its schemes of local and private interest, with the poor privilege of veto if they get quite too outrageous.

The way to meet the overgrown power of Congress is to set the Executive on his feet, and let him stand or fall by his own strength.

G. B.

Boston, July 4, 1889.

THE SPOILS SYSTEM IN 1829.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An interesting illustration of your recent editorial on "Rotation and the Presidency" has just come to my notice. A biography of Joseph Duncan, fifth Governor of Illinois, has lately been written by his daughter, a resident of this city, and published in the Fergus Historical Series, Chicago. The book is enriched by many extracts from Governor Duncan's diary, from which I quote the following:

"March 6, 1829. Governor Kinney and E. J. W. wish me to request the removal of certain officers from office, which I declined, as I am opposed to removing competent and worthy men on account of a mere difference of opinion. They appeared to be dissatisfied, but that will make no difference in my conduct, as such a course would be adverse to all my notions of propriety."

"March 7, 1829. Kane, McLean, and myself went into McLean's room to consult about appointments, in the event of removals or vacancies. McLean and myself opposed removals, except for some good cause, other than political."

It is well known that these views of Governor Duncan's led to his final break with Jackson and his support of Clay for the Presidency in 1832. Illinois politics would be in a more hopeful condition to-day if politicians had more of Governor Duncan's independence and sturdy integrity, and more appreciation of the true character of public office as a public trust.

Edward B. Clapp.

Illinois College, Jacksonville.

WITCH-BURNING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice, in your charming review of Valera's 'Cartas Americanas,' the following sentence: "While we [*i. e.*, the New England colonists] were still in our witch-burning stage, Chili was laying the foundations," etc. This accusation of witch-*burning* is very often brought against the Puritans, and is generally received as true, but I have a strong impression that no "witch" was ever burned in New England, although at the period referred to they were so put to death in the mother country. I believe that they were *hanged* in New England, which was assuredly bad enough, but a long way removed from burning.

Can you or any of your readers to whose attention this may come, give authoritative information on this point? My own impression does not amount to knowledge.—Yours,

F. D. H.

Washington, July 4, 1889.

[We used the phrase somewhat loosely, without meaning to assert as an historic fact the occurrence in question. That our Puritan forefathers were in that "stage," we think cannot be questioned; and if burning had seemed to them as efficacious or convenient as hanging in the case of witches, they would not have been deterred by the cruelty of the punishment. On September 22, 1681, ten years before the witchcraft mania, two negroes were executed for arson in Boston—the man hanged, the woman (whose incendiarism had been attended with loss of life) burnt to death. As late as September 18, 1755, and in Cambridge, Mass., two other negroes were executed for poisoning their master—the man hanged, the woman burnt to death. (See Paige's 'History of Cambridge,' p. 217.) It would not be hazardous to affirm that not a decade passed from the date last mentioned to the outbreak of the civil war without one or more slave-burnings in some part of the country, North or South. The last which we happen to recall took place in Georgia in October, 1860. —Ed. Nation]

PHONETICS AND SPELLING REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Mead, in the *Nation* of June 6, says, with regard to spelling, that "no inconsiderable obstacle in the way of reform is the inability to reach settled conclusions as to what sounds are in question." Is this really an obstacle? That practically phonetic methods of spelling are used in German and Italian would seem to indicate that, the reform once accomplished, there are no difficulties found on this account, for there can hardly be greater differences in the pronunciation of English than of these languages. Yet in these countries the children are, we may fairly say, saved years in education, and the problem of the mitigation of illiteracy is a very different one from what it is with us.

To a German or an Italian the alphabet represents the sounds used by him in his ordinary speech, and the question as to local differences in pronunciation is not necessarily raised at all, any more than it is with us by the methods of indicating pronunciation used in our standard dictionaries. These dictionaries, it would seem, form just the sort of standard of pronunciation necessary for a phonetic spelling. They do not tell us to pronounce a word as a native Londoner or New Yorker pronounces it, but tell us which of the (let us say) thirty-five sounds of our ordinary speech we shall use in uttering it. For example, let us say, "Pronounce the vowel of *yacht* as you do the o of *nŏt*, *ŏdd*, *resŏlve*." It is true, the dictionaries differ somewhat, and some differences of spelling would result. But differences of spelling exist now, especially as between England and America, and cause no difficulties, so far as I know. Why should they any more than differences of pronunciation?

The advantages of a reform in the spelling would accrue chiefly to children and the illiterate, and to foreigners attempting to learn English, and these are classes not likely soon to be heard from on the question, so that the outlook, it would seem, is not promising, it not being a moral question, like the abolition of slavery. But do not let us raise difficulties that do not exist.

It seems strange that the Anglo-Saxon race, so far ahead of the rest of the world in some respects, and especially in most practical matters (even the Germans say, "Die Amerikaner sind so praktisch!"), yet allow the slow-going Continental nations to get ahead of them in such very practical things as spelling and the adoption of the metric system of weighing and measuring, as well as, in the case of England, the matter of a decimal currency. Shades of the Revolutionary Fathers! Can it be that a mild despotism that will force men to seek their best interests, has its advantages after all?—Respectfully,

R. M. Bell.

Berlin, June 24, 1889.

NEPOS FOR STUDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The subject of elementary education has been receiving more attention throughout this country for the past few years than ever before. Much has been done, and is still doing, to make the school course not a mere drill for the mental faculties, but a broadening and humanizing influence as well. It has become a recognized end to fill, no less than to discipline, the mind. In view of these facts, and of the general revisal of school text-books consequent upon them, it seems strange that an author so eminently fitted for the use of schools as Cornelius Nepos should be so generally passed over, both in public and private schools, in favor of the commonly prescribed first books of Cæsar and the four Catilinarians, through which pupils are usually given their first acquaintance with classic prose. In order to be able to read either Cæsar or Cicero with enjoyment or profit, a not inconsiderable acquaintance with the spirit of Roman life is necessary, besides a knowledge of dry technical terms. Neither of these drawbacks exists in the case of Nepos. Any one with a tyro's knowledge of Greek and Roman history may read his 'Lives' with pleasure, while his vocabulary is of universal application. A contemporary of Cicero, and thus belonging to the best period of Latin literature, he is remarkable for simplicity of style and construction. At the same time, he is full of happy turns of phrase that lend themselves to repetition almost as well as the incessantly quoted passages of the Eclogues. He is read in all the German gymnasia, and is one of the three authors cited by Matthew Arnold as read in the elementary English schools.

A final reason why it seems worth while to try to call the attention of educators in this country to Nepos as an author to whom it would be well to give school-children an introduction, is, that his 'Lives' are full of moral lessons. The boys and girls of this day and generation, when there is no time allotted to moral instruction proper in an ordinary school course, are especially in need of such concrete examples of great and noble deeds as the lives of the best and bravest men of antiquity can give them.

G. A.

Notes.

Mrs. Maud Howe Elliott and Mrs. Florence Howe Hall have undertaken to write a full account of the life and education of their father's deaf, dumb, and blind pupil, the late Laura D. Bridgman. They will be very glad to receive any letters, papers, etc., relating to the subject. All documents should be sent to Mrs. Hall, at Scotch Plains, New Jersey; she will carefully preserve and return them to the senders.

A new series of works in American history is announced by Charles Scribner's Sons, who suggest an analogy to the "Epochs of History" series. The division announced is into the epoch of discovery and colonization; the French and Indian wars and the Revolution; the adoption of the Federal Constitution; the anti-slavery conflict, the civil war, and reconstruction. The respective writers will be made known shortly.

Meanwhile, Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co. announce as in preparation "Epochs of American History" in three main divisions—'The Colonies (1492–1763),' by Reuben Gold Thwaites, Secretary of the Wisconsin State Historical Society; 'Formation of the Union (1763–1829),' by Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart, Assistant Professor of History at Harvard College, who is the editor in charge of the series; and 'Division and Re-union (1829-1889),' by Prof. Woodrow Wilson, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

Charles L. Webster & Co. have in preparation, by Alfred R. Conkling, the 'Life and Letters of Roscoe Conkling,' and 'A Yankee at the Court of King Arthur,' by Mark Twain.

Ginn & Co. publish next month 'The Irregular Verbs of Attic Prose; their Forms, Prominent Meanings, and Important Compounds, together with Lists of Related Words and English Derivatives,' by Addison Hogue, Professor of Greek in the University of Mississippi.

The same publishers have just added to their "Classics for Children" series 'The Two Great Retreats of History' and 'Tom Brown at Rugby.' Xenophon's retreat and Napoleon's from Moscow, after Grote and the Comte de Ségur, are the two in question in the former volume. Both narratives are moderately annotated, and it would have been well if the foreign proper names used by the French author had been given an un-French form, on some consistent principle of transliteration. The attempt seems to have been made, but it is not successful. *Kowno*, *Borowsk*, *Twer*, *Dombrowna*, *Malojaroslavetz*, *Mojaisk*, *Louja*, are certain to be mispronounced by children (and by most adults, for that matter). *Rostopchin* may not prove a stumbling-block, but elsewhere we have *Tchitchakoff*. Though it is the fashion to praise 'Tom Brown' as a great aid in the formation of a manly character, we are not aware that it has been previously edited for schools, and by a woman. Clara Weaver Robinson does not name the "few passages . . . omitted from the original text, in the belief that it will thus be better adapted for the use of American schoolboys," but, by retaining the chapter on Tom's fight with "the Slogger," she has been reduced to the necessity of making a glossary of the slang of the prize-ring. Moreover, she preserves this choice vocabulary in an index to the notes.

Three volumes in the so-called "Student's Series of English Classics" are on our table. They are published in Boston by Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, and are all edited by members of the corps of female instructors at Wellesley College. Their aim is to assist in preparing for college examinations in accordance with the entrance requirements adopted by the Association of New England Colleges. The texts are Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner," Macaulay's Essay on Lord Clive, and Webster's Bunker Hill oration. The editing is on the whole commendable, but one smiles at the opening questions—"How much does the 'Ancient Mariner' mean? Is it true, as is ingeniously argued by a contributor to the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy* (July, 1880), that this poem embodies a complete system of Christian theology, presenting 'the Fall from the innocence of ignorance, from the immediacy of natural faith; and the return, through the mediation of sin and doubt, to conscious virtue and belief'?"

Another of those text-books intended for East Indian students is Messrs. Rowe and Webb's edition of 'Essays Written in the Intervals of Business,' by Arthur Helps (Macmillan). The notes are so often beneath the intelligence of any one whose vernacular is English, that they may be disregarded by those who would profit by the text itself. The mere republication is a good thing, whether one regards the author's style or his high morality.

We can further recommend to teachers, as an aid in English instruction, the 'Political Orations, from Wentworth to Macaulay,' edited by William Clark for the "Camelot Series" (London: Walter Scott). It contains specimens of Wentworth, Cromwell, Chatham, Burke, Grattan, Pitt, Erskine, Fox, O'Connell, and Macaulay, with proper introductions. We may as well mention here, too, the latest volumes of the "Carisbrooke Library," edited by Prof. Henry Morley (Geo. Routledge & Sons). One is 'The Earlier Life and the Chief Earlier Works of Daniel Defoe'; the other Gower's 'Confessio Amantis,' "popularized," with the accentuation marked.

Mr. G. H. Wilson, Boston, brings out in a sixth volume his 'Musical Year-book of the United States,' for the past season. It is a very useful record of programmes and performances and of much else besides, with an index to the compositions enumerated.

The July Bulletin of the Hatch Experiment Station of the Massachusetts Agricultural College has a timely application to household pests, from the Buffalo moth or carpet beetle to ants, with identification and suggested remedies.

A photographic illustration or two one now expects with each number of *Appalachia* (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.). The May issue has two views of Sierra Blanca, in the Rocky Mountains, accompanying a clever account of the partial ascent of that peak, by Mr. Charles E. Fay. Other papers are on the Alpine flora of Colorado and the glaciation of mountains in New England and New York.

The late Jules Barbey d'Aurevilly is commemorated at length by the friendly hand of M. Octave Uzanne in *Le Livre* for June, and an etched portrait of this "excentrique" and "Duc de Brunswick de la littérature" (in the popular estimation) is the solitary pictorial adornment of the number.

For the fourth time M. Jules Lemaitre, the most delightful of French critics, the most amusing, and not the least learned or the least acute, has gathered into a volume his scattered studies, which he still sends forth under the title of 'Les Contemporains: Études et Portraits Littéraires' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern), although chief among the subjects of his criticism on the present occasion are Stendhal, Baudelaire, Mérimée, Lamartine, and George Sand. But, better than any of these, it seems to us, are the two papers in which M. Lemaitre analyzes the quality of Victor Hugo's poetry, and points out that the title of Thinker, with which the poet was prone to deck himself, is perhaps that to which he has least claim. The critic draws attention to the penury of ideas from which Hugo suffered, and to the extraordinary opulence and variety of the literary forms in which he could clothe the few ideas he had. The first of M. Lemaitre's papers was published while Hugo was yet alive, and it was perhaps the first note of the inevitable reaction against the excessive veneration of the author of the 'Misérables.' M. Lemaitre has also included in this volume the two essays on M. Daudet's 'L'Immortel' contributed to the *Débats* last summer.

Ibsen's "A Doll's House" and "Spectres" have just been translated into French, "La Maison de Poupée" and "Les Revenants," with a preface by M. Édouard Rod, the acute Swiss critic. M. Rod contributes a sober appreciation of Ibsen's dramatic works, which he esteems as highly as some more perfervid admirers. The book is unfortunately disfigured by a repellent portrait of the Norwegian dramatist.

Refreshing it is to read about Goethe when a man of the late F. Th. Vischer's calibre has something to say about him. His son Robert has collected and recently published in 'Altes und Neues, Neue Folge' (Stuttgart: Bonz; New York: B. Westermann & Co.) Vischer's contributions to periodicals, speeches, and other minor essays, covering a wide range of subjects and the years 1847 to 1887. The fifty pages of "Kleine Beiträge zur Characteristik Goethe's" are worth five volumes of the *Goethe Jahrbuch*, the tenth volume of which has just been distributed to the members of the otherwise prosperous Goethe Society at Weimar. The aridity of the new volume keeps pace with its size. What a pity the old "Æsthetiker" could not have enlivened the pages of the *Jahrbuch* with some such *kleine Beiträge*.

The members of the Natural History Society in St. Petersburg have decided to publish a semi-monthly journal, after the form of the *Biologisches Centralblatt*, to meet the need for articles in Russian. Hitherto, two-thirds of the German zoölogical journals have been filled with Russian work, but the tendency is growing ever greater to publish in Russian and to found a national scientific literature and terminology. In connection with this, the management of the reports of current literature published at the Naples Station has refused to print in future, beginning with this year, any account of works issued in Russian, Polish, Hungarian, and "other barbarous tongues." Therefore, this new journal will contain reviews of Russian literature in all departments of biology, also of prominent foreign works, more general articles (but always of a strictly scientific character), and independent special contributions, which will form the foundation of the publication.

A volume recently published in Russia by the Geographical Society contains 676 songs, adapted to the various seasons of the year, and collected by Miss Zenaïde Radtchenko in the southernmost part of the Government of Mohilev, where it adjoins the Governments of Minsk and Tchernigoff. The locality is a curious one from the fact that the White Russians who inhabit it differ considerably from the general character of their tribe, both in their language, which has lost certain White-Russian peculiarities, in their customs, and in the contents of their songs, which reflect both Little and Great Russian. All these points are explained by the author in her introduction. A small collection of White-Russian proverbs is joined to it. She has furnished about 200 musical motives. Some of the songs have suffered from being influenced by the modern songs, the oldest being the most poetical and melodious; the modern songs—factory, soldier, and street songs—are vulgar in both words and air.

There are strong reasons for believing that Mr. Henry F. Waters has discovered the parentage of Roger Williams. The July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, which has unavoidably been delayed, will contain the result of Mr. Waters's researches on this subject. The persons supposed to be his parents were residents of London, and not of Wales nor of Cornwall. The same number of the *Register* will contain two letters of Williams's, never before printed, written a few years before his coming to New England. He was then the private chaplain of a prominent Puritan family. It is probable that his early objections to the ceremonies prevented him from holding a living in England. He mentions having received the offer of two livings and a New England call.

—Dr. Mackay's 'Dictionary of Lowland Scotch' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) was intended as a guide to Burns and Scott, but it grew upon his hands. There was room for such a work, and so far as definitions of words and illustration by quotations go, Dr. Mackay's book will fill it, but the unwary reader needs to be cautioned against following the author as an ety-

mological guide. We have to do with a genuine keltomaniac, who thinks that "philology is, at the best, but a blind and groping science," and who etymologizes as follows: "The true origin of the word 'Angles' is the Keltic or Gaelic *an*, the definite article, and *gaidheil* (in which the *dh* are not pronounced), which signifies the 'Gael,' or the *Celts;* whence *An-gael*, and not Angle." After that we are ready for anything, and we are not disappointed. The author affirms "that there is no real foundation for the confident statement that the name of 'Angles' was ever borne by or known to any German tribes"; that the epithet "'Anglo-Saxon' . . . was not known . . . until the second half of the eighteenth century"; and that "the southern English . . . are not half so much German as they think themselves," and more of the same sort. A little practical knowledge of the Northumbrian dialect and its descendant, the Northern dialect of Middle English, would have aided the author's etymologizing, for he perceives that "Scotch is for the most part Old English." An appendix on "Lost Scotch and English Preterites," which, too, must be read with caution, a "Collection of Scottish Proverbs," and a "List of Scottish Writers," complete the work.

—Our notice of Prof. Calvin Thomas's edition of Goethe's 'Tasso' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) has been somewhat unreasonably delayed, but assuredly not for lack of appreciation, based on knowledge of its constant use for many months. It has proved itself highly serviceable. The text has been prepared with extreme care, important variants being given in Appendix ii. Appendix i is a brief but handy bibliography. The notes upon difficult passages are to the point and truly helpful—that is, they are not mere crutches to the halt and the lame. In some places we think the editor has been too chary of them, notably in the quarrel-scene between *Tasso* and *Antonio*. And in one or two instances we take exception to his interpretation. Thus we do not believe that in verse 39 Goethe is describing the blue haze of Sicily. The adjective *leisen* is rather to be construed as an adverb, *leise*, and the line is to be read: "The snow of the distant mountains is slowly melting" (more literally, evaporating). The note upon *wenn* (v. 444) should be cancelled, the word being used in its common sense of iteration, 'whenever.' The introduction is a careful discussion of the drama, its characters, and their relations to Goethe and his Weimar life. Nothing could be more scholarly in its tone and at the same time less dryasdust. One feels throughout that the editor reads his Goethe aright. At page xviii we think that "citizen class" would be better expressed by 'burgher' or *bourgeois*, and the assertion there made concerning Goethe's female friends ignores too bluntly Frl. v. Klettenberg and the Countess Stollberg, and the La Roche family. Besides, Lili's family scarcely rated themselves as Goethe's equals; they rather looked down upon him. Some few misprints (none serious) will be corrected, we are assured, in a second edition now in press. Would it not be better to set up verses 2,742-2,829 as scene 5? Schröer and the usual Cotta editions so treat it.

—In 'Hamersly's Complete Army and Navy Register,' 1888, as well as in a former edition, Fort Osage (p. 147) is described as "On the Missouri River, at the mouth of the Osage River in Jackson County, Missouri." This description is divided against itself, for the mouth of the Osage River is not at all in Jackson County, but forms the boundary between Osage and Cole Counties, and is removed from Jackson County by full half the vast breadth of Missouri. In 1811 Brackenridge (p. 217), though in a hurry, spent thirteen days in boating up the Missouri from the mouth of the Osage to Fort Osage. The post really took its name from the fact that the lodges of the Little Osage tribe, sixty in number, were within gunshot of the fort. On the day Brackenridge left Fort Osage he came within two leagues of the mouth of the Kansas River before encamping. Fort Osage was more than twice as far up the great river as the mouth of the Osage River. Its true position ought to be understood, or we shall underrate the distance in the far West to which our War Department early pushed an advanced post.

—We mentioned not long ago the "Billets du Matin," a series of short letters attributed to M. André Theuriet, one of which appears daily in the *Temps*. In a recent number M. Theuriet gives a curious and pretty Beauceron counting-out rhyme, which he says he remembers from his childhood:

"Lune, lune,
Coquelune,
Prête-moi tes souliers gris
Pour aller en Paradis.
Paradis il est si beau!
On y voit des p'tits jeannots.
"P'tit jeannot,
P'tit' jeannette,
C'est le temps de la violette,
Le Seigneur passant par là,
Il lui dit: Quoi qu'tu fais là?
Je garde mes p'tits moutons.
"Clin, clin!
C'est fait,
Va t'cacher dans ton p'tit coin!
Hirondelle,
Passez par la ruelle;
P'tit' souris,
Passez par ici."

Mr. Wm. Wells Newell, in his admirable 'Games and Songs of American Children,' quotes what seems to be a variant of this:

"Petite fille de Paris,
Prête-moi tes souliers gris,
Pour aller en Paradis.
Nous irons un à un,
Dans le chemin des Saints;
Deux à deux,
Sur le chemin des cieux."

—The recent execution in Paris of a soldier named Géomay, a miserable wretch who, for a few francs, murdered a woman who had been kind to him from his childhood, has opened again a question that was much discussed at the time of the execution of Prado, last December. Géomay, like Prado, had obtained a promise from the Abbé Faure, the much respected almoner of La Roquette, that his body should not be handed over to the surgeons for dissection. The Faculty of Medicine had a delegate, Dr. Poirier, in waiting at the cemetery, who claimed the body, but it was refused him by the Commissary of Police. Dr. Poirier did not insist upon his demand, out of regard, he says, for the Abbé Faure, who had given his word to Géomay, but he maintains earnestly that he has by precedent and in law a right to what he claimed, and that the Faculty of Medicine must assert this right in future, or else lose its best chance of solving some very important problems in pathology. The day after the execution of Prado Dr. Brouardel, the dean of the Faculty, expressed nearly the same opinion in an interview published in one of the daily newspapers, though he did not, as we remember, assert any prescription of law for what has hitherto been the general practice. Both doctors agree in regretting that considerations which are respectable but purely sentimental should stand in the way of what may possibly be most important scientific discoveries.

—It might, perhaps, appear to an inhabitant of Saturn that a body of men who had roused a fellow-mortal from sleep in the early morning, and had told him that in a few minutes they would kill him in recompense for his sins, and then had thrown him violently down upon a plank and cut his throat, and then had tumbled him, head and trunk, into a basket, and so sent him off at a smart trot to the cemetery, and, after this, had refused, out of a humane regard for his last wishes, to permit men of science to examine his body in the interests of the race—it might seem, we say, to a Saturnian that this last scruple was not well-timed. For why take the first step towards a dissection, and the only one that costs, by severing, not without some rudeness, the cervical vertebræ of a "subject," and then pause? And as to the subject's last wishes, doubtless one of them was that his body should not be dissected; but there was another and far stronger last wish of his that was completely disregarded—to wit, that he should not be killed. When one considers the comparative fervency of these two desires, not much can be said about the neglect of a dying wish. So a Saturnian might reason, for we could not expect an inhabitant of that dull planet to enter into the subtler thought and the more refined and delicate emotions of men.

HAYTI.

Hayti; or, The Black Republic. Second edition. Scribner & Welford.

When Sir Spenser St. John says that he has dwelt above forty years among colored people of various races, and is sensible of no prejudice of color, he reminds us of Nelson's protestation: "Thank God," said England's naval hero, "I have no prejudices, but I hate the French!" So with Sir Spenser St. John: he has no prejudice against black and colored people, but he hates the Haytians. When British Minister to Hayti, he appears to have manifested sympathy for a party in some of the numerous civil disturbances which occurred there from time to time. As a consequence, things were made somewhat hot for him when the chances of war turned against his party. In his own words (p. 113): "During the next three years I held a most difficult position. Having, by the action of our navy, expelled Salnave and his partisans from Cape Haïtien in 1865, they, on their return in 1867, treated me as their deadliest enemy." Smarting under the treatment he then received, Sir Spenser St. John did not wait for his enemy to write a book. He determined to write a book to show up his enemy. Let his readers compare the date of the genesis of the book as given by the author on page xvii of his introduction, with the date in the footnote above quoted, and they may find some explanation of the undoubted animus displayed in the book. Has anything appeared in any book or newspaper that is in disparagement of Hayti, the author inserts it in support of his prejudices. He even goes so far as to quote the dicta of those who have never been in Hayti. Thus, the exclamation of Napoleon III., "Haïti, Haïti, pays de barbares," does duty on the title-page, and reappears on page 187.

Perhaps the most ridiculous length to which the author has gone is to be found in his setting up of Mr. Froude as an authority upon Hayti. That distinguished novelist is, says the author, "a man of experience and observation, and not likely to allow a preconceived opinion to influence his judgment." Then follows the result of Mr. Froude's "inquiries as published in 1888," as to child-sacrifice and cannibalism being institutions of modern Hayti. The finding of that Quixotic littérateur is, *There is no room to doubt it.* On page 255 of 'The Black Republic,' Sir Spenser tells us: "Although I am not inclined in any way to shelter myself behind the authority of others, yet it is pleasant

to find so eminent a man as Mr. Froude converted to one's views." Now, by Mr. Froude's own showing, he "did" Hayti by spending an hour ashore at Jacmel, and perhaps one or two hours at Port-au-Prince, and he harks back to the original authority. "I could not," he says, "expect that I, on a flying visit, could see deeper into the truth than Sir Spenser St. John has seen" ('English in the West Indies,' pp. 127, 128). Froude quotes St. John, and St. John quotes Froude, and that's how it's done, as the sleight-of-hand man says when he successfully performs the trick.

A common inaccuracy in historical reference distinguishes both writers. The very first sentence in the first chapter of 'The Black Republic' attributes to an English admiral and George III. the story of the crumpling of a sheet of paper by way of giving a presentment of the conformation of Hayti, which story is told of Columbus and Isabella with regard to Jamaica. Again, just as Mr. Froude, when on his jaunt to Jamaica, "declined to be taken over sugar mills," so, when, in 1873, a Haytian proprietor invited Sir Spenser St. John to spend a fortnight with him in the country, promising to show the enemy who was writing a book "all the superstitious practices of the negroes," did her Majesty's present Minister to Mexico throw away a golden opportunity. "I regret," he says, "I did not accept; at all events I should not have been called upon to witness a murder, and might have seen something new" (pp. 207, 208). Surely, Sir Spenser here writes himself down as fathering many statements about the superstitious practices of the Haytians of which he has had no personal observation.

Aware, as he tells us, that people are so little interested in Hayti that books fall flat "unless they amuse their readers by caricatures of the people" (p. 254), Sir Spenser St. John does not fail to treat his readers to any and every story that will tell against the Black Republic. Like most spiteful people, our author can be very amusing, and professional diners-out will find in his pages some droll and mirth-provoking anecdotes, told without any regard whatever for the feelings of others. In fact, it is clear that the ex-Minister to Hayti was far too superior a sort of person for the place where his lot was cast. His feelings were no doubt the same as those of his predecessor, Sir Charles Wyke, who had been heard to exclaim, "Confound Christopher Columbus! If he had not discovered America, I should not have been here." Both these ungrateful diplomatists seem to have overlooked the fact that, but for the discovery of Hayti, they might have lacked employment—for a while, at all events.

Sprung from a servile revolt, and cut off by the necessities of the case from the elevating influence of a civilized government in its midst, the birth of the Haytian nation was undoubtedly premature. With such a disadvantage at the outset, is it wonderful that the country should so often have been afflicted with civil war? As if, however, poor Hayti had not enough troubles of her own making, the attitude of France towards the little state has been one of bullying mastery. Sir Spenser St. John says (pp. 86, 87) that the French agents, even after the independence of the Republic had been recognized, affected to treat Hayti as a dependency until the debt exacted by France should have been paid. He adds, further on, that this heavy debt imposed on Hayti by France nearly sixty years ago has been the principal cause of the financial embarrassments of the Republic (p. 30). And yet, despite all our author's gloomy forebodings, if the financial condition of Hayti be taken as a standard to try her by, what do we find? On page 387 of 'The Black Republic' we observe the budget for 1885-1886. Its figures show current expenditure estimated at £670,743, and current revenue at £1,068,842. From the latter there is a deduction of £398,081 for "payments of instalments of differents." To those of us who had not entertained the idea that Hayti paid her debts, this large amount seems a highly creditable endeavor to wipe off old scores. Then, when we go into the detailed headings of the expenditure, we find that, of the gross sum of £670,743 required, no less than £116,356 is set down for public instruction, while £52,700 is asked for justice, and £11,275 for public worship. The other items are: foreign affairs £14,845, finance and commerce £86,804, war £182,689, interior £163,579, agriculture £42,495. Even in highly civilized countries a budget of this kind would be deemed respectable, and especially so where internal strife had for years been rife, although Sir Spenser believes the mass of the people cared little except for tranquillity (p. 113). Hayti will in time emerge from the stage in which public questions are fought out with the sword instead of, as with us, with the pen. A little country that has already produced a Boyer and a Geffrard is not without hope of giving birth to a statesman who shall in due course make his country an orderly and prosperous State.

As Sir Spenser St. John's fame is founded upon his "show-up" of Hayti, in 'The Black Republic,' let us now consider the very serious charges which he has formulated against the inhabitants with regard to human sacrifices and cannibalism. With regard to the practice of Vaudoux, pure and simple, that is to say, the superstitions of heathenism, there would be reason for surprise if this were not the case. It was from a seething mass of barbarism that the Haytian nation originally sprang, and, as our author states (p. 149), "there are still many negroes in Hayti who were born in Africa, being principally the remains of certain cargoes of slaves which English cruisers captured and landed among their free brethren." Then, as he tells us elsewhere, the Roman Catholic priests in many cases, up to the time of his going to serve in Hayti, were worse than useless. They led disreputable lives. In the country parts of the Republic the inhabitants are more or less heathen, with a slight veneer of Roman Catholicism. But Sir Spenser St. John tells the world that there has of late years been engrafted upon the original Vaudoux practices the horrible rite of human sacrifice. In substantiation of his statements, he gives extracts from newspapers, for the most part, and his authority for one case, which he describes with dramatic effect, was the Archbishop of Port-au-Prince, who told the story at his own dinner-table. The odd thing about the story is, that the young priest from whom the Archbishop had learned the details was seated at the same table, but, so far as the book shows, never an inquiry did the author address to him upon the subject. In support of his charge of cannibalism, Sir Spenser tells of divers mysterious cases founded upon hearsay evidence. He has, moreover, one clear case, for which eight persons were executed on the 13th of February, 1864. The hideous details of this case are fully set forth in the book (pp. 210 to 221). But all Americans are not desperadoes because there have been Chicago Anarchists; nor are Englishmen all fiends because there has been a Whitechapel murderer. The people of Hayti, as a body, are no doubt in a very low state of civilization; but, without more proof than Sir Spenser St. John has adduced, we cannot accept his charges of human sacrifices and cannibalism as of general application.

As to the very origin of the term Vaudoux he seems to be in utter ignorance, although his reading has taught him that on the African Coast the word takes the form of *Vodun*. He apparently does not know that the persecuted Vaudois or Waldenses, for whom Milton invoked God's help, and in whose behalf Cromwell spoke out, were, by their Roman Catholic oppressors, falsely accused of some of the horrible charges now imputed to the Haytians. It is from a slander upon those "who kept Thy Truth so pure of old," that the term Vaudoux was originally misapplied to heathen rites. In a Roman Catholic country such as Hayti ostensibly is, priests would, of course, use the word as a term of reproach where persons did not belong to their communion. On the other hand, those of us who have lived in Africa know how one hears of cannibals somewhere "far inland," but one does not ever meet such people one's self. You are told that in a far-off part of the country, when your neighbor hears that some one lies dying in your hut, he makes early application after this fashion: "You must trust us this time, and when next one of our family dies you shall have him to eat." The people who tell you these things wish to inspire you with dislike for those whom they thus defame. May not the religious paper in Hayti, called *La Vérité*, from which Sir Spenser so often quotes, be carried away by its very zeal?

A distinctive feature of our author's character is indulgence in innuendo. This is not confined to individuals, but is extended to the Government itself. For example (p. 231), it is suggested by him as probable that, acting in unison with the primitive Vaudoux worshippers, the Haytian Government might succeed in destroying the new seat of the Vaudoux who are charged with human sacrifices. And this is how he puts it: "The Haytian Government might be able to do much, *if ever they seriously desire it*, to put an end to the shedding of human blood." The whole world has recently had evidence of the active steps taken by the Haytian Government for the repatriation of those of its citizens who, by the cessation of labor upon the Panama Canal, have been left destitute. Does this show disregard for life? But diplomatists, like their professional rivals, should have good memories. In the single case of which Sir Spenser makes so much, which came into their courts—that for which eight persons were executed on the 13th of February, 1864—the Government caused the sentence to be carried out in spite of urgent appeals for a reprieve, and this by Sir Spenser's own showing (pp. 220, 221). For the rest, there is urgent need for reform in the Police and Prison Departments of the Haytian public service, and in other respects, and these we may hope for when the sword shall at length have triumphed on the right side, whichever that may be.

Sir Spenser St. John must not be taken seriously. He is not an inquirer, but a *gobemouche*. He mistakes gossip for evidence. He writes with a strong prejudice against the people of Hayti.

GARIBALDI'S MEMOIRS.

Autobiography of Giuseppe Garibaldi. Authorized translation by A. Werner, with a supplement by Jessie White Mario. London: Walter Smith & Innes. 1889. 3 vols. 8vo.

THROUGHOUT his eventful and romantic career, Garibaldi had years of comparative inaction,

at least as respects public life. If nothing better offered, as after the unsuccessful Italian revolution of 1848-9, he would work in a candle factory on Staten Island, or command the Columbian bark *Carmen* on a voyage to China, and back around Cape Horn with a cargo of copper to Boston; or, with the good American bark *Commonwealth*, carry a cargo of flour from Baltimore to London, and thence with English goods proceed to Mediterranean ports.

During those years he wrote the first part of his Memoirs, comprising his youth, his joining the Mazzinian uprising in Piedmont, his exile to South America, his ten years' guerrilla warfare in that country, and the prominent part he took in the Italian revolution of 1848-9. This he did not publish at the time; but, after the eventful epochs of the Franco-Italian war against Austria, the Sicilian uprising against the Bourbons of Naples led by him and his one thousand red-shirted volunteers, the Prusso-Italian war against Austria, and, finally, the Franco-Prussian war, which ended in the dethronement of Napoleon III., Garibaldi, on retiring to his island home of Caprera, corrected and modified the first portion, and wrote the remainder without books or documents, or any assistance save from his own memory.

"Naturally," as Mme. Mario justly observes, "he has fallen into sundry errors of dates and facts. He has also deliberately passed over entire periods of his life, thus omitting some particulars very interesting to the English reader as well as to his own countrymen. He, moreover, withdrew certain manuscripts which he at first destined for publication, containing some graphic accounts of events and some severe strictures on prominent men which he wrote from time to time, because, from his later point of view, 'the least said, soonest mended.' . . . Again, in one of his letters to Alberto Mario, who had requested to be allowed, in his 'Life of Garibaldi,' to publish some facts which the General himself had related concerning the King, he answers: 'I wish that nothing confidential between the King and myself should be published,' and in his Memoirs he publishes nothing."

We have quoted this passage from Mme. Mario's preface to indicate the reason for her own Supplement, which constitutes the largest volume of the three. This she has done as very few could have done better; for, by her connection, through her husband, with the most eminent patriots of Italy, and as a member of Garibaldi's army ambulance throughout the campaigns of 1860-66-67, and inspectress of ambulances in the French campaign of 1870, she speaks with the authority of an eye-witness. As we gave some account of the Autobiography on its first appearance in the original Italian, and as the translation before us is accurate and faithful, we will dwell rather on Mme. Mario's Supplement, and principally on her "Historical Introduction," which precedes the work.

In this monograph Mme. Mario has condensed the historical evolution of Italy for the last thousand years in the most lucid form, pointing out the true cause of her servitude and division. She objects to the term "rebirth" of Italy, and the way in which European nations hail her as their last-born sister.

"Arisen, rearisen, are the right terms for this seeming miracle," she says. "To say reborn would imply preceding death, whereas *what was death for other nations was only sleep for Italy.* . . . To assert that Mazzini or Garibaldi or Victor Emmanuel 'created' Italy by their separate or united genius, prowess, and ambition, would presuppose her non-existence; would assign to one man or to three men the merit of an entire people of heroes and of martyrs, of thinkers and of doers—a people which had never ceased to be, but which, owing to intrinsic and extrinsic reasons, had refrained from merging their separate existences in one collective whole."

The above is the keynote to this most interesting study. The Italian people, and not one man, or three men, reawakened the new Italy. But to one alone of this trio—Mazzini—is due the credit of first *seeing* the true means of this reawakening in forgetting the old mediæval notion of a universal Roman Empire, and fusing the severed members of the Italian people into one. The Italian people, who, with the Roman Republic, had organized a grand system of government; with the Imperial power had permeated Europe with their institutions and laws; with the free communes of the Middle Ages had destroyed feudalism and created literature and art; and, leaping over the heads of religious reformers like Luther or Calvin, had alighted on the fountain-head of modern reason and science with Giordano Bruno and Galileo, nevertheless forbore to solve the problem of their own nationality by reason of the fundamental idea underlying centuries of their existence: the universal sway of the Roman Empire. This phantom supremacy, held up by the genius of Dante, was, down to the sixteenth century, the fixed ideal of every patriotic Italian.

When the Visigoths in the fifth century founded monarchy in Spain, Clovis laid the basis of it in France, and a heptarchy was instituted in England, the brave and wise Theodoric made himself master of all Italy. But he was only esteemed and obeyed as long as he stood in the character of general and viceregent of the Emperors Zeno and Anastatius. After his death, the Italians sided with the treacherous Greeks under Belisarius and Narses rather than with the monarchy of the Goths, under the idea that they were faithful to the Roman Empire. This ruling passion was still more apparent during the sway of the Longobards (568-773), "who," as Machiavelli states, "after two hundred and thirty years of Italian existence, retained nothing of foreigners but the name." But the Popes, fearing lest the Italianized Teutons should found with the Italians a free, strong, and united nation, instigated these latter against them; summoned first a new barbarian, Charles Martel, then Pepin, then Charlemagne, who finally defeated Desiderius, the last of twelve Italian-born kings, and was crowned by Leo III. Emperor of the Romans. Charlemagne paid him back by creating, for the first time, a Pope-King, by confirming all the territorial donations of Pepin, and adding many more to the patrimony of St. Peter, "and the Romans, seeing that a Roman Pope had crowned an Emperor in Rome, indulging in their dream of empire, never for a moment guessed that they had sacrificed the substance for a shadow—a Roman Italy, based on a popular constitution, for a visionary imperial sceptre which they were destined nevermore to wield."

For the next two hundred and fifty years and more there followed that confused kaleidoscope of Frank and German emperors, popes and anti-popes, kings of Italy, marquises, counts, and barons warring against each other, till the crown of Italy was adjudged to Conrad the Salic in the diet of Mayence. The Milanese and Pavians refused to accept him, but Pope John crowned him Emperor in Rome. Conrad besieged Milan, and the Milanese for the first time mounted their sacred *carroccio* to repel him, and instituted the Communal Government, the parent of the free communes of Italy, which for the next five hundred years stood out prominent in the path of liberty, culture, and art, ending with the Renaissance, and with the most glorious of those communal republics, the city of Florence. An emperor and a pope combined together, Charles V. and Clement VII., extinguished this last bulwark of liberty in 1530.

What a history is comprised in those eight hundred years! Hildebrand the monk, who, as Pope Gregory VII., with the assistance of Countess Matilda, brought the German Emperor Henry IV., in sackcloth and ashes, to his feet in the fortress of Canossa, was the first Pope who conceived the revival of the universal Roman Empire under the Christian religion. From that period Italy was divided into the two factions which assumed afterwards the names of Guelph and Ghibelline, partisans of the Pope or of the Emperor—yet with the old Roman phantom of universal empire under either of them. The free communes waged war against the feudal barons, razed their castles, forced them to live within the cities, disfranchised them so that a nobleman could neither vote nor hold public office, but they seldom demolished the Emperor's castles or refused allegiance to the Empire. Each commune, each city, quarrelled and fought for its own liberty, rights, and privileges; but when they could not settle their disputes, they called in the "natural umpire," the Emperor. When Frederick Barbarossa, profiting by their discords, descended into Italy to impose his despotic rule, the communes bound themselves together in defence of their rights and utterly defeated him at Legnano, May 29, 1176; yet in all their mutual treaties of defence and offence they employed the formula, *saving always fealty to the Empire.* They rebelled against the abuses of the Emperor, not against the rights of the Holy Roman Empire.

This fixed idea of empire was more solemnly vitalized by Dante in the fourteenth century. Dante is rightly styled the father of the Italian language, the first philosopher of the Italian people, the greatest poet of Christianity; but in politics he was an imperialist. A bitter adversary of Pope Boniface VIII., because he affected a supremacy over emperors, kings, and communes, the idea of *one* Italy never dawned on his mind, except as she was comprised in the unity of Christendom. In his famous book 'De Monarchia,' he says:

"As the Empire signifies the dominion of the Roman people over the earth, so the majesty of the Roman people is personified in the Emperor, to whatever country it may belong. The garden of the earth is Italy, not Germany, whence the Roman Emperor must extend his sceptre over all monarchies and over all peoples, thus transforming the world into a Christian republic, of which all states are members, the kingdom of France even as the smallest Italian commune."

And he worked for this shadow of empire when Henry of Luxembourg, that ghost of a Roman Emperor, descended into Italy, advising him to assert his imperial rights, "which are bounded neither by Italy, nor by Europe—which ought hardly to be limited by the waves of the ocean."

Petrarch dreamed of Italian States at peace among themselves, and encouraged Cola di Rienzo in his attempt of restoring the Roman republic—the old Roman dream, not the new Italy. When the last spark of Italian free communal life was extinguished at Florence, Italy, for the following 300 years, seemed dormant or dead. But if she appeared thus politically, she was not so intellectually. The intellectual history of Italy for those 300 years has not yet been written. We have studies, monographs, lives, written in England, France, Germany, and, since the accomplishment of Italian liberation, in Italy (for before that time no such work would have been allowed to be published);

but a philosophical and scientific history of this intellectual ferment we have not. Giordano Bruno, whose monument has just been unveiled at Rome on the same Campo de' Fiori where he was burned at the stake, and his contemporary Galileo would alone shine as the pioneers of free thought and scientific research; and, following them, what a long list of intellectual luminaries.

Coming nearer to our own day, Mme. Mario notes:

"In 1791, about the time that the guillotine was invented in France, Galvani discovered galvanism, and Volta published his memoir on the electric pile, just as the troops of the French Directory invaded Savoy and Nice. Little doubt have we that Italy would have worked out her own salvation earlier and with less of suffering had she been left to her own devices. The Americans had sealed independence with their blood at Lexington in 1775, constituted their thirteen colonies into the United States in 1776, formulated their Constitution in 1787, proclaimed the rights of man to freedom and equality; yet still the world persists in attributing the rise of modern liberty, progress, and of democratic principles to France!"

During the Napoleonic rule the same Roman imperial ideals still predominated in Italy. Was not Napoleon an Italian, and of the oldest Italian race, of Etruscan extraction? And was he not crowned Emperor of the Romans? And all Italy fell down at his feet, even after the treachery of Campo Formio, when, with a stroke of his pen, he erased from the political map of the world the thousand-years-old republic of Venice, and handed her, bound hand and foot, to Austria. When Napoleon fell, had all the Italian States confederated their forces, they might have held their own; but this idea never occurred to them, and Europe settled their destinies according to the separate interests of the allied Powers, by parcelling out Italy into ten heterogeneous puny principalities.

It was only after so many centuries of disillusion that Mazzini first evoked the idea of Italy for the Italians united in one, which for two generations had thousands of victims and martyrs; and, when the last lingering phantom of the old imperial power was dispelled by Napoleon III. arresting the victorious French and Italian armies at Villafranca, this Mazzinian idea became universal among the Italian people, was fully and boldly taken up by the "King of the Alps," and brought Italy victorious to her freedom and independence.

Space will not allow us to comment on Mme. Mario's Supplement itself, except to say that it completes Garibaldi's Autobiography; and, as it is based on original documents in her special care, or draws from official records or personal testimony, is therefore the most thorough and authoritative addition to Garibaldi's memoirs that has yet been published, and a vast mine of wealth for the future historian of Italy.

The first volume is adorned with a portrait of Garibaldi in photo-aquatint, which is the best and most natural likeness we have ever seen of him.

The Story of William and Lucy Smith. Edited by George S. Merriam. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

An American clergyman and man of letters, Mr. Merriam has written the life of an English man of letters and his wife, and he has done it excellently well. The reader will be sure to wonder why it was not done before; why some one of the many near to them as relatives or friends did not assume the task. But the delay was fortunate which found its term in Mr. Merriam's gravitation to the business for which he has proved himself eminently fit. Drawn to it by love and admiration, through acquaintance with the writings of William Smith and some correspondence with Lucy after her husband's death, he had placed in his hands a mass of varied material from which he has worked out a consistent whole. It will very likely be objected to his book that it is too long (666 pp.); that it introduces us into too close an intimacy with the joys and sorrows of the two Smiths; that he has given us too much of his own comment on the course of spiritual events which he displays. But there will very certainly be many who will agree with us that, even if these objections are valid, they still leave the book abundantly delightful and impressive.

But are they valid? Only in part. There is too much of personal detail. Mr. Merriam would have us know with what plain living the high thinking of these people went along—that a great sorrow did not prevent the wife from simple happiness in household cares; he would have us see the wholeness of her life; and these things he has accomplished, but they might have been accomplished with a less expense of the details of domesticity and intercourse with relatives and friends. As for the intimacies disclosed, Mr. Merriam has not exceeded much, if any, the limits of Lucy Smith's memoir of her husband, printed at first for an inner circle, but afterwards published with a group of his essays and with his novel 'Gravenhurst.' It may be that she offended, but we have had so many revelations of domestic infelicity that it would seem as if we were entitled now and then to a revelation of domestic happiness, of love stronger than death. As for Mr. Merriam's commentary on the course of spiritual events, it is justified by the motive with which it is made and by its intrinsic character. To a remarkable degree the tendencies of religious thought and feeling of their time were reflected in the lives of William and Lucy Smith. It has been Mr. Merriam's object to draw out the lesson of their lives, and make it helpful for those who are under stress of spiritual weather; to connect it with tendencies of thought which have become dominant since William Smith laid down his busy pen.

There have been so many Smiths that it would not be strange if the name William Smith conveyed no distinct idea to the majority of our readers. He was born in 1808 and died in 1872. His best known works are 'Thorndale' and 'Gravenhurst,' in which he threw into conversational form a discussion of philosophical and religious matters. They are hardly to be ranked as novels. The characters are personifications of different tendencies of the writer's own thought. Dropping the form of fiction altogether, he wrote a 'Discourse on the Ethics of the School of Paley,' and 'Essays on Knowing and Feeling.' Of all these writings Mr. Merriam gives a careful analysis, which will send many to the original matter. What was most remarkable in William Smith was an extremely spiritual interpretation of doctrines which are commonly supposed to lean to the unspiritual side. He anticipated many evolutionist ideas, but we find ourselves continually regretting that he never brought the full force of his thought to bear on the general scheme of evolution. A fine meditative quality was his most excellent gift. It would seem as if no one could read him, or about him, without finding in him a kind of English Amiel. Like Amiel, he published poems—two or three dramas among them, one of which Macready produced in 1842—but they had the dulness of Wordsworth without his sudden gleams of satisfying thought and glorious expression. Where Amiel published but two or three essays, William Smith published nearly or quite one hundred, for he held from 1839 until his death a connection with *Blackwood's Magazine*, and the most important books of a whole generation furnished the subjects upon which he wrote.

In his early manhood he was intimate with the younger Mill, John Sterling, Lewes and Maurice, and was not the least of them in the promise of an active public life. But "the spell of the desk" grew on him steadily, and at length he drew apart from all society for a life of meditative thought. The first product of his seclusion was 'Thorndale'; the next was a happy marriage with Lucy Caroline Cumming, who had come with her mother to spend the summer in Borrowdale, where he had taken refuge from the world. The best part of Mr. Merriam's book is from this point onward. For material he had Mrs. Smith's Memoir of her husband, her manuscript account of the love-making and engagement, his journals and her letters to many friends, with their testimonies to her worth. He was about fifty, she nearly forty when they met. If she was not intellectually his equal, she was a woman of no mean abilities or acquirements. She was a successful author, and a diligent translator of French and German books. Her translations of Freytag's 'Debit and Credit' and Grillparzer's 'Sappho' are well known. The marriage was delayed two years by reason of pecuniary straits. The quality of the man is indicated by his refusal to do a piece of translation which would have made the marriage possible, because there seemed to be a certain dishonesty in translating, and so making more accessible, writings which were discordant with his own ideas.

For eleven years William and Lucy Smith lived together in a union of singularly perfect happiness, their love enduring in the higher love of all great realities and fair ideals. Before he knew her he had written:

> "Our best beliefs from best affections spring,
> And solitude is ignorance."

And this prophecy he now made good. In 'Gravenhurst,' which he wrote after meeting her, the tone is distinctly more genial and hopeful than in 'Thorndale.' But the spell of the desk was not broken. Her society was all he asked, and what larger intercourse there was came from her gentle violence with him, responding to the claims of many friends.

It is with his death in 1872 that we enter on the most impressive phase of her experience. She survived him ten years, living in constant spiritual communion with him. There was no narrowing of her life, but rather much broadening. She drew to her many noble friends. She was a diligent reader of the best books, especially of those which bore upon the subjects which had engrossed her husband's interest, and upon the problems of theism and a future life. She entered more deeply into her husband's mind when he was gone than she had done when he was living. She attained to firmer confidence than his in immortality. She had never reacted from evangelicism so violently as her husband, and was helped until the last by the faith of those whose reasons for their faith she was obliged to put away. At the same time she was singularly brave in her encounter with such thought as was most hostile to the hopes and longings of her heart. She was incapable of wilful self-deceit. On the one hand, we find her in correspondence with President Porter of Yale College, and on the other with George Eliot. We have had no side glimpses of the latter more delightful and

assuring than those which are afforded here. Her sympathy with a faith and hope to which she could not personally hold was very beautiful.

We cannot imagine any better book than this for those who have suffered grievous loss, especially if for them the dogmatic tenure is no longer possible. Even the most dogmatic may be led to wonder if their dead certainty is any better than a living hope. Those who cannot permit themselves so much as this will find themselves encouraged by the spectacle of a real spiritual communion of soul with soul. A photograph of a bust of William Smith answers completely to the mental image of modesty and delicacy and refinement which the book in general conveys. It is a pity that we have not the wife's picture also. Her late marriage was from no lack of beauty. We are told that she was very beautiful from youth to age, and that she had many noble lovers. The homeliest face informed with such a soul as hers must have been beautiful at last.

"*War with Crime*": Being a selection of reprinted papers on crime, reformatories, etc., by the late T. Barwick Ll. Baker, Esq. Edited by Herbert Philips and Edmund Verney. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

THE editors of these papers are justified in their selection of a title by the fact that Mr. Baker himself employed it as a heading for one of his essays, but we could wish that they had chosen differently. There is a suggestion of sentimentalism in it that is unfortunate; for, while Mr. Baker was the soul of kindliness, his feelings did not escape from the control of his reason, and his methods were rigidly scientific. He had a prolonged and thorough acquaintance with criminals, and he had learned by experience to judge of the motives by which they are influenced. Hence he was always ready to defend his theories by referring to facts that had come within his own observation, and, indeed, his theories were for the most part derived from his own experience. We would not be understood as claiming for these papers any perfection of form, but they are capital examples of that common sense which is after all the sublimation of reasoning, and which has given their wonderful success to the political institutions of the English people. We cannot do better than quote, as showing Mr. Baker's grasp of the subjects with which he dealt, and as illustrating the manner in which such subjects ought to be dealt with, some passages from one of his papers on Adult Reformatories:

"I imagine that it will be generally allowed that the time for simple retributive justice—that is, for considering that a man is to expiate his offence by suffering a proportionate amount of punishment—is past, with the days of mammoths. I think it will be allowed that our object now is not to spite a man for what he has done, but to prevent him and others from doing the like again. This includes the two principles—deterrence or prevention, and reformation.

"I place first the deterrence or prevention, because I consider it as applying to by far the largest number, and therefore to be of more importance. Reformation appeals to thousands who have been detected in crime; prevention to the millions who have not. I am no opponent of the deterrent system. I believe that if it be shown that a punishment inflicted on a criminal will, by its severity, prevent others from crime, we are justified to any degree in which the present evil of the severity is balanced by the benefit of prevention.

"But we must remember that punishing a man by no means implies doing him or wishing him harm; and a punishment may be highly deterrent, and yet in the end beneficial. Our object should be then the greatest possible deterrence with the least ultimate harm to the offender; or, if we can manage it, even the greatest good we can give to the offender without the loss of the deterrence."

These sentences contain the philosophical basis of modern penology. They seem axiomatic, but those who are acquainted with the history of legislation affecting criminals know with what difficulty public sentiment has been educated to their reception, and to what constant attacks they are even yet exposed at the hands of benevolent as well as malevolent persons. Did our space permit, we should be glad to quote Mr. Baker's own statement of the measures by which these principles are most effectively reduced to practice. The system which he advocated for many years, with line upon line and precept upon precept, and which has been to a considerable extent adopted in Great Britain, is in its main features as follows: In general, a first offence should be punished by a very short sentence, perhaps not more than ten days' imprisonment, but the prisoner's fare should be only bread and water. Experience shows that under this treatment more than four-fifths of the offenders are not again convicted. For a second offence the punishment should be materially increased, six or twelve months, or the reformatory, with police supervision after release. For a third offence there should be penal servitude for six or seven years, and for a fourth, in most cases, penal servitude for life. In this way the class of old and hardened offenders, the dread of the honest and the corrupters of the weak, is broken up. Gangs of skilful thieves cannot maintain themselves as they do when sentences are not regulated by the previous history of the convict.

Upon the subject of police supervision of discharged criminals Mr. Baker's observations are conclusive. It has been urged, and the theory has been adopted in practice, that when a man has been discharged on a "ticket of leave," the police ought not to look after him. From a sentiment of pity it has been urged that these men ought not to be hindered in their attempts to earn honest livings by having their antecedents disclosed. That is to say, if the police see that a skilled burglar has, on his discharge from prison, obtained, very likely by a false character, a situation as butler, they ought to allow the employer to remain in ignorance of the history of the custodian of his plate, rather than disclose what might cause a poor man to lose his situation. The fraudulent character of this philanthropy is clearly exposed by Mr. Baker, and he clinches his argument by facts which show that there is no practical difficulty in obtaining work for men known to be discharged convicts. Of the many other advantages of a system of supervision we can make no mention.

During the most of his life Mr. Baker was the manager of a reformatory which he established on his own estate. We learn little of this from his own papers, but it is known to have been steadily successful. In 1856 these reformatories came generally into use in England, and the practice was adopted of sending to them nearly every boy who was convicted for any but a first offence. In that year about 14,000 girls and boys were committed to prison, but in four years the number was reduced to 8,000, and in 1882 it seems to have been only 5,700. In fact, these papers show clearly how effective rational principles of treatment have been in England in reducing all grades of crime. Incidentally they show how much good work has been accomplished in a quiet way by a class of men much abused in these democratic days, the justices of the quarter sessions. Many of these gentlemen have devoted themselves to the management of reformatories with as much zeal and at as much expense as wealthy Americans display over their stock-farms. The former have improved the breed of men, the latter the breed of horses. Some of Mr. Baker's illustrations show, also, how ignorant is much of the newspaper criticism of the sentences imposed by these gentlemen.

There is a great deal of repetition in these papers, but it is not tedious repetition. We incline to think that those who are unfamiliar with these subjects will find the reiteration of the principles involved an advantage, and we heartily commend the book to all who feel that they have some individual responsibility in the matter of the general duty which it is admitted society owes to its feebler members. While this collection of papers is not properly a memoir of Mr. Baker, it yet gives some idea of the noble life which he led, and is a much more impressive monument than most biographies. It well deserves an index; the table of contents, although classified, is inadequate.

Historic and Picturesque Savannah. By Adelaide Wilson, illustrated by Georgia Weymouth. Boston Photogravure Co. 1889. 4to, pp. 258.

THE open squares of Savannah, interspersed at regular and frequent intervals, originally designed as places of refuge for the outlying population in frontier war, have become beautiful parks and breathing-places, which, with the abundant foliage of the streets themselves, quite justify the title of Forest City sometimes given to the subject of the work before us. But it is less the topography of the wooded, sandy bluff, with the yellow river in front, the swamps in rear, and the not distant sounds and bays of ocean, that make it interesting, than its inheritance of character and its relics of those who gave it character. As Georgia was the youngest colony, so Savannah has a pre-Revolutionary history of barely forty years; but Oglethorpe and Whitefield lived for it, and Pulaski and Jasper died for it, all leaving their impress. Oglethorpe, soldier and philanthropist, established the colony (and for a long time the colony centred on the town), partly as a haven for those under civil oppression and partly as a bulwark against the Spaniards. Both ends were successfully attained, and the Savannah of to-day in its inhabitants and its institutions displays its early strain. The people are martial, given to hospitality, and abounding with benevolent institutions.

The makers of this book have collected curious and interesting material, much of which will probably surprise all but well-informed local antiquarians, although in the nature of the case there is a great deal of no value other than that which age imparts to any incident. General readers will take the most interest in Bethesda, the orphan home established by Whitefield in 1740, and nourished by the well-known Countess of Huntingdon; in the effort to make Georgia literally to flow with oil and wine, and especially to force it into a silk-growing community; in Oglethorpe's generous diplomacy with the aborigines and skilful strategy against the Spaniards; in the influence of three wars; and in the singular incidents by which the graves of Gen. Greene, who died near the town, and of Count Pulaski and Sergeant Jasper, who fell before it, remain undetermined, although in Pulaski's case, it is true, the probabilities point to his body having been secured.

No book prepared especially for the popular taste can be expected to be minutely accurate, either as to things said or left unsaid, but there

are in this certain odd omissions. For instance, we can find no mention of the ornate Confederate monument south of Forsyth Park. The peculiar organization and management of the police force, modelled upon that of regular troops, does not appear; the very excellent colored military companies are ignored, although much space is given to their white comrades. In that archaic period "before the war," smoking was forbidden in the streets of Savannah. A similar ordinance in Boston formerly led to much derision from the presumed Puritanical instincts it was supposed to indicate, but Savannah was never thus held up to scorn. Whether in consequence of that compulsory education or not, it was long a mark of the resident, as distinguished from the transient citizens, for men of whatever degree to remove their cigars, any lady approaching. So gracious a custom deserved commemoration. There were no public schools in Savannah until 1866. "During slavery" a free colored woman, by energy, frugality, and toil, had amassed a little fortune. It was unlawful to educate those of her own color, and she left her earnings to establish a free school for poor white children—the first within the city. Such pathetic bounty reflects glory on all her kind. Now, excellent public schools for both races flourish. Within a very few weeks a disastrous fire has swept the town, and the Independent Presbyterian Church, on Bull Street, figured and described in these pages, for seventy years an architectural ornament of distinction and a treasury of tender association, went down before it. So suddenly does what is become what has been.

The only error of fact that we have noted is a curious one of derivation, affecting the base-word itself. Savannah traces a distinct etymological ancestry through the Spanish *sabana* and the Latin *sabanum* to the Greek σάβανον, and therefore we can hardly join in the enthusiasm with which the author (p. 4) "rejoices that Savannah River and Savannah town are left to tell their tale of Indian origin down the long line of centuries to come." This is like the grave explanation offered last summer on an Atlantic steamer by a clergyman imported from the mother country, that Pulaski (Tenn.), which came up in conversation, was named for an old Indian chief who used to live there! The index appears copious, but is exasperatingly disappointing. A book of this kind, whose whole value depends upon its accumulation of details, should have a carefully prepared and carefully arranged index, and the one is not always the other. This is neither. The table of contents is better.

Essays, Chiefly Literary and Ethical. By Aubrey de Vere, LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THIS supplementary volume of Aubrey de Vere's Essays is less striking than those "chiefly in poetry" which we recently noticed, partly because the topics are less important in the literary criticisms, and partly because the tone is controversial in the political and religious division. Archbishop Trench's poems are carefully considered, and a justly favorable decision is reached, though without due acknowledgment of the secondary and imitative quality of his secular verse; Coventry Patmore and Sir Samuel Ferguson's Irish epics are the only other reviews, and the literary pieces include besides these only a lecture upon the Social Aspect of Literature, principally directed to those who might regard literature as an encroachment upon religion or a rival to it, and some remarks upon Wordsworth which we have elsewhere referred to in connection with the Wordsworth Society. The larger part of the volume is occupied with discussions of Irish policy and church disestablishment, and with argumentative rather than suggestive papers upon science and religion, and the inadequacy of the Bible, as interpreted by private judgment, to afford a rule of faith that can equal in authority and validity that derived from the church. Mr. de Vere writes upon these topics with earnestness and fervor, with an interest in them perhaps deeper than his interest in literature; but he appeals to a narrower audience, and the points in dispute are such that agreement upon them is not to be expected. The author's temper, it is needless to say, is admirable.

The Petrine Claims: A Critical Inquiry. By Richard Frederick Littledale, L.L.D., D.C.L., etc., etc. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1889.

DR. LITTLEDALE is a man of very considerable learning, of much wit, and of a versatility that is little short of wonderful. He has written abundantly during the last thirty years in a range that extends from the editing of Greek Office Books to the reviewing of new novels in the *Academy*. He is in every way comparable, except perhaps as poet, with his friend the late Dr. John Mason Neale, and yet somehow—one does not know exactly why—he has never had Dr. Neale's *auctoritas* as a writer, nor his *gravitas*. Perhaps the reason is that he has been so often a controversialist and an advocate. His present volume shows both his strength and his weakness. It is an extremely clever argument to show that, under the rules of the Canon Law to which Roman Catholic controversialists appeal, the Papacy has no case at all; that there never has been a devolution of the Petrine Privilege in the See of Rome; and that, if there had been, it would have been long ago entirely annulled and voided by demonstrable and incurable flaws, so that no valid Pope has sat for more than four centuries, and none can now be created.

This is certainly sweeping enough, and is in a way amusing, just as Prof. Huxley's little scuffle with Mr. Lilly, or Mr. Mivart, about the teaching of Suarez was. But it will convert nobody—not even the youngest cardinal. For, whatever men may say, nobody really cares twopence now about the Canon Law. The appeal lies rather to what Cardinal Newman has called "the logic of visible facts." Dr. Littledale's book is, nevertheless, dedicated by permission to Bishop Stubbs of Oxford.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sir E. In My Lady's Praise: Poems Old and New, written to the honor of Fanny Lady Arnold. London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros.
Daudet, A. Les Femmes d'Artistes. Paris: A. Lemerre; New York: Westermann. $1.25.
Dickinson, C. M. The Children, and Other Verses. Cassell & Co. $1.
Grove, Sir G. Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Appendix. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Hale, Rev. E. E. Sunday-School Stories on the Golden Texts of the International Lessons of 1889. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Sauveur, L. Les Chansons de Béranger. F. W. Christern.
Steele, Rev. G. M. Outlines of Bible Study: A Four-Years Course for Schools and Colleges. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
The Two Great Retreats of History. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Valera, J. Cartas Americanas. Primera serie. Madrid: Fuentas & Capdeville; New York: Brentano.
Vignoles, O. J. Life of Charles Blacker Vignoles: A Reminiscence of Railway History. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Walford, L. B. A Sage of Sixteen. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Wallace, A. R. Darwinism: An Exposition of the Theory of Natural Selection. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Wallace, J. Carpet-Bag Rule in Florida. Jacksonville: Da Costa Printing and Publishing House. $1.50.
Walworth, Jeannette H. A Splendid Egotist: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Ward, W. William George Ward and the Oxford Movement. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Warman's Physical Training; or, The Care of the Body. A. G. Spalding & Bros. 25 cents.
Whitney, Prof. W. D. he Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language. In 6 vols. Vol. I. Parts I-IV. The Century Co.
Wilder, M. P. The People I've Smiled With. Cassell & Co. $1.50.

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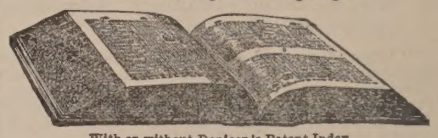

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 18, 1889.

The Week.

ONE year ago (July 1, 1888), according to figures presented in the last *Financial Chronicle*, the Government's deposits in national banks were $59,979,046. On the 1st of July, 1889, they were $47,432,377, a reduction of about $12,000,000. But the reduction of the total cash in the Treasury in the same time has been $52,808,742. That is to say, the Secretary of the Treasury could, if he had been disposed to do so, have drawn out every dollar of the money deposited with the banks, in the course of ordinary disbursements. But he has drawn out rather less from this particular part of his resources than from his Sub-Treasury funds. The public have not forgotten Mr. Blaine's terrible arraignment of Secretary Fairchild for "lending the money of the Government to the banks," in his speeches at Detroit, New Albany, and other places last year, ably seconded by President Harrison in his letter of acceptance. Mr. Blaine said at Detroit that Secretary Fairchild was liable to impeachment, or that if any Republican Secretary of the Treasury had thus loaned the public money to the banks, and the Democrats had been in power, they would have impeached him. Mr. Fairchild made a reply a few days later in which, after showing that it was necessary to keep the money in business channels in order to prevent a financial crisis, and that the law expressly authorized him to make such deposits in the banks, he said that if he had known that he was liable to impeachment in case Mr. Blaine were imperfectly acquainted with the law, he would never have accepted the office of Secretary of the Treasury. The campaign of misrepresentation went on to the end of the chapter. Mr. Harrison's share in it was attributable to ignorance only. "The surplus now in the Treasury," he said, "should be used in the purchase of bonds. The law authorizes this use of it, and, if it is not now needed for current or deficiency appropriations, the people, and not the banks in which it has been deposited, should have the advantage of its use by stopping interest on the public debt." Mr. Harrison and Mr. Blaine have been in office since the 4th of March. The surplus then in the Treasury is still there, except $12,000,000. They have had ample time and ample facilities to remove it. The money market has been easy. Why have they not done what they said ought to have been done? And do they think that Secretary Windom ought to be impeached as soon as Congress assembles?

The *Financial Chronicle* has an article on "Foreign Exchange and Recent Gold Shipments," in which the causes leading to the recent movement of gold to Europe are carefully examined, and shown to be such as could hardly be counteracted by any step on the part of the Government; and that any arbitrary action of the Treasury, such as charging a premium for gold, would correspondingly depress the prices of exportable merchandise, including silver, because, if we are in debt to foreigners, we must pay them with something. If we refuse to pay the balance in gold, we must send them something else, and that must be something they are willing to take, and at the prices they are willing to pay. The fact that gold is called for is proof positive that they are not willing to pay our present prices for goods. It follows that if we do not repudiate our debts, we must, at certain times, export gold or lower the price of our goods. Therefore, any artificial means of preventing the outflow of gold would be robbing Peter without paying Paul. One interest would suffer, namely, all holders and producers of goods which depend in whole or in part upon foreign markets. Would any other interest be the gainer? Certainly not. It is not anybody's interest that we should retain gold if some other country offers a higher price for it than we ourselves estimate it to be worth, and it is only on such conditions that it can be exported.

If an attempt to check the exportation of gold by governmental action should be made, we may probably count on the silver-men to oppose it vigorously, since it would be a manifest discrimination against the white metal, and an aristocratic proceeding altogether. It would be an acknowledgment that gold was better than silver, for, if it were not better, why should we adopt special means to retain it? Why should we take measures to keep one metal and not the other? Can we imagine a more deliberate insult to silver? In the whole category of wrongs and oppressions put upon silver by modern governments, nothing more wantonly abusive and degrading can be conceived than a public proclamation that gold is more precious than silver, and that its exportation ought to be prevented by law. Such a proclamation would be doubly humiliating when made by the United States, and would go far to encourage the enemies of silver in other countries to continue their dastardly assaults on that metal. We look to Senator Stewart especially to resent any such indignity to silver, and we have no doubt that he will be warmly seconded by Mr. Beck and Mr. Bland. Meanwhile the cause of the exportation of gold is made clear by the *Chronicle*, viz., an adverse balance of trade of $33,000,000 for the past six months, plus the spendings of 100,000 Americans now sojourning in Europe, plus the freight money on our foreign trade. It is estimated, by a banker consulted by the *Chronicle*, that the average expenses of these travelling Americans are at least $1,000 each. This is certainly low enough.

The sudden and disastrous fall in Lead-Trust certificates on the Stock Exchange on Friday was due to the discovery that the amount of certificates outstanding was very much larger than "the Street" had any idea of. This is one of the dangers attending speculation in these hybrid securities that were pointed out by the newspapers in the beginning, and, of course, every banker and broker understood it. But the so-called "investing public," meaning thereby a lot of people all over the country who think they can dash into Wall Street, pocket some money, and then dash out again, never understood this fact, or paid no attention to it. The risk is just as great now as it was before the discovery about the Lead Trust was made, and it attaches to all the Trusts alike; for although they are required by the rules of the Stock Exchange to register with some bank or some properly incorporated trust company the number of shares "listed"—that is, the number that shall be "good delivery" on the Exchange—they may issue as many more as they see fit for private delivery, and they may issue them on such terms as they choose. Regularly incorporated companies cannot do this. They can only issue such number of shares as the law allows; and when they do issue such shares, they must report the fact to some public officer, while overissues are punishable by imprisonment. Even with these safeguards, the speculating public "get caught" sometimes by not acquainting themselves with the laws and the records that are open to them. But in the case of the Trusts they are quite helpless, since neither laws nor records afford any protection. If people choose to gamble where all the chances are in favor of the dealer, and take the risk of his being a rogue, there is not at present any law against such folly.

The strike, or lock-out, at the Homestead works of Carnegie, Phipps & Co. has been settled by what is called a compromise. If the terms are correctly reported, viz., a reduction of 20 per cent. in the wages of skilled labor, it is a complete victory of the firm and an unqualified defeat of the Amalgamated Association, since a 20 per cent. reduction in this class of labor is exactly what the firm insisted on in the beginning. The point in controversy, as we gather from the iron-trade journals, was not that Carnegie, Phipps & Co. could not pay the Association's scale of wages and still make a living profit, but that the workmen were making too much money, considering the rates of wages paid in other places and trades. If this is the real key to the controversy, it proves conclusively that the tariff is not maintained for the workingman particularly, as we have been so often told, since in a crucial test the workingman has to give way. The Amalgamated Association has worked up to the theory that what the tariff gives is intended for them, and has pursued it so steadily that wages in some departments of the structural iron trade have been forced up to eight or ten dollars per day. Now Messrs. Carnegie, Phipps & Co. say, not that they

cannot afford to pay so much, but that it is not a fair deal. They establish a 20 per cent. reduction, lock out their hands, and beat them inside of forty-eight hours. There is nothing in the nature of things to prevent them from knocking off 20 per cent. more after the present "compromise" comes to an end.

Ex-Mayor Hewitt made some incisive and happy remarks on iron and the iron trade at a meeting of the British Iron Trade Association on the 7th of May, which are printed in the pamphlet proceedings of that body. What he said about the cost of making iron in some parts of the South will be read with surprise by many, and his contemptuous allusion to the doctrine of protection will no doubt be "viewed with alarm," as coming from one of the most experienced iron-manufacturers in the United States. He said:

"In Carolina there were vast bodies of magnetites, and if not very near to the coal at present, railways were in course of construction which would bring them within sixty miles of the best coal in the world. *He had made a calculation, and believed that coal and iron could be brought together to make pig-iron for Bessemer steel at not exceeding 40s. a ton.* He knew that this might astonish his hearers, particularly in view of the fact that the American mining industry was dependent upon a duty; but they were slow to learn in the United States, and they honestly believed that they needed this protection, *and it would go on until they had fried long enough in their own fat to learn to find some other outlet in the markets of the world.* There was a vast deposit of ore, commencing in Tennessee and thickening until, in Alabama, where a great physical eruption must have taken place at one time, a mountain was covered with a 50 per cent. ore, which was as a rule in admirable condition to be put into the furnace. It was not low enough in phosphorus for the acid Bessemer, but could be used for the basic process. The coal and the ore were only five miles apart, and about five shillings would deliver at the furnace the materials for a ton of iron. Of course this was a combination which, as far as he knew, did not exist anywhere else in the world, and he supposed he might assume that the only drawback at all would be in the higher rate of wages; *but there was the vast body of negro labor quite available, and he doubted whether the per-diem wage was so much as in England.*"

Forty shillings are equal to $9.74. At the present time the price of pig in Glasgow is 43s., and in the Middlesborough District 39s., per ton.

The Home-Market Club of Boston having got rid of its Secretary, Mr. Radclyffe, who was so diligent last year in circulating the forged quotations from English newspapers, that person has unbosomed himself as to the origin and mode of circulation of said forgeries. Mr. Radclyffe was accused at one time of having originated them. In order to repel this charge he makes his present statement. He says that he happened to be in New York in July, 1888, attending a meeting of the National Republican Committee, and there he saw for the first time a "flag document." On his way homeward from the Committee rooms he saw a boy selling *Tribune* extras containing the flag document having the forged extract from the London *Times*: "The only time England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade." It struck him that this would be a very telling document, and he prepared it for circulation by the Home-Market Club and sent it out, and kept sending it out until he saw a telegram in the Boston *Post* saying that the *St. James's Gazette* of London had published an article denying the authenticity of the quotation from the London *Times*. He seems to have doubted whether there was any such paper as the *St. James's Gazette*—which does not speak well for his intelligence, seeing that he is himself an English importation. He waited till the *St. James's Gazette* arrived in Boston with the article as reported. Then, finding that there was such a paper and such an article, he stopped the circulation of the forgery.

Our own recollection is of facts of a somewhat different character, namely, that the Massachusetts Tariff-Reform League and others in Boston made strenuous protests against the circulation of this particular forgery by the Home-Market Club, without avail, and finally made a personal appeal to Mr. Joseph H. Walker of Worcester, in his religious character, that he should either stop the circulation of this forgery or withdraw from his position as one of the directors of the Home-Market Club, and that Mr. Walker replied that such request was reasonable and would be complied with so far as he was concerned, and that thereupon the circulation of this particular forged quotation by the Home-Market Club was discontinued. But it was never discontinued at New York. The only person who made any pretence of discontinuing was Mr. H. K. Thurber, who dropped the words "London *Times*" and substituted "an English paper" in place thereof.

The *Civil-Service Record* publishes a correspondence with Robert P. Porter, Superintendent of the Census, on the subject of the application of the civil-service rules to the appointments in the Census Bureau. It had been previously announced that Mr. Porter, or somebody, had persuaded President Harrison that "pass examinations" would answer the purpose of getting suitable appointments for the census work. In a letter of June 24, published by the *Record*, Mr. Porter advances the idea that the law organizing the Census Bureau interposes an obstacle to competitive examinations by providing that "all examinations for appointment and promotion shall be in the discretion and under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior." This provision of law seems to relieve the President of the responsibility and to put it on the Secretary of the Interior. Of course, it is as easy for the Secretary to say that the examinations shall be competitive as that they shall be pass examinations merely, and it is as easy for him to say that they shall be conducted under the rules of the Civil-Service Commission as under rules to be established by the Superintendent of the Census. Here is a pretty good test of the fibre of Secretary Noble. The *Times's* Washington despatches say that the decision has been reached to select the appointees on the old spoils system of pass examinations, in total disregard of the Chicago platform and of President Harrison's letter of acceptance.

We notice that the Republican press is gradually awakening to the dangers of nepotism. When the President began to appoint his family relations to office, there was a disposition on the part of Republican editors to make light of it as being of little consequence; and even when we called attention to the fact that members of his Administration were beginning to follow his example, they were inclined to the opinion that it was the usual Mugwump effort to make a good deal out of a very small matter. The more recent developments of the practice have produced a decided change of tone, and it is now a common thing to find protests against further indulgence, at least on the part of subordinates. The action of the new Commissioner of Indian Affairs in making his wife his secretary at $1,000 a year, and of the Superintendent of Indian Schools in securing for his wife as his secretary compensation at six dollars a day, appear to have been more than the Republican editors could endure in silence. But why were these cases worse than the President's appointment of a half-dozen or more of his family relations to office? Why were they worse than Secretary Blaine's selection of his son for an important subordinate position in his Department, and of his private secretary for a lucrative office abroad? Why were they worse than Commissioner Tanner's selection of his daughter for private secretary, or than Mr. Halford's conduct in rewarding a railway porter, who had been of service to his wife, with a position in the Treasury Department? All these acts have the same character. In every instance the public service is used as if it were private property.

The President is now reaping the fruits of his folly in appointing a blatherskite Grand Army politician to the responsible position of Commissioner of Pensions. Tanner's performances in the matter of rerating pensions have been so reckless that the Administration has been forced to call a halt for fear that the Government may be bankrupted. The fellow has actually had the impudence to mark up the rate of a pension as much as he chooses—say, for example, from $10 to $30 a month—and then pay the pensioner the extra $20 a month for the whole period that he has been on the rolls—25 years, perhaps, which would make $6,000 of arrears. To cap the climax, he began this sort of business in the case of Gen. Manderson, a rich man who draws a $5,000 salary as Senator from Nebraska. Of course the Government is bound in equity to treat as generously the tens of thousands of poor devils on the pension-rolls, and, long before Tanner should get around, the surplus would be exhausted and new taxes would be required. The Administration is now trying to get itself out of this box. The President deserves no sympathy, for he was warned, by people who knew all about Tanner, how preposterously unfit he was for the place, and he made him Commissioner with full knowledge of his character and record.

The Washington correspondent of the Columbus (Ohio) *Journal* states that Congressman Taylor's assault upon the Civil-Service Law "has led to a general opening up of the question which bids fair to lead to a modification of the law, at least," and that "it is not at all improbable that the next Congress may make some radical changes in the law." The correspondent says: "The real statesmen of both parties evince a disposition to rise above its petty provisions and put something practical in its place." At the same time, he admits the melancholy fact that "there is an element in both parties that is disposed to *pander* to the much over-estimated idea of public sentiment in favor of the present law, and through fear they will refuse to vote to change it." What a happy land this would be for "real statesmen" if nobody ever felt compelled to "pander" a little to the moral sense of the community!

The testimony and speeches collected by Senator Cullom's Committee at Boston have shown that the New England States are very firmly opposed to any legislation or Treasury regulations which shall have the effect to restrict the traffic of the Canadian lines entering their territory. Last year the case was somewhat different. The fishery imbroglio and the Presidential election were pending, and, accordingly, Senator Frye of Maine was in a state of high wrath on the subject of retaliation upon Canada for her various misdoings, including her refusal to allow our fish to be transshipped in bond through her territory. It appears now that the State of Maine and the city of Portland in particular are the most resolute of all in insisting that no such retaliation shall be thought of. But in this frame of mind they are not very different from Boston. Indeed, New England has apparently forgotten that there is any fishery question, or any such place as Gloucester. If her views could govern, there would be no change in the Commerce Act, and no refusal of the bonding privilege to the Canadian Pacific Railway's extension across our northeast territory. This would be a very happy ending of the dispute if we had to deal merely with the fishery question, the Irish question, and the feelings stirred up by the Presidential campaign. But there is one thing more to be considered, and that is whether we can allow the Canadian roads, not equality merely with our own roads, but an advantage over them in this, that the former are not subject to the long-and-short-haul clause of the Commerce Act, while the latter are. The Canadian roads can take through-traffic at as low rates as they choose, and recoup themselves by higher rates on their local traffic. The Portland *Press* thinks that, although this policy is open to them, they will not adopt it, because such a course would create a public sentiment in the Dominion that "would demand and compel some regulations to put an end to the practice." This is a trifle hazy, regarded as a condition for regulating the railway traffic of several millions of people. The most probable course of the Canadian railways would be to take whatever steps would bring them the most money, and then wait and see what the effect upon public sentiment would be. It is not within our experience that railways run very far ahead of public sentiment to the detriment of their own interests.

The Inter-State Association at Chicago a few days ago by unanimous vote passed the following resolution:

"Resolved, That the lines interested in the St. Paul and Minneapolis traffic be requested at once to open negotiations through the northwestern division of the Western Freight Association with their Eastern connections, with a view to make such joint tariffs and rates between all points reached by the Canadian routes and lake routes as shall meet any and all rates made by said Canadian and lake routes. That, in the opinion of this Committee, by reason of lake and Canadian competition, a dissimilarity of circumstances and conditions exists which justifies the meeting of said lake and Canadian competition, regardless of intermediate rates."

The *Railway Review* explains this resolution by saying that, under the construction of the law given by the Commission, the American railway lines have the right to meet the lake and Canadian rates without reducing their intermediate rates, and they propose to do so, believing, nevertheless, that the rates so made to St. Paul and Minneapolis are not properly adjusted, and hoping that the result of this action will be to place them eventually upon a proper relation with Chicago rates. This is certainly a reasonable construction, and if it is not the law now, it ought to be made such. Aside from this, we do not see what the Senate Committee have to do, unless they are preparing to apply the principle of "protection to American industry" to railway transportation. On grounds of an equitable division of plunder this would be fair, but to those who wish to stop plundering altogether every extension of the system is offensive and repugnant. The statement so often made, that the Canadian Pacific Road is competing unfairly with us by reason of a Government subsidy, ignores our subsidies to the Pacific railroads, which, counting bonds and lands together, are probably greater than those of the Canadian line, although ours were divided among several companies, instead of being concentrated on one.

The flurry over the temporary enforcement of the Prohibitory Law in Bangor has provoked an interesting controversy as to whether the city of Boutelle's residence or the home of Neal Dow is "the drunkenest city on the continent." The Portland *Advertiser* the other day applied the title to Bangor. The Bangor *Commercial* insists that Portland is over-modest, and is itself entitled to that preëminence, quoting in evidence the following article which appeared in the *Advertiser* on the day after the Fourth of July two years ago:

"There was more drunkenness in Portland yesterday than on any holiday for years. Notwithstanding the fact that the sheriffs and police made large seizures on Saturday night and Sunday, enough liquor was on sale yesterday to make several hundred men drunk. In some parts of the city the scenes were disgraceful. Drunken men were laid up on the sidewalks and door-steps in all directions. In Deering's Oaks many of the benches were occupied by sleeping sots. Around the Custom-house it is estimated that fifty men were seen drunk during the night and day. It was even worse about Gorham's corner and the adjacent parts of the city. The police made arrests until the station was full and could accommodate no more. Forty drunkards were locked up at one time. This morning forty-one cases were before the Court and many were discharged without being brought up."

With such revelations as to the workings of prohibition in Maine, the rest of the country will be more than ever rejoiced at the rejection of that policy by other States.

It is evidently the purpose of Dr. McDow to do all he can to make the people of Charleston regret the betrayal of justice by which he escaped the gallows for murdering Capt. Dawson. The widow of the murdered man has been obliged to request police protection for her governess against attempts on the Doctor's part to renew relations with her, and there are other reports of fresh scandals about him, all showing him to be as shameless as he is infamous. He evidently regards his acquittal, and the congratulations which he has received because of it, as a vindication of his character, and is starting out in search of fresh honors in the same field. His conduct has prompted the *News and Courier*, the paper of which Capt. Dawson was the editor, to break silence in regard to his trial, and to say, with no attempt to conceal the force of its words, that the trial was a farce, that the jury was "fixed," and that its verdict was given without regard to the character of the evidence. It says:

"We doubt that, under the circumstances, the result would have been different if in his confession Dr. McDow had admitted he shot his victim in the back as he was leaving the office. In view of the result of the trial, the defendant's attorneys might have saved the State the unutterable shame of this judicial travesty, had they moved to quash the indictment for murder upon the ground that there was no statute of South Carolina providing that the killing of F. W. Dawson was a punishable offence."

The *World's* defence of its course in regard to the recent prize-fight is one of the frankest confessions that we have seen in a long time. It says it is "doubtless true" that, by giving so much publicity to the fighters in advance of the combat, the newspapers "helped to create public interest" in it; that a "genuine newspaper does not arrogate to itself the right to dictate to the public how it shall read its news or what particular news it shall luxuriate in"; and that criticisms of such "genuine newspapers" comes from that portion of the press which "makes the inculcation of morals paramount to news." This, to parody Artemus Ward's famous definition of his principles, means: "Morals? Nary a moral! We are in the genuine newspaper business!" This being the case, why preach morality at all? Why pretend that you are opposed to prize-fights or anything else that is degrading? News being paramount to morals, and the highest aim of the genuine journalist being to sell his paper, the worse the quality of the news and the greater its quantity, the better for your business.

THE GENTLEMAN CRIMINAL IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

THE Governors' reports on pardons, which we have heretofore quoted from in relation to the treatment of negroes accused of crime in South Carolina, incidentally throw light on the attitude of society in that State towards white men who have had the regrettable misfortune to lose their tempers before the commission of crime. This element, which in its most aggravated form has occasionally, in other parts of the country, been called emotional insanity in the courts, seems in South Carolina to be tacitly recognized, even in its mildest forms, as a sufficient excuse for any crime involving personal violence. The whole matter has been most neatly put by a United States Collector of Internal Revenue in interceding with the Governor for the pardon of a white woman, by the name of Clardy, who was convicted of an assault and battery with intent to kill, in January, 1887. He writes: "The difficulty which terminated in the conviction of this unfortunate woman is the result of one of those unfortunate family and neighborhood feuds in which prejudices exceed the bounds of reason, fairness, and judgment." This reasoning had its weight with the Governor, and a pardon was granted. We are quite ready to believe that even the friends of the late Capt. Dawson will admit that the unfortunate difficulty which ended with his being shot in the back, was one in which the prejudices of Dr. McDow exceeded the bounds of reason, fairness, and judg ment

It was in March of the same year that Mr. Hayden, of Oconee County, was charged with "drawing a gun and threatening to shoot" a fellow-citizen while on a drunken spree. The gun seems to have been got away from him before any serious damage was done, and the jury, willing to express their disapproval of such a proceeding, found a verdict of guilty. To their horror, the judge imposed a sentence of one year in the penitentiary, and the foreman of the jury promptly writes to the Governor that "there was much hesitation in the jury in finding any verdict of guilty at all in this case. They regarded the matter as a mere technical breach of the peace, and would have rendered a verdict of not guilty if they had had any idea that the punishment would be more than a slight fine." The prosecutor, the county officers, a Senator, and some of the best citizens urge the pardon, which the Governor grants.

William Aiken Owens, supposing that his father was in imminent danger of bodily injury when unequal to the combat, committed an "assault and battery of a high and aggravated nature." The Governor was impressed with the reason urged by a judge, a State Senator, and many of the best citizens, that "the prisoner is of such a character that the fact of conviction and punishment is more in such a case than the extent of the punishment"—five months in jail—and granted the pardon. Such finely organized and sensitive natures are common in the South, and apparently the fear of a shock to such a nature deters many a jury from doing its plain duty on the evidence.

In still another case, of a white man convicted of manslaughter, the prosecuting attorney writes the Governor that the defendant had great though not legal provocation, and, in view of the fact that he so earnestly protested his innocence, feels constrained to recommend his pardon. The brevity of the report of the case fails to satisfy our curiosity as to what it was he protested his innocence of; but, as the twelve jurymen unite in the recommendation, he was probably innocent of something—of any legal provocation for the act, most likely.

In this state of public sentiment, we can admire the manliness of Mr. J. D. Whittle, who promptly pleaded guilty to a charge of assault and battery which was committed in a sort of cock-and-hen state of mind, after being insulted in the presence of his wife. Some of the best citizens of Barnwell County certify that, in resenting the insult, the defendant did only what any man of self-respect would have done under the circumstances, and the Governor remitted the small fine.

These reports are not without their encouraging features, and we are glad to read such a case as that of B. C. Pawley, who was fined $400 for aggravated assault and battery and carrying concealed weapons. The judge who tried the case reports that "in this case a highly respectable and Christian citizen appealed to the law to redress an aggravated assault upon him. I felt bound not only to punish the offence sufficiently, but also to discourage all others from taking private satisfaction," and he therefore imposed an additional punishment as a satisfaction to the feelings of the party assaulted. The defendant was without means, and his wife, a young lady of most estimable character and in delicate health, sold her clothing and all she possessed, but was unable to raise more than half the amount of the fine. The prosecuting attorney does not regard the punishment as excessive, although he sympathizes with the wife, and in so far as her situation affects the matter, to that extent only he joins in the petition. The assaulted party notified the judge that he was fully satisfied, and on their recommendation the fine was reduced to $200. It is to be noticed that the judge lays some slight emphasis on the fact that the party appealing to the law in this case is a Christian citizen, and there is in this reference a possible doubt suggested as to the Christianity of a people who appeal so little to the law in the settlement of private differences.

Woe, however, to the white man who commits an offence that does not come within the class of gentlemanly crimes. Samuel Dixon was sentenced in 1877 to thirty years' imprisonment for arson. He was charged with being one of a gang of white and colored men, three of whom were sentenced to prison for life, and the rest for terms of years. Nine years after, when the prison surgeon reports that the prisoner has not much longer to live, the prosecuting attorney who tried the case, and the owner of the house burned, represent that the evidence at the trial showed that Dixon was not present at the burning at all, as, although he had agreed to go, his heart failed him and he stayed at home. The solicitor thinks he has suffered long enough for his guilty knowledge, and the Governor grants the pardon.

A SOUTHERN MORAL FROM BANGOR.

THE State of Maine, for a period equal to the life-time of a generation, has had upon its statute-book a law which forbids the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquor. Five years ago, by a vote of 70,783 to 23,811, an amendment to the Constitution was adopted which embedded this prohibition in the fundamental law of the State. For more than thirty years, therefore, the existence of liquor-saloons in any town or city of Maine has been forbidden by the authority of the statutes, and for five years past by the added weight of the State Constitution itself.

Bangor is the third city in Maine, with a population of 16,856, according to the last census. It is the home of Charles A. Boutelle, a Republican member of Congress, an ardent advocate of prohibition, and the editor of the Bangor *Whig and Courier*. In view of the speeches of Boutelle in other States in praise of a prohibitory law and in censure of the nullification of law, the public would have had every reason to suppose that in Bangor, if anywhere, the law and the Constitution of the State of Maine must have been strictly observed.

During the past week, however, Boutelle has made the astounding confession, in the editorial columns of the *Whig and Courier*, that during all these years the law and the Constitution of his State have been openly violated in the city of his residence; that there has been a large number of liquor-saloons in open operation; that the city has been "under the rule of the saloons"; in short, that the law has been a complete nullity. The exposure of this astounding fact was provoked by a strike of lumbermen which broke out a fortnight ago. As is the rule under similar circumstances in States which license saloons, the authorities of Bangor notified the rum-sellers to close their saloons during the continuance of the strike. The saloons accordingly were closed for a few days, when, the exigency which provoked the order having passed, to use Boutelle's words in the *Whig and Courier*, "the rum-shops of this city resumed their devastating work in our midst," and "the drunkard-mills of the city are again running on full time, and grinding out their sickening grist of inebriates." The effort to arouse public sentiment against a reopening of the saloons thus involved the confession that they had been allowed free swing during all the years up to the time of the temporary closing. The truth of this confession does not depend upon the mere word of the editor. He has published letters from prominent clergymen confirming it. The Rev. F. C. Rogers says that "the sale of intoxicants here has been unrestrained," and the Rev. George D. Lindsay writes that "Bangor has acquired an unenviable notoriety because of

the liberty allowed to those who traffic in the degradation and ruin of their fellow-beings."

It may therefore be accepted as established beyond cavil that in one of the chief cities of Maine the Maine law has always been defied. What has been the reason? Boutelle gives it clearly in the *Whig and Courier*. It has been simply because the public sentiment of the city would not sustain the enforcement of the law of the State. It is still uncertain whether that public sentiment will sustain the enforcement of the law in the future. Boutelle appears to be hopeful that it may be aroused to a pitch which will put an end to the nullification that has already been resumed. On Thursday last he said in an editorial article that "nothing is needed but South. Federal laws and the Federal Constitution are violated in some parts of that section. How is this violation to be stopped? Boutelle has pointed out the way. Not by the howls of partisans in Maine or at Washington; they would have no more effect in Mississippi than the howls of partisans in Mississippi would have to stop the violation of the law in Bangor. Not by the passage of fresh laws; fresh amendments to the Maine law have been passed by every Legislature for a score of years without closing a single saloon in Bangor. There is but one cure for the evil—in Bangor or in the South—and Boutelle has discovered it. It is to arouse "the power of public opinion," in the locality where the law is broken—in Bangor a public opinion against liquor-saloons, in the South a public opinion against abuse of the negroes and frauds in elections. This must be the work of the people of the locality. Mr. Butterworth, Republican Congressman from Cincinnati, was right when he said the other day that "the South will have to work out its own salvation"—just as the people of Bangor will have to work out theirs. Happily, there are signs of progress. A grand jury in Nashville, largely composed of Democrats, has just indicted a number of men for election frauds which enured to the benefit of the Democratic party. Possibly the Federal laws and Constitution may be enforced in the South before the Maine laws and Constitution are enforced in Bangor.

"CONSPICUOUS INSTANCES" OF REFORM.

A FEW weeks ago the Boston *Journal* was asked by its namesake in Providence to name "one conspicuous instance" in which President Harrison had observed the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform. "Well, we have two close at hand," it replied, "in the retention of Postmaster Corse and Collector Saltonstall." The retention by a President of representatives of the opposite party in important offices was thus pronounced by a prominent Republican organ the best possible proof of his fidelity to the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform.

About the same time with this discussion between the *Journals* of Boston and Providence, the *Journal* of Lewiston, Me., edited by Congressman Dingley, published an editorial article on the subject of civil-service reform, which said, among other things: "And, by the way, one great advance which is being made under Harrison is this—under the present Administration, in the case of term-officers (as the President advises the country) present Democratic incumbents will be allowed to serve out their terms, unless the public interests obviously require removal. Under this principle Postmaster Pearson was allowed to serve out his term. On the contrary, and with very few exceptions, Republican Presidential postmasters were removed by Cleveland *before the expiration of their terms*, in order to make way for Democrats." The truth is, however, as the official records will show, that on the 25th of July, 1887, nearly two years and a half after Cleveland was inaugurated, the President had removed or suspended only 24 per cent.—one in four—of the Republican Presidential postmasters whom he found in office on the 4th of March, 1885.

We are indebted to the Washington correspondent of the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, the leading Republican newspaper of Minnesota, for a detailed statement of the "conspicuous instances" of the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform which Mr. Cleveland afforded in that State, and we commend it to the especial attention of the *Journals* of Boston and Lewiston. There are in Minnesota not quite sixty Presidential post-offices. In five of these, changes have already been made by the Harrison Administration, and they are excluded from consideration. The correspondent furnishes a list of the remaining fifty-three, which shows in each case when the present Democratic incumbent's term began, and so, of course, when his Republican predecessor's ended. A summary of the facts thus brought out is presented in the following table, showing by months of each year the times at which Mr. Cleveland made appointments to these fifty-three offices:

	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.
January	.....	2	4	3
February	.....	.....	3	1
March	.....	6	6	.....
April	.....	.....	.....	2
May	1	.....	1	1
June	1	.....	.....	1
July	3	2	.....	2
August	.....	.....	1	1
September	1	1	.....	1
October	1	3	1	.....
November	.....	1	.....	.....
December	.....	.....	3	.....
Total	7	15	19	12

It must be remembered that the "clean sweep" of the spoils system would have made these fifty-three offices vacant immediately after the 4th of March, 1885, and put them in the hands of Democratic "workers." Instead of this, no change was made until May, and but seven in all during the whole of 1885. The first of January, 1887, nearly two years after Mr. Cleveland's inauguration, found thirty-one of these fifty-three offices still filled by Republicans, and a full dozen of the number continued until their terms expired at intervals during the year 1888. It should also be noted that in one case, at Montevideo, Mr. Cleveland reappointed in September, 1886, the woman whom Mr. Arthur had made postmistress in September, 1882.

This is a very remarkable showing, and the Lewiston *Journal* will admit that, so far as the State of Minnesota is concerned, it conclusively disproves the statement that Mr. Cleveland removed Presidential postmasters "with very few exceptions" before the expiration of their terms; and the Boston *Journal* will confess that so long a

list of "conspicuous instances" establishes the fact that, so far as the State of Minnesota is concerned, Mr. Cleveland was, according to its standard, a thorough-going civil-service reformer. We regret to say that there were other States, notably Indiana and Maryland, in which the same policy was not pursued, although, despite the general removals in such States, the proportion of removals in the whole country did not reach quite 25 per cent. in the third summer of his term. "Taking it by and large," it must be admitted, we think, by such candid men as the editors of the Boston and Lewiston *Journals*, that Mr. Cleveland displayed a great deal of the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform in the matter of Presidential post-offices.

The New York *Tribune* not long ago printed a story which represented President Harrison as saying that "we [the Republicans] must do as well as Cleveland did," in the matter of allowing officials to serve out their terms. The correspondent of the *Pioneer-Press* represents that Gen. Harrison will live up to this idea in the matter of the Minnesota post-offices, the present intention being to allow these Democratic postmasters to retain their places until their terms expire, more than half of them, it will be observed, not until 1891 and 1892. Here is a striking proof of the impetus which Mr. Cleveland gave the cause of reform. In Minnesota at least he broke up the "clean-sweep" system, and neither Gen. Harrison nor any subsequent President will restore it.

ART NO LUXURY.

THE most formidable argument of those who favor the retention of the present tariff upon works of art is, that art is a luxury of the rich, and, therefore, one of the most fit subjects of taxation. The firmest protectionists find it hard to justify on the ground of protection a tax protested against by its supposed beneficiaries, but even a free-trader may be misled by the plausible question, "Shall we let in free of duty the rich man's pictures while we tax the coat and the shoes and the very tools of labor of the poor?" Such a question has a good ringing sound to it, and is admirably calculated to entrap the unthinking. It has been heard more than once in Congress and elsewhere, and is likely to be heard more than once again before the artists get rid of the tax they detest. No doubt it comes often from the mouths of demagogues who pose as the champions of the poor, but no doubt it is also often asked in all seriousness by those who have not studied the question deeply, and it is therefore worthy of serious discussion.

Is art a luxury, like wine or silks or laces? Does it minister only to the pleasure or ostentation of the rich, without benefiting the community at large? Decidedly we say no.

The first great distinction between a work of art and those luxuries with which it is falsely classed is, that it is not consumed by the man who buys it. If I buy a bottle of wine and drink it, it has pleased my palate, given me an hour of pleasant exhilaration, and it is gone. The money or the labor it cost is destroyed absolutely in procuring me that hour of pleasure. If I buy a silk dress for my wife, the pleasure lasts a little longer, and, if she is a handsome woman, spreads a little further, but the dress wears out, and there is an end of it. But if I bring into the country a beautiful picture or a noble statue, I have brought something that will last for hundreds of years after I am dead, and will contribute to the higher pleasures of generations yet unborn. So far from destroying the labor of others for my personal and temporary gratification, I have paid for the enjoyment of thousands, and in so far am a public benefactor. We all recognize the public spirit of him who erects a fountain or gives a garden to the people, and doubtless we are not called upon to admire in the same way the generosity of him who puts a picture in his parlor. Doubtless he puts it there for his own pleasure. Yet, as far as the public is concerned, the benefit is but deferred. Be he as selfish as he may, he cannot keep it shut up for ever; he will die, and the picture will live. Even in his lifetime many will see it, and a work of art truly belongs to him who enjoys it, not to him who owns it. Sooner or later it will change hands, it will be seen in public exhibitions, it will be sold; and the history of all great works of art is, that at last they become the property of the public, and are placed in museums for the pleasure of all. Luxuries are for the moment, but "a thing of beauty is a joy *for ever*."

The first quality in which a work of art differs from a luxury is its permanence; the second is its productiveness. It not only gives pleasure to thousands and for ages, but it gives much more than pleasure—it gives education. The history of art is the history of civilization. Art, in one form or another, is the great beautifier and ennobler of life, and a nation without art—without poetry or painting, architecture or sculpture or music—is a nation of barbarians, though it possess the steam-engine and electricity. But let us leave to one side the question of general culture, of the advance of civilization, of the education of our artists, and let us ask the supporters of the tariff if they know how many millions of dollars the artistic knowledge and taste of its artisans may be worth annually to France. Has it ever occurred to them that in hundreds of industries the market of the world is open not to him who makes cheapest, but to him who makes most beautifully? Has it ever occurred to them that every opportunity of artistic cultivation given him increases by so many dollars' worth the productiveness of the workman's labor? Bring everything down to the mere brutal test of money's worth, and art is productive. The question should not be, "Shall we not tax the rich man's pictures while we tax the poor man's tools?" but rather, "Whether or not we tax the poor man's tools, shall we tax his education?"

No, art is not a luxury—it is civilization and the tariff on works of art, like the tariff on books, is worthy only of a race of savages. We think ourselves the foremost nation of the world, and yet we are content to rank with Turkey in taxing what every other country in the world that has any claim to a high civilization makes as free as it is welcome. And for what is this tax imposed? Not for revenue, for we have more revenue than we know how to spend. Not for the protection of our artists, for they never asked for it and have always protested against it. It promotes no worthy interest, puts money in no honest man's pocket. A more useless, vicious, and indefensible tax never was levied. Why can we not put an end to it? Why should not all men of culture, all men of intelligence, all lovers of art and of beauty, Democrats and Republicans, protectionists and free-traders, be

his own story. He tried to show the effect on her character and moral nature of a crime with which she was in some way necessarily connected—perhaps as one of the causes—without being in any way an accomplice. But he made her endeavor to ward off the recollections and consequences of that crime by instigating the commission of another.

The great fault is in the portrait of Donatello. Hawthorne had evidently met one of those charming, frank, boyish young Italian gentlemen—amiable, always ready to serve or please, unconscious of himself, as perfectly natural as an animal, with good and right instincts, but otherwise, one might say, without a moral nature, and with little intellectual culture. Such young men are not uncommon in Italy, and perhaps were more frequent in the Rome of those days, when there was no intellectual or political life. It was a character which Hawthorne, with his New England introspective nature, could not possibly understand; nor, being himself uncommunicative even in English, could he get at all well acquainted with the man. Seeing in him, therefore, something of the antique idea of the faun was very natural, and would have been a very pretty conceit had Hawthorne not dwelt on it too much, and almost endeavored to prove it. The mistake was in endowing a Donatello of this kind with a New England conscience. The real Donatello might have murdered the man—as he was bidden to do by Miriam's eyes—but he would probably have thought no more about it; and it certainly would not have overwhelmed him with remorse, so long, at least, as his love for Miriam lasted, nor have created for him a moral nature. Not that all Italians are like Donatello, for there are many types, perhaps more plainly marked by sharp lines than among most peoples. But Italians of the conscientious, reflective character, with a rigid sense of right and duty, men of the type of Mazzini and Aurelio Saffi, are not like Donatello to begin with.

Nearly all the remaining material of the novel comes from the 'Notebooks.' All the setting of the story, all that is called local color, is to be found in the 'Notebooks' almost in the same words as are used in the novel. Some passages, as that about the dead friar in the Capuchin Church with the blood flowing from his mouth, and that about the buffalo calf which gambolled about Kenyon, being given literally in the novel, were not even reprinted in the 'Notebooks.' The greater portion of the moonlight ramble at Rome is for the same reason omitted. All the visits to studios, the evenings with artists, the art-talk and criticism—even to the statement that Gibson's Venus was tinted with tobacco-juice—were skilfully put together by Hawthorne from his notes. There, too, may be found, at least in their germ, his reflections on the advantages and influences of Catholicism. The humors of the Carnival, again, and even such an incident as the discovery of the antique Venus, may be found there. Here, also, are Hilda's tower and the Villa Montauto, which is moved further back into the Apennines and christened Monte Beni, thus giving a title to the novel. The description of the landscape is taken very literally from the actual site as noted down, but, having removed it in place, the author felt at liberty to put in it what he thought it lacked—"the gleam of water and the bright eyes of half-a-dozen little lakes looking heavenward." In the novel this reads—"A river gleamed across it, and lakes opened their blue eyes in its face, reflecting Heaven." This is more justifiable than applying the front of the Cathedral of Siena to the church at Perugia. They carried on the vintage at Monte Beni in the same way as at Montauto; and there, too, it was not so picturesque as cider-making in New England—"The great heap of golden or rosy apples under the trees, and the cider-mill worked by a circumgiratory horse, and all agush with sweet juice." And in both places the unripe wine did not taste as good as new cider. Mr. Kirkup of Florence, his spiritualism and his little girl, also were talked of at Monte Beni; and in the oratory of both houses were the same prints, the same alabaster skull, and in a glass case the same "little naked waxen boy like a cupid, holding up a heart resembling a bit of red sealing-wax."

There is no need to multiply instances. We can now understand the object of the notebooks which so puzzled Mr. Henry James, who thought that they were only for practice in keeping up a good English style. Hawthorne, even when he could see outside objects clearly, apparently could not remember accurately for long what he had seen. He remembered only the impressions which had been made on him, and frequently his entries seem like impressions of his impressions. His notebooks were part of his working material; it was to them only he could say, in Browning's words:

> "Rescue me, thou the only real!
> And scare away this mad ideal
> That came, nor motions to depart!"

Without the notebooks 'The Marble Faun' would have been—to use Hawthorne's own expression—"all cloudland." But the recital of the details of the sources does not enlighten us as to how they could be transmuted into what is, after all, a great novel. That is a puzzle which can be solved only by assuming the possession by the author of what we agree to call genius. E. S.

LAND IRRIGATION AND RECLAMATION IN EGYPT.

MALTA, April 17, 1889.

FROM the earliest times it has been known and written that the country of Egypt is the gift of the Nile. Excepting the province of Fayum, lying to the west of the river, not far above Cairo, which totally differs in character from the rest of Egypt, all the fertile soil above Cairo is contiguous to and lines the river banks, and below that point is included in the Delta. This black, productive soil overspreads the sand beneath in varying depths of from three to six metres, and has all come down suspended in Nile water from the mountain regions of Abyssinia and the great lakes of Equatorial Africa. The slope of the land from Assuan—the first cataract—to the sea is very gradual, that point being 300 feet above the sea and 450 miles distant. At Khartum the two main streams forming the Nile unite, the richer Blue Nile from Abyssinia and the clearer White Nile from the great swampy lakes nearer the centre of the continent; the former becoming a vast muddy torrent, the latter only slightly colored, but also greatly swollen, in the rainy season. Near Berber the Atbara adds its muddy waters from the Nubian mountains. From these combined sources comes that reddish, fertilizing stream, depositing ooze and slime, which, annually overflowing in depths of several inches the burnt-up plains of summer, causes those marvellous double and treble crops without more fertilizing or (as a rule) even ploughing—the seed falling into the numberless cracks of the drying mud. The Nile water holds in suspension in flood time, when it is let on the land, from one-tenth to one-sixth of one per cent. of solids; the coarser, heavier particles falling first, upon the slowing of the currents, and mainly before reaching the Delta canals.

The drainage area of the Nile is the same as that of the Mississippi; its annual discharge is six times less, its rainfall is thirty per cent. greater, and one-third of it is supposed to reach the Delta. It is, next to the Father of Waters, the longest river in the world—3,300 miles. Its tributaries are nearly dry from October to May, and mighty streams from June to September. When other streams of Europe, Asia, and America are low, the Nile is high; it rises every year with marvellous regularity as to time and fixity of volume, and flows for its last 1,600 miles without receiving a single tributary. Finally, owing to its great deposits before reaching the sea, and the littoral currents of the Mediterranean, the Delta now gains but little on the sea, and the coast has been but slightly changed during the last 3,000 years.

The cataracts begin at Assuan, and in all number six, the second being at Wady Halfa—tourists rarely getting up further, and not being allowed this season beyond the first, for fear of wandering bands of hostile dervishes. Before the loss of Khartum, the state of the river—its risings, fallings, and slightest changes—was telegraphed from that point to the authorities at Cairo, a gain of twenty-five days' time; they now have but half that time, and get information from points near Wady Halfa. It has been supposed by some to be in the power of the Mahdists to divert the Nile to some extent from its course, but Sir Samuel Baker has demonstrated this to be impossible with their present resources, quite a chain of granite hills interposing. The maximum difference of water level between summer and winter exceeds twenty feet; in floods, the level is from three to eight feet above the level of the country, dykes and banks protecting villages and fields. It is only in flood times, from July to November, that much water goes to sea; during the rest of the year temporary dams are thrown across the Rosetta and Damietta mouths.

From the river, canals lead off to all cultivable regions in a systematic manner, the larger principal ones being exceptionally deep and used for boat transport. The water may run in by sluice gates, or, as the level recedes, be pumped to them. At the head of the Delta, a short distance below Cairo, is the remarkable work, the *Barrage*, a great dam, the creation of Mehemet Ali's French engineers from its conception in 1835 to its completion in 1863 It was meant to keep up the Nile level at the head of the great canals, with consequent abundant water. It showed structural weakness at once, due to haste in making foundations, and up to 1884 had not supported more than three or four feet of water. It cost enormously, crossing both the Damietta and Rosetta branches near where the main stream divides, with a series of gates, arches, and battlemented and fortified towers, and being 3,310 feet long. The platform is 30 feet above sea level. No ordinary borings indicate the consistency of the subsoil of Egypt, and the foundations consist of great wide thicknesses of rock, cement, and concrete, overlying sand and mud, up stream and down.

In 1884 the English virtually took possession of the country, and from that moment there has been in the irrigation and public works department a body of skilled engineers and practical men, whose extraordinary achievements and beneficence even obstructing pashas an foreign opponents must now admit. Many natives are retained, and the Englishmen, some with experience gained in India, are but a

handful. The chief, Col. Moncrieff, is the Under Secretary of State for Public Works. Col. Moncrieff soon decided that the *Barrage* must do its work, and, with the aid of proper precautionary works, it has been, after long years of disuse, gradually applied to its original purpose, being not yet strengthened and repaired to its finish, but year by year supporting a higher Nile level, and having thus far in the two years of low Nile averted a water famine in the Delta. This (for Egypt) great feat having been accomplished, a grant of £1,000,000 was obtained in 1887 to finish the work properly, and to carry on urgently needed irrigation projects and repairs, in addition to the usual annual grants. The *Barrage* will be completed in 1892, and will then support a maximum level of water, with full canals for the bulk of the country. Without this work the Damietta branch would silt up not many years hence, as have the five other mouths of the Nile during the last eighteen centuries. Public rejoicings and thanks to the Khedive and Col. Moncrieff followed this increased regular water supply, sweet water now going to remote villages before subsisting on foul and brackish wells.

Prior to 1884 the directing heads were of other nationalities, mainly French, combined with native powerful pashas, but when in 1887 an exceptional flood came, the present Chief wrote in his annual report:

"When face to face with disastrous inundation, we naturally looked for records of previous floods. It would have been invaluable to have known where were found the weakest points, what means were found effective and what ineffective. But even of those two great floods within the last thirteen years ('74 and '78) not an engineering record was forthcoming any more than if they had occurred in the reign of a Pharaoh."

However, the Nile flood of that year was safely guided and tended to the sea, notwithstanding the river rose higher by one foot than it had in former disastrous flood years.

To form an idea of possible losses from an uncontrolled flood Nile, the Deltaic provinces lying between the great branches of the river, yielding annual crops estimated at £10,000,000, reckon 11,708 water wheels, 1,285 stationary and portable steam engines of 12,290 horse power, and innumerable canals with their appurtenances—to say nothing of the people, with their cattle and effects. Low Nile means enormously diminished revenues and material want among the agricultural people. Land not irrigated cannot grow crops and is not taxed. The estimated revenue averages a little less than a pound sterling per acre. The approximate value of the whole crop of the country is from £25,000,000 to £30,000,000. The cultivable area consists at present of six Delta provinces, 2,850,000 acres, and Upper Egypt, 2,250,000. Reclamation of land in the latter region is not possible, the desert being close at hand, excepting Fayum, which is really an oasis, and is a cup-shaped depression with hills, valleys, and a great lake. In Lower Egypt, reclamation is going on at the rate of 50,000 acres per year, and in the Behera province double that amount.

This work of again bringing into use vast areas of land for the benefit of an impoverished, down-trodden race once more given the opportunity of living freely by their own industry, is being accomplished by methods of simple honesty and engineering skill, under the present régime. It was evident that improvement must result if anything were done at all, and since what was undertaken has been well done, much good results. Canals must be kept in repair, as well as sluices, drains, dams, locks, syphons, and pumps of all degrees—the large Dutch wheel, the Archimedes screw, and steam centrifugal pumps up to a capacity of 220 tons per minute. Watchmen patrol the banks in high Nile, and by steam-launches the engineers rapidly go about and note the signs of strain or weakness. Banks are strengthened, and cutting currents deflected by strong bags filled with sand, by boats sunk full of stones, by stakes, by jetties, and by other devices, and the inspectors are at hand to direct the hundreds of willing natives in times of danger. In dry season, repairs and new works are carried out, long-forgotten channels are cleared and extended to long-neglected and arid regions, and, as by magic, the land ever widens its green covering. It may be said that there were skilled engineers before the present time, and honest officials in the irrigation department, yet it is plain that the fellah gets more water for his fields freely now; bribing for an undue share of it is far more uncommon than formerly, and the work is done systematically and successfully for the first time in centuries.

Nearly one-third of the Delta is still valueless for agriculture, and includes the shallow lakes and marshes of Mareotis, Burullus, and Menzaleh along the coast. Abukir has been drained by a private company, is being washed of its salt efflorescence, and will shortly add its 32,000 fertile acres, while the margins of the larger lakes are being encroached upon and annually some useful land reclaimed. The bulk of those million acres, however, remains to be restored, being now useless but for the fisheries. Adjoining the inland borders of Mareotis, near the great desert, the vine once flourished; it is again to be attempted, and the old sites have recently had a new canal led to them. One finds over the barren and long-deserted tracts mounds of broken pottery and ruins of ancient habitations, and the Abukir region, now again dry and becoming green, shows traces of streets and stone-covered ways, as well as of the old cultivation in its rectilinear lines of minute shells tracing out the banks and fields. This region was densely populated in Alexander's time and after. Canopus, the famous old Greek city, is a mass of levelled unexplored ruins, covered by heaps of pottery in a desolate, barren plain. The sea has cut off some of the edge, and exposes house foundations, walls, baths, pottery, and, by a little digging about, occasional coins. Seven large fluted columns of Syene granite are lying about near one spot, partly covered, and unfinished, as if the Greeks had taken them from some preceding Egyptian structure and were fluting them. They are said by Petrie to be the only fluted columns in Egypt. There is also a breakwater a few yards off shore composed of masses of broken sphinxes and one Egyptian god of the same material. Many wall surfaces preserve their enduring colors to this day, in red, green, and yellow. Under all this débris, fifteen feet thick, is the tenacious Nile mud at the sea level.

The rainfall in the Delta is of some importance, but practically in Lower Egypt agriculture depends on regular irrigation as known to us. In Upper Egypt, where what is known as the basin treatment of irrigation, the old natural system of the Pharaohs, prevails, the country is divided into basins of from 8,000 to 50,000 acres each, the water coming in on these tracts in August and September (in high Nile), emptying again in October, the resulting deposit of several inches being at once fertilizer and irrigator. The crop of wheat and flax is sown in November without ploughing, and reaped in March. Countless wells are dug in summer, and supply water by the primitive shadoof, and the second crop is millet, cucumbers, and melons. This is the ideal old Egyptian agriculture, and the soil is as famously fertile as it was ages ago. As Shakspere has *Antony* say to *Octavius Cæsar:*

"Thus do they, sir: They take the flow o' the Nile
By certain scales i' the pyramid; they know,
By the height, the lowness, or the mean, if dearth
Or foison follow: the higher Nilus swells,
The more it promises: as it ebbs, the seedsman
Upon the slime and ooze scatters his grain,
And shortly comes to harvest."

In Lower Egypt all this is changed, chiefly since the introduction of cotton forty years ago. Here the year has three seasons, corresponding with the Nile phases and the climate. The first is "Sefi" or summer (April to July inclusive—low Nile), when the water discharged averages 20,000 cubic feet per second; the crop being cotton, rice, sugar-cane, melons, and cucumbers. This is followed by "Nili," high Nile or flood season (August to November inclusive), when maize is grown, the staple food for the whole agricultural population; the cotton, rice, and cane-sugar are maturing and being irrigated, and fallow land is submerged. The maximum water discharge is now 380,000 cubic feet per second. The third season is "Chitawi," or winter (December to March inclusive), and the crops are wheat, barley, beans, tobacco, and clover; and the Nile discharges not over 55,000 cubic feet per second. In the order of value the Delta crops are cotton, maize, wheat, clover, beans, barley, rice, sugar-cane, and tobacco. Under this treble-crop system it is necessary to irrigate all lands, but to flood none, whereas in Upper Egypt the best crops come from the recent alluvial deposit in the basins flooded once annually; maize or durra ripens in high Nile on higher land without being inundated.

Land in Lower Egypt is yielding less than formerly, and the quality of the products is deteriorating. If the same system is to continue, cropping must be improved and fertilizing must be extensively introduced. It is not now expedient or practicable to reintroduce basin irrigation there, as it would involve at once the loss of one or two cotton crops, each of an estimated value of £5,000,000, and it is not generally believed to be any longer applicable to the Delta, owing to changed conditions. In Upper Egypt the basins lie close upon the Nile, fill and run off easily enough, getting the pick of the mud deposit; obviously the fan-shaped, flatter Delta enormously increases the difficulties. Much of this invaluable mud and slime annually goes to sea, and Napoleon once remarked that, were he master of Egypt, not an ounce of it should be wasted there. The Pharaonic system of basin irrigation in Lower Egypt lasted many centuries into the Christian era; but gradually, through neglect of dykes and drains, the sea encroached on the low coast, and, mingling with the Nile, produced salt plains and black swamp fit only for coarse grasses. Thus was lost one-third of the area of the Delta. There are here remote villages using brackish and foul water brought a long distance on women's and children's heads in jars, but sweet-water canals are being led to them, to the great improvement of health and comfort. The great lakes are only from one to four feet deep, and Menzaleh has an area of 800 square miles. The sea shut out, with evaporation and years of Nile deposit they might be reclaimed. Other projects include extensive drains, better transport to markets, and, more remotely, an immense reservoir in the depression of the Fayum province—a holding capacity requiring several years of Nile floods alone to fill. The present all-engrossing tasks before the engineers include: the finishing of the great *Barrage*, to keep up the level of water, obviat-

ing the use of pumps, and by some means diminishing silting, and consequent *corvée* or forced labor, by reason of more regular currents in the canals; the protection of the Nile dykes during flood; regulation of the water supply; and, lastly, the gradual conversion of the salt plains near the inland lakes, and the marsh districts near the coast, into good land.

Forced labor on the canals is an old Egyptian institution, and, in comparison with slavery as it existed with us prior to the civil war, was infinitely worse. Annually, for four months or longer, the natives, to the number of from one to two hundred thousand, were forced to clear the deep canals of ooze and mud, without pay, and given only the coarsest bread to eat. There was no escape, and force in the Orient is unequivocal. They were torn from their wretched homes and villages, and labored, sickened, and starved, often in distant parts of the country; sometimes dying by thousands. If for no other reason, the gradual abolition of this *corvée* and the amelioration of so much as remains—the laborers are now paid wages or may ransom themselves cheaply—the present Government of Egypt and the English control should persist yet another generation longer, when, no matter who controls, this dreadfully miserable people may have been taught to realize their emancipation and know how to resist brutal oppression if need be. It was believed that the fellaheen would not work unless forced, but it is found that they work better when paid for their labor. They toil all day in the mud for ten cents. Human nature is still the same even here.

The cost of the administration was in 1887 but $212,000, though the expenditure was something over $4,000,000. So much good for the money has never before been obtained in Egypt.

C. A. Siegfried.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of July 4, headed "The South Carolina Idea," you say:

"Due process of law in South Carolina and in the South generally would require that some near relative of Capt. Dawson should kill McDow, in which case he should be acquitted because he had a strong feeling against McDow. Then, if a near relative of McDow should kill a near relative of Dawson, he, too, would be acquitted on the same ground. There are no assignable limits to a vendetta of this kind short of the extinction of the families."

Your paper generally has authority for what it asserts. May I ask the authority for the above, so far as South Carolina is concerned? Can a single instance of the kind be given?

Very respectfully,

A South Carolinian.

Charleston, S. C., July 7, 1889.

[If our correspondent challenges us to instance a South Carolina vendetta, we freely concede our inability to do so, though we do not believe there is or has been anything in public sentiment or judicial practice regarding personal violence which makes the vendetta impossible in that State, or less likely to occur there than in other parts of the South. We say this with the more confidence because the late H. V. Redfield, in his book on 'Homicide, North and South,' makes no distinction between South Carolina and the other slave States, and gives to the former certainly one of his most dismal chapters. Thus, on p. 93 he says: "The number of family affrays between relations [in S. C.] bears about the same proportion to total deadly difficulties as in the other Southern States." On p. 91, we read:

"In a street-fight in Edgefield one afternoon in August [1878] four men were killed—three shot dead, and the fourth mortally wounded—and five slightly or severely wounded. Two of the killed, we are informed, 'were old, gray-haired men'—Benjamin and James Booth. Benjamin Booth had previously killed Luther Toney, and Broker Toney (one of the four killed) had previously killed Deputy-Marshal Gus Harris, and 'also another man two or three years before.' This affray, therefore, leads us into accounts of seven different homicides. All who survived the battle were, I think, acquitted on trial."

Mr. Redfield closes his South Carolina chapter with these reflections on the deed of a Nashville (Tenn.) desperado (p. 109):

"It is also mentioned casually that the murderer was regarded as dangerous, as he had on two previous occasions stabbed two men so severely that they were believed at the time to be mortally wounded. And yet, under the fine Southern system which rears such men by the tens of thousands, they are permitted to stab and shoot and rearm and stab and shoot again. One would think that after a man had stabbed two men nearly to death on different occasions, his operations might be somewhat abridged by the enforcement of law. In a large percentage of these Southern affrays and assassinations, it is found on investigation, as in these cases [viz., in Nashville and contemporaneously in Edgefield County, S. C.], that some of those engaged had previously been parties to deadly difficulties, and were still permitted to go at large."

In his chapter on "Personal Difficulties," Mr. Redfield makes general application of two statements which are pertinent to the McDow incident: "The theory of self-defence, in many cases, has been carried to the extent of making it a cloak for murder. I could give multiplied instances of this, but it is unnecessary." (He gives one, p. 122.) "There are very many instances in the Southern courts where men are acquitted for manslaughter when their only justification was a blow from a cane or even the fist. Indeed, in some instances this is carried to the extent of acquitting for murder when the murderer killed his enemy in revenge for an insult by words, and when he was in no bodily peril whatever."—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article on "The South Carolina Idea" will doubtless call out some response from Charleston, but you will pardon me for one or two comments.

In apology for the acquittal of Dr. McDow I have not a word to say, and in this place, which is not so far from South Carolina, I have heard not a word about it except in reprobation. While it was doubted by many whether the jury would convict of murder in the first degree, no one that I heard speak of it expected such a shocking travesty of justice as this verdict. How far it accords with the South Carolina idea, South Carolinians must say; but as a people they are not distinguished for that sort of cowardice that shoots an unarmed man in the back. The tendency to violence among us in the South, we deplore. I have preached freely on the subject, and the enclosed clipping shows how the Charleston ministers are aroused. But I want to direct your attention to two things. You make a good deal of the fact that Dr. McDow was congratulated at church by his friends, *including many ladies.* When this telegram was read in the ears of *Southern* ladies, they hooted at the idea that they could have been *ladies.* But whether the telegram was true or false, the fact is no indication of *South Carolina* opinion, since it was stated that it was a Lutheran Church, and Lutherans in the South are almost without exception foreigners. You made in your article some careful distinctions between foreigners and South Carolinians; it is strange you did not notice this.

But there is another part of your article which shows you do not apprehend the true situation in the South, viz., the lynching of negroes for rape on white women. You lay stress on the fact that there is no indignation if the crime is the other way. The truth is, that such a crime is practically unknown. A white man was lynched recently by negroes for rape on a negro girl—*it turned out that he was half-witted.* The fact is, it would be impossible, except in a few cases, to get a jury of negroes to believe that an alleged rape on a negro or mulatto girl was such in fact. The estimation of lapses from virtue among them is fairly indicated by this instance. A lady's coachman (a married negro) seduced the daughter of her cook. When the lady was about to dismiss him, the girl's mother remonstrated: "Lor', Miss ——, you ain't gwine send him 'way *jes' for dat.*" Immoral white men, alas, find it only too easy to gratify their lusts without resorting to rape. There are many self-respecting colored girls, but they are unfortunately a small minority.

But with regard to lynching for rape, it is, indeed, a desperate remedy; but what other can be used for so desperate a disease? Our wives and daughters are surrounded by a people among whom hundreds are brutal savages in their passions. When passion is aroused, and opportunity occurs, the law's delays, the chances of escape, the time for "getting religion," and the chance for glorification on the scaffold, all so modify the terrors of the death penalty that it fails to restrain them from this most brutal of crimes. If nothing but the certainty that an outraged community will rise and execute swift vengeance will check the crime, who shall say that a community must not so defend itself? It does, indeed, reveal a state of civilization but little removed from barbarism, but it is the barbarism of a race that has been forced into contact with civilization, and civilization must protect itself by methods that would not be needed if the barbarism were not there.

A Southern Pastor.

SHORT TERMS OF OFFICE DANGEROUS TO PRIVATE RIGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One sometimes hears it stated that long tenure of office by public servants, whether elected or appointed, tends to bureaucracy and threatens the rights of individual citizens. May I call your readers' attention to the fact that short terms may have this effect, familiarity with the system of frequent changes rendering both courts and legislatures careless as to these rights?

By the amended charter of Covington, Ky., all actions to recover from that city any taxes or assessments illegally or erroneously collected are barred after six months from the time the cause of action accrued. The constitutionality of the amendment containing this limitation was sustained in the City of Covington vs. Hoadley, 83 Ky., 444. Holt, J., who delivered the opinion of the court, went beyond the mere question of the legality of such a limitation, and referred to its practical utility and reasonableness in the following words:

"It is the rule in this country, rather than the exception, to provide municipalities with a limitation law different from that provided by the general law. The reason is obvious. The municipal officers and agents are changed often; and that which can easily be ascertained to-day by reason of their presence or assistance, may be difficult or impossible of ascertainment a year hence."

That the officers and agents of our municipal governments are frequently changed is unquestionably true, and it is probably as true that this has given rise to this extreme restriction of private rights against a municipality. One might naturally look, therefore, for a severe denunciation of a system so utterly perverted, so thoroughly unbusinesslike, as to make it impracticable for a municipality to recognize for a longer period than six months the legal claims of individuals against it. On the contrary, the statement is made as of a perfectly natural and unobjectionable state of facts, without a word of protest or even criticism. It might, perhaps, be suggested that the learned judge was indulging in a piece of refined satire; that he thought the picture of municipal misgovernment and tyranny, sketched in these few sentences, sufficiently impressive to call for no words of comment; but his opinion in a later case forbids this explanation. It seems that the amended charter of Louisville places the same limitation of six months upon all actions against the city for damages of every character, whether to person or to property; and in Preston vs. City of Louisville, 84 Ky., 118, which sustained the amendment, the same judge reiterates what he had already said in the Covington case, in explanation of this provision also, and with the same tacit approval as before.

It is sufficiently startling that a judge upon the bench should manifest approval of the system of short terms and frequent changes of public servants, that canker which destroys the efficiency and often the honesty of the administration of public affairs all over the country; but that he should refer to the system as a reasonable ground for such a curtailment of private rights must be simply astounding to all who believe that government exists for the protection rather than the oppression of the individual citizen. Judge Holt does, indeed, refer casually to the intrinsic reasonableness of these limitations, apart from the cause to which he ascribes them, but one cannot but think that his view in this respect is colored by his notions of the conduct of public business. The tendency of Western legislation is to shorter periods of limitation than are usual in the East, but if the time in which a claim based upon a simple contract or tort must be asserted be, as in Kentucky, five years as against an individual or a private corporation, what good reason can there be for a limitation of six months when the claim is against a city? If the Kentucky Legislature should require suits against all business men or corporations who were in the habit of frequently changing their clerks and agents to be brought within six months, would Judge Holt consider that a reasonable restriction of the rights of their creditors? Would he think it in accordance with a sound public policy? A valid claim against an individual or corporation cannot stand upon any really higher ground than one against a municipality; and yet Judge Holt would apply a wholly different rule in the two cases. Could the most extreme bureaucracy ask more of him than this? Verily, when once you discard the principle that the best public servant is, other things being equal, the one who has been longest in his place, there is no telling where you will stop.

CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, July 12, 1889.

THE OBSTACLE TO CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The obstacle to civil-service reform is not President Harrison, nor any one nor all Senators, Congressmen, or politicians. It is the indifference, in fact, the hostility, of the people. Among the refined and the men of literary tastes, nine-tenths are warm advocates of the merit system; among all other men, nine-tenths or more consider Marcy's historic words about the spoils of office as an axiom in American politics. The only hope that the friends of reform have is, to draw the mass of the people away from their error; the politicians will soon follow.

Now, the toleration, and affection even, which the mass of Americans entertain for the spoils system, rests on two cardinal mistakes of fact, or at least misconceptions. The first is this, that the spoils system means only the appointment of members of the winning party to office, and the average American argues that there are certainly twice as many people fit to fill all the offices as there are offices to fill; hence, no great harm can be done by taking all the office-holders either from one or the other of the two great parties, which are nearly equal to each other in numbers. And the first premise is undoubtedly true: there are but few offices in which the incumbent is indispensable, and not very many in which much harm could be done by merely displacing the Democrat who is in, in favor of the best-fitted among the Republican applicants, or vice versa at the next deal.

But the spoils system does not mean the appointment of the best-fitted men with the additional qualification that they must belong to the dominant party. It means a scramble, in which, among the members of the dominant party, those generally prevail who stand best with the State or district boss, or who spend most time in hunting endorsements and most money in Washington hotel bills. It means interminable intrigue and corruption, and fearful waste of brain and even muscular force to the President and all his Cabinet, at the cost of the real work on behalf of the people for which they are supposed to be elected or appointed. It means very often the elevation of disreputable or utterly incapable men to responsible offices; men who are most subservient to the boss, and most persistent in the "still hunt," because they are most fully persuaded of their inability to make a living in any open profession or in any honest business. The people should know that it is not a question between Democrats and Republicans, but between men willing and able to give good work for the moderate salary on the one side, and heelers and ward bummers on the other.

The next misconception which most men of both parties entertain about the effect of partisan appointment to office is that it helps the party, and that, self-preservation being the first law of nature, each party is justified in rewarding its friends and punishing, or at least disabling, its enemies. The experience of the last sixty years has proved this belief to be most erroneous. It is only necessary to study the election returns in a series of *Tribune Almanacs* to become convinced of the utter futility of all attempts to strengthen a party by the distribution of Federal offices, by the recognition of its leaders. The elective local offices do help the party—they call forth an ambition which can only be satisfied by local success; but Federal offices do no good whatever; on the contrary, the smaller the party is in any district, the better the offices will go round. There is an exception which proves the rule. In the Gulf States the Republican vote fell off between 1884 and 1888, when the Federal offices were in hostile hands; but in the Gulf States the Republican party was made up almost entirely of unlettered field hands, who needed the interested leadership of Federal office-holders. But even in the Gulf States there is an oasis. In New Orleans, with a small nucleus of white Republicans, foreign-born, Northerners, and Creoles, the party gained a Congressman during the rule of a Democratic President. In all the border States, in Tennessee, North Carolina, Arkansas, the Republicans have more than held their own; they have materially reduced the majority against them without the aid of State or Federal patronage. The reason for all this is very plain: for each partisan that is rewarded, from five to ten are disappointed and soured.

This also should be drummed into the ears of the people till the average voter comes instinctively to fear the gain of offices by his party as a danger, in like manner as he now looks forward to it as a piece of good luck. When the people are properly educated in these two points, the establishment of the merit system will be secured.—Respectfully, L. N. D.

THE PRESIDENT'S PLEDGE IN WEST VIRGINIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If there is any State in the Union in which the civil-service pledges of the present Administration are regarded, it is not West Virginia. In pursuance of the plan to subsidize the press, A. B. White of the *State Journal* was appointed Collector of Internal Revenue. Just before he took the oath of office his paper contained the following manifestation of the contempt with which he regards the pledges which the President has made:

"He [Mr. White] is as anxious as any Republican to get the changes made as speedily as consistent with good service, being a devoted believer in the doctrine that to the victors belong the spoils; and, at the earliest practicable date, every Democratic appointee in the office, from the humble and poorly-paid apple-jack gaugers to the well-paid store-keepers and clerks, will be succeeded by simon-pure all-wool and yard-wide Republicans."

Some one who still has faith in the good intentions of the Administration might say that the interests of the public no doubt demand this change; but Collector White himself has forestalled any such defence, for we read in the editorial columns of his paper that "Hon. John F. McGraw turns over the office of United States Collector of Internal Revenue with a clean and honorable record. He has made a worthy official" (weekly *State Journal*, July 4). In the same issue, Mr. Coulter, Sixth Auditor of the Treasury, is commended for expressing the belief that "it is about time the men who did the horn-blowing during the last campaign should have something to show for their labor."

Perhaps we shall find out after a while just what is expected of the editors who have been given retainers by Mr. Harrison. They certainly have no idea that it is any part of their duty to their distinguished client to help him in giving the country an honest administration of the civil service. TRAVELLER.

PARKERSBURG, W. VA., July 8.

EFFIGY MOUNDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of May 23, department of "Notes," occurs the following passage: "It was known long ago that effigy mounds were

found only in Wisconsin and the nearest vicinity, and that they were on that account probably erected by Dakota Indians, who inhabited that tract."

This statement is somewhat misleading in one or two respects. There are effigy mounds in Ohio also, which have been known to the archæological world nearly as long a time as those in Wisconsin, and are unmistakably of the class referred to, though they number only four, viz.: the Granville alligator, the Newark bird, the Brush Creek serpent (lately dedicated to the public), and the three-legged animal of the Scioto River, a few miles north of Portsmouth. To these may be added the *bear*, recently discovered on the Kentucky side of the Ohio, opposite Portsmouth.

I am afraid, too, that the territorial coincidence of the habitat of the Dakotas with the country of the effigy mounds is not so apparent. When first known to history, the Dakotas —as the "Sioux of the Lakes" and the "Sioux of the Prairies"—appear to have lived in and hunted over a stretch of country extending from the ridge dividing the waters of Lake Superior from those of the Saint Croix and upper Mississippi W. S. W. to and beyond the upper waters of the Minnesota River, while the region where the effigy mounds are the most numerous lies fully 300 miles to the southeastward. On the one hand, it may be said that the effigy mounds known to exist in the ancient country of the Dakotas can be counted on one's fingers, so scarce are they, while, on the other, history does not show the presence in force of the Sioux of old times in southern Wisconsin other than as invaders and enemies.

ALFRED J. HILL.

ST. PAUL, MINN., July 3, 1889.

THE FALSE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a preliminary to the true pedigree of Washington which may be expected from Mr. Waters in the course of a few weeks, I desire to expose more fully an utterly false and absurd pedigree, published in 1879 by the late Albert Welles. The English portion was a most ridiculous performance in every point of view, and it is only fair to suppose that Mr. Welles was not in a sound state of mind when he adopted and published this statement. His unnamed English correspondent claimed to have derived his alleged facts from the Common Pleas Rolls, and adds: "The pedigree I now send I can establish by legal evidence."

The object of this pedigree was to show that several generations of Washingtons had been born at Warton, County Lancaster; that a Lawrence W. was born there in 1569, whose eldest son was Leonard W., born about 1595, the father of four sons and one daughter *baptized at Warton* in 1616, 1619, 1622, 1625, and 1627. The two younger sons were said to be Lawrence, baptized 1625, and John, baptized 1627, who were termed the emigrants to Virginia.

I will not waste time in refuting the innumerable blunders of the rest of the pedigree, but deal with the essential point here raised. Col. Chester printed a letter in the New York *World* of March 29, 1879, when he had seen the prospectus of Welles's book. He said:

"I at once recognized an old acquaintance, hawked about London some years ago, the original manuscript of which is in my own possession, and now lies on my table before me, where I keep it for the amusement of my friends. . . . I will simply select the crucial point of it, where it is stated that the two emigrant brothers, Lawrence and John Washington, were sons of Leonard Washington of Warton, and that they were respectively born and baptized in 1625 and 1627. The only possible source from which these two baptisms could be obtained is the parish register of Warton. I have examined the register personally and very carefully, and can declare that no such entries are to be found in it."

At this point I desire to introduce the evidence of the Rev. T. H. Pain, M.A., Vicar of Warton, given in a letter now before me, addressed to the editor of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, dated January 25, 1889. He writes:

"I beg to say that I have not been able to find any entry of the baptism of Leonard Washington, said to have been born in Warton about 1595. As to the baptisms of his children, I send the following extracts:

"Baptismata Anno Dom. 1616.
"Robertus, filius Leonardi Washington, baptiz. octavo die Septembris.
"Baptismat. 1619.
"Jane, daughter of Leonard Washington, bapd. 4th day of September.
"Bapt. Anno Dom. 1622.
"Francis, ye sonne of Leonard Washington of Warton, baptized ye 4th day of February.

"*I have not been able to find an entry of the baptism of Lawrence, said to have been baptized at Warton in 1625, or of John, said to have been baptized here in 1627.*"

In the light of these two statements, no one can doubt that the pedigree is a rank and stupid forgery, made by the simple method of fastening upon Leonard Washington two sons of whom he had no knowledge, and without a word of proof.

I had hoped that this ridiculous and transparent fraud had died out, but I see to-day for sale in this city copies of a pamphlet entitled 'The Washingtons and Their Connection with Warton,' by Henry Whitman. The pamphlet itself is below criticism, a mere rambling collection of useless notes, but evidently prompted by an enthusiastic desire to point out the English source of our American Washingtons. But Mr. Whitman quotes and uses throughout this spurious Welles pedigree, and reprints the outline of it, beginning with Bardulf, brother to Bodin in the time of William the Conqueror. So it seems that the proverbial life of a lie is again exemplified.

It seems to me that Col. Chester's statement of the genesis of this forgery may be amusing and instructive. He wrote under date of June 16, 1879:

"If you could see the original, which strangely fell in my hands, you would see how the whole thing was concocted. It was got up some years ago by this 'James Phillippe' for John Camden Hotten, who died before publishing it, and his successors had too much good sense to carry out his intentions. It is evident that the compiler, after working out an elaborate pedigree, much of which I know to be false, looked about for a safe place where to put the two emigrant brothers. He finally decided to make them sons of Leonard Washington of Warton. Afterwards, probably thinking that he might be detected, he crossed out this affiliation. But, finding no better place for them, he finally wrote (as an instruction to the printer), 'This is correct.'

"Of course you would not find any proofs of his statements. This distinguished 'genealogist' never furnishes any. If asked for his authority in any instance, he draws himself up to his full height (6 ft. 4) and says, '*I* am the authority'; and that is all any one can ever get out of him. . . .

"The 'Common Pleas Rolls' are as well known to every historical student and genealogist as the Herald's Visitations. Like all similar records, they are more or less valuable, but they rank no higher, if so high, as the 'Chancery Proceedings.' Unfortunately, they are very difficult to search, from being entirely unindexed, and it is this fact of which 'Phillippe' takes advantage. He may almost with impunity say that his authority for a particular statement is a Common Pleas roll, for unless he also gave you, which he never does, the precise year, term of court, number of roll, and number of membrane, it would be almost impossible to test his statement. I spent weeks over these rolls of the period. To say that they are not used by other genealogists is as ridiculous as to say that other genealogists do not look at wills or parish registers or any other common source of information."

Col. Chester proceeds to point out numerous specific errors, and adds:

"I have all the Washington entries of all the Registers in all the places named in the pedigree, and can say without hesitation that they can never have been consulted by the compiler. The whole affair is a mere catchpenny concern, and I am amazed at the impudence of men who can put forth such a concoction and then claim that every statement can be substantiated by legal evidence."

I hope that this indignant exposure of the fraud, from the pen of the most competent authority, will prove sufficient. A very few weeks will bring before us the very satisfactory results obtained by Mr. Waters, who seems to have had the good fortune to strike a clue which Col. Chester lacked. In the meantime, the reperusal of this letter of my valued friend reminds me that the great collections which he made respecting all the branches or families of Washington in England are still in the hands of his executor for sale. These documents should be obtained for some library here, because we want all the information obtainable about the race from which George Washington sprang. I hope the renewal of public attention to this subject will lead some wealthy patron of literature to purchase these collections, and to place them where they can be used by genealogists.

W. H. WHITMORE.

BOSTON, July 11, 1889.

THE REPUTED IGNORANCE AND AMBITION OF AMERICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a book just published, 'Words About Wellington,' by Sir William Fraser, there occurs a noteworthy anecdote. Gen. Grant, when dining, at Apsley House, with that eminently respectable cipher, the late Duke of Wellington, is reported to have addressed his host in these words: "My Lord, I have heard it said that your father was a military man. Was that the case?" And this ridiculous tale will, no doubt, be unhesitatingly believed by thousands of Englishmen of the better sort. In fact, there is nothing to our discredit, individually or nationally, that our kinsmen over here, for the most part, are not ready to accept as indubitable fact. So it was, to my own knowledge, upwards of forty years ago; and, where it is in question to defame us, time has as yet wrought hardly any appreciable diminution of British credulity.

English youths, at the present day, are, indeed, even more convinced, if possible, than the generation before them, of our gross illiteracy. It is not long since a young man, with the air of a person certain that he was imparting novel information, was so good as to tell me, in tedious detail, who Chaucer was, when he lived, and what he wrote. Nor was he in the least abashed when, at the end of his lecture, I remarked that I had read every line of Chaucer years before he was born; whereupon he threw up his chin, shook his head, and looked a direct contradiction, just as I had anticipated that he would do.

My own experience has, probably, been that of nearly every American who has mixed much with the people of Great Britain. It is taken for granted, by them, of us all, and with a blind eye to any counter evidence, that we have but a single aim in life, or, at least, that everything is, with us, subservient to its realization. On one occasion, when tired by the persistent assumption, on the part of an Englishman, that I required to be instructed in the most elementary matters of history and literature,

I was moved to ask him whether an American was supposed to know anything. "Yes," he replied, "how to make money, the only thing he cares for." So prevalent here is this estimate of us that the very man at the corner, unless markedly exceptional, will be found prepared to endorse it.—Your obedient servant, X. Y. Z.

London, England, June 23, 1889.

Notes.

Ticknor & Co. announce a subscription reprint in one folio volume of the uncolored edition of Charles Wickes's 'Spires and Towers of Mediæval English Churches.' A certain number of these plates have adorned the *American Architect* during the past two years. The notes and criticisms of the original work will accompany the plates.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are now passing through the press 'The Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe,' by her son, the Rev. Charles E. Stowe. It will be an illustrated subscription book.

Mr. Spurgeon's new work, entitled 'The Salt Cellars,' being proverbs and quaint sayings, together with homely notes thereon, will soon be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son, by arrangement with both author and English publishers.

D. C. Heath & Co. publish directly Rice's 'Science Teaching in the Schools.'

The great Halifax Summer Carnival, which is to fill the week beginning August 5, is to be chronicled and graphically delineated in 'The Carnival *Echo*,' in which Halifax will be more fully illustrated than ever before.

Mr. Austin Dobson's translation, made in 1866, of Manuel's 'Captain Castagnette,' with illustrations by Doré, is to be reissued by subscription by Frank Murray, Derby and Nottingham, England. It will be a guinea book, of luxurious manufacture, lacking only the author's consent to the revival of a piece of hack work of his day of small things.

It appears from a letter addressed to the London *Times* by Thomas Hughes, that the omissions made in his school edition of 'Tom Brown' by Ginn & Co. were in deference to the temperance sentiment of this country, but not to Mr. Hughes's own view of the morality of his work or his readiness to have it "brought into accord with the morality of America," or to have his memoir prefixed, or to have any reprint at all. Having taken as much liberty as they did, we wish the publishers had gone further and abated the pugilism of the narrative, as we remarked last week.

There is much to commend in the 'Guide to the Study of Nineteenth Century Authors,' by Prof. Louise Manning Hodgkins (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.)—so bound, by the way, that each author treated can be separated. The classification of writings, especially of poems, is serviceable. Some freakishness is shown, as in the borrowed note that "Dr. [O. W.] Holmes bears much the same relation to Boston that Dr. Johnson did to London," and in the original notes after this fashion: "Lowell is called The Songster of Elmwood, The Author of the American Hudibras, Our Ablest Critic, Our New Theocritus." Forgivable would have been citations of verse containing these allusions—if any such exist.

The same publishers add to their outline maps one of England, on a tolerably large scale, to be filled in by the historical student.

The prolific Dr. Sauveur has brought out a new book adapted for the use of schools, in which he endeavors to make Béranger's songs more easily understood and earlier appreciated ('Chansons de Béranger,' New York: W. R. Jenkins). To this end he has taken some of the very best of them, with a leaning to those of an historical nature, and accompanied each with a preface, either historical or critical, and a glossary of obscure words, idioms, and proper names. Many of these introductions are taken from Sainte-Beuve's critiques on Béranger's own writings. The author's own attempts to amplify in his notes Béranger's beautiful terseness of imagery, as in "Les Étoiles qui filent," occasionally seem to us superfluous. Not so, however, is the pains he has taken to exclude characteristic but unfit specimens of a free muse, though the shortened and expurgated "Roi d'Yvetot," with which his selections open, still harbors an innuendo as indelicate as it is humorous.

Other French texts on our table are two from the Hachette series (Boston: Carl Schoenhof), 'Récits d'histoire de France,' selected from Michelet by M. Seignebos; and 'Les Héroïnes de Harlem,' edited from Mme. de Witt by Paul E. E. Barbier. Both these clearly printed volumes are illustrated with cuts on which not much care has been bestowed, though they add something to the attractiveness of the text.

'Dramatic Idyls—Jocoseria' is the title of vol. xv. of Browning's edition of his own Poetical Works (Macmillan); and the end of the pretty series is not yet, we believe.

The first four parts of the 'Century Dictionary' make the first volume, ending with the formidable word *Conocephalitidæ*, which the binder reduces, in despair, to two syllables ("A to Cono"). The buff, richly stamped covers are as admirable in their way as the De Vinne typography, yet, being doomed to soil, seem to call for a protecting envelope, on which a white label might well bear in black letters the *full* words beginning and ending the volumes.

The "Camelot Series" (London: Walter Scott) has for its latest issue 'Letters Written by Lord Chesterfield to his Son,' selected by Charles Sayle, who furnishes a "prefatory note," biographical and critical. The same publisher adds to his "Canterbury Poets" Landor's Poems selected and edited by Ernest Radford: and finally, Cary's version of Dante's 'Purgatorio' reappears in "Bohn's Select Library" (Scribner & Welford).

A very unattractive book, called 'The Birth of the Republic,' and compiled by Daniel R. Goodloe (Belford, Clarke & Co.), brings together a great many documents exhibiting the growth of the Revolutionary sentiment and the formation of the Constitution. Mr. Goodloe has escaped the censure visited on the author who dispenses with an index, only to be blamed for omitting what is here even more important—a schematic table of contents. The portrait of himself does not atone for this neglect.

We have in hand the official city report on certain bronze tablets set up on June 17, 1889, in Winthrop Square, Charlestown, Mass., by the city of Boston (of which Charlestown is a part), commemorating by name the dead of Bunker Hill. This is the first attempt ever made to discover them all, and it is supposed to be so nearly exhaustive that a dozen additional names can scarcely be expected to turn up. The tablets would have been erected on the grounds of the monument if the Bunker Hill Association had been complacent. Their avowed objections were not of equal weight. Much stress was laid on the fact that the committee of the City Government having the matter in charge had recorded their own names along with those of the dead soldiers. We trust that the Irish origin of two of the committeemen had nothing to do with this ground of exclusion. It is not the first time in Boston that Irish-Americans have shown more zeal for the memory of Revolutionary heroism and the preservation of municipal antiquities than the descendants of the Puritans themselves. We observe that the Hon. John R. Murphy was the orator at the dedication of the tablets.

From the *Argosy* office, Demerara, has been issued a separate impression of a paper on "The Fight between the *Peacock* and the *Hornet* in 1813," by N. Darnell Davis, the well-known historical antiquarian and historical writer, and contributor to *Timehri*, the journal of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society. This account is written in a very pleasant vein, with equal respect for British and American valor. It ends with the story of the engagement in June between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*, to the command of which Capt. Lawrence passed on leaving the *Hornet*. The second lieutenant of the *Shannon*, who took the vessel into Halifax, is still living, in his ninety-ninth year, being Sir Provo William Parry Wallis, G.C.B., Admiral of the Fleet in the Royal Navy.

Part iv. of the Atlantic Coast section of the 'United States Coast Pilot,' issued from the office of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, is certain to be in request, as it deals with Long Island Sound, its approaches and adjacent waters. The customary directions as to making port, channels, anchorage, pilots, beacons, lights, buoys, fog signals, etc., etc., are accompanied by profiles and charts. The volume is sold at one dollar.

The June Bulletin of the New York State Museum is a first report, by John C. Smock, on the iron-mines and iron-ore districts in this State. Notice is, for the sake of historical completeness, taken of mines no longer worked. As is shown on the map, by far the larger part of the mines lie parallel to the axis of the Hudson River and Champlain depression.

M. Couat, the rector of the Academy of Lille, has recently published 'Aristophane et l'ancienne Comédie attique' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern), the first of two volumes devoted to the old comedy of Greece. The second is to consider the art and literary methods of Aristophanes, while the present volume is taken up with a discussion of the matter which the comic dramatist of Athens was at liberty to handle. M. Couat sketches with French clearness the origin of Attic comedy, and the conditions under which the comic dramatist could come before the people. Then he treats in succession the government, the social organization, the religion, the education, and the morals of contemporary Athens, stating distinctly what was the attitude of Aristophanes and his fellows towards each of these, and the reasons which led them to take it. M. Couat carries his learning easily and without pedantry.

It is enough to mention that a translation has been made of Frederick Delitzsch's 'Assyrian Grammar' by Prof. Archibald R. S. Kennedy of Aberdeen University (Berlin: H. Reuther; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). This standard work thus becomes accessible to many students who would otherwise have had to contend with the difficulties of German as well as of the cuneiform writing. The paradigms, the brief chrestomathy, the glossary and bibliography are incorporated directly from the German edition.

A plan is on foot to resuscitate the Oriental Translation Fund, an English Society which was actively employed from 1828 to 1879, or rather to start an O. T. Fund II., with an an-

nual subscription of £1, or a life membership of £10. The return would be one or two volumes of Oriental works yearly. Communications should be addressed to F. F. Arbuthnot, 18 Park Lane, Piccadilly, London.

There are good translations of many English classics into Russian, but up to the present day there has existed no very satisfactory rendering of Byron, especially of 'Don Juan.' One recently published by P. A. Kozloff overcomes many of the serious difficulties in the way of accuracy. Some passages lose in sententiousness and force by the change of tongue, but the general, and even the particular, result is admirable.

Zaporozhye, the land of the Cossacks of the Dnieper, who furnished "Táras Bulbá" to the characters of literature, and who long served as a bulwark to Russia against Poles and Turks, has been used by Mr. D. I. Evarnitzky as the subject of a book which affords popular reading as well as interesting facts for history. The author has studied the Zaporozhye from popular traditions and ancient remains, and has illustrated his observations with fifty-five drawings and two maps. He made a tour among the localities in question, collecting songs, customs, and traditions of life and habits which will have vanished in another generation, and a knowledge of which is much needed by the regular historian in order to give his more serious studies an air of life and reality. He turned topographer, archæologist, and ethnographer for the occasion, and his book is a very conscientious account of his eight years of travel, into which enters only so much of the archives, songs, and literary materials as directly concerns the subject. The remainder of his material will be used in a history of the Zaporozhye, so important in the Middle Ages.

—The latest publication of the English Dialect Society is a reissue of the 1877 'Glossary of Words used in the Wapentakes of Manley and Corringham,' by Edward Peacock, revised and considerably enlarged, in two volumes (London: Trübner & Co.). The district in question, including the so-called Isle of Axholme, on the west bank of the Trent, forms the northwestern corner of Lincolnshire, was traversed by one of the old northern Roman roads (Ermine Street), and appears among the wapentakes in Domesday Book as Manelinde. Mr. Peacock's Glossary is very readable, being full of racy illustrations selected with an eye to the humorous, and affording many glimpses of society and morals. Here we meet with the obsolete *dog-whipper*, whose function, down to the memory of men still living, was to drive intruding dogs out of church, not without occasional remonstrance from the owner. In 1579, Rouland Bell of Branspeth "will not suffer his doge to be whipped out of the Church in time of devine service, but kepithe him uppe in his armes, and gevithe frowarde words." Likewise, at the beginning of the present century it was a common barbarous practice to sweep chimneys "by letting a cord down, and, having attached to it the legs of a goose, drawing the bird slowly up and down." Mr. Peacock cites from an English author a lady's remark on such a procedure—"How cruel to the poor goose!"—and the reply, "Why, madam, if you think my method cruel to the goose, a couple of ducks will do." A populace thus behind the age may well still lament "the *lost* days" which went with the introduction of New Style in 1752. "Many persons have not yet forgiven those who made the change, as it has thrown, say they, all the fairs in the country wrong." Some of their locutions are amusing by virtue of distortion, as, *dymonite* (for dynamite), of hybridism, as, *baccatotal* (abstainer from tobacco), or of pithiness, as, *all there* (meaning that a person is quite sane), *ninepence to the shilling* (meaning that he is a little lacking), *cypher up* (to take the measure of a person, to "size him up," in our vulgar phrase). To *land up* is said of the silting of a river. The phrase *from A to andparcy* shows a variant of ampersand ("and per se—and").

—The paper on the "Geography of the Caucasus," by V. Dingelstedt, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July, is a mine of information in regard to what is being done for the scientific survey of that region. About 40,000 square miles have been mapped by the surveying department, and extensive geological researches have been made by the mining department. The Physical Observatory at Tiflis, in connection with various stations, conducts meteorological observations, and the museum at the same place contains a rich collection of botanical and zoölogical specimens and of national types and costumes. The Archæological Commission has published ten large folio volumes containing an enormous amount of material bearing on the history and ethnology of the country. This work is supplemented by the Education Department, which "is publishing the highly valuable researches of Baron Uslar on Caucasian idioms, and collecting information regarding the domestic handicrafts and the manners of Caucasian indigenes." The Department of Domains investigates the condition of the peasant life on the state lands, as well as "the distribution and methods of cultivation of every kind of agricultural product," while an Agricultural Society studies the flora, though having for its practical aim the extension of useful economic plants. In addition to these should be mentioned the publications of the Caucasian Geographical Society, founded in 1851, now amounting to twenty-two volumes of memoirs and bulletins. Mr. James Stevenson replies with much effect to Prof. Batalha Reis's statement of the claims of Portugal to Nyassaland published in this magazine. He shows that while Portuguese explorers had at times passed through the country, the Government had never "exercised authority or held posts" in that part where the British have settled. In respect to the financial sacrifices which Portugal has made to maintain her possessions in East Africa, he recalls the fact that the territory held by the Portuguese on the Zambesi was almost denuded of its population, who were sold as slaves for the gold mines in Brazil, the Government receiving an export duty of $18 per head.

—Dr. Ewald Flügel, youngest son of Dr. Felix Flügel (known to so many American scientists as the German agent for the Smithsonian) is treading bravely in the footsteps of his father and his grandfather. Two years ago he published (Leipzig, Grunow) a monograph of nearly 300 pp. on the Ethics of Carlyle ('Thomas Carlyle's religiöse und sittliche Entwickelung und Weltanschauung'), a very helpful guide to a just understanding of the method that underlay much of Carlyle's seeming madness. This year he presents us with a still more scholarly work: 'Sir Philip Sidney's Astrophel and Stella und Defence of Poesie, nach den ältesten Ausgaben, mit einer Einleitung über Sidney's Leben und Werke' (Halle: Niemeyer). This publication is a sign of the times. In connection with Alfred W. Pollard's recent edition of 'Astrophel and Stella' (referred to in the preface), and Grosart's edition, and Arber's reprint of the 'Defence,' it shows us that the great Elizabethan is coming fully into his rights. There can be little question that, outside the great group of poetic geniuses led by Spenser, Marlowe, and Shakspere, the most commanding figure is that of Sidney. His practice of poetry in the 'Sonnets,' his theory in the 'Defence,' call for the closest study. Although Marlowe and Shakspere won the battle against him in the drama, his every word still deserves to be read and pondered. Without him we shall fail to understand his age, or the so-called school, of Ben Jonson. Dr. Flügel's Introduction, treating of Sidney's life and personality, although based, of course, upon preceding biographies, has many features quite novel, taken from original letters and documents in the British Museum, at Hatfield Place, and in other English and Continental repositories. To the Hon. Mary Sidney of Penshurst he is indebted for the surprising discovery that the boy Sidney was actually collated, June 4, 1564, to the church of Whyteford, Wales. He was then in his tenth year! The relations of Sidney to Spenser and Harvey, Languet, Leicester, and the Queen are discussed at length, and the significance of each of his writings carefully estimated. The text of the 'Sonnets' and the 'Defence' embodies an exhaustive study and collation of editions and variants. As a matter of course the original spellings are scrupulously preserved. The presswork is a credit to the publisher. We have not the space for remarks upon details. We can only congratulate Dr. Flügel upon his achievement, and ourselves upon this valuable aid in a most fascinating study.

SCHOULER'S FOURTH VOLUME.

History of the United States of America, under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Vol. IV. (1831–1847). Washington: William H. Morrison. 1889.

In this fourth volume of his history, Mr. Schouler reviews American life, manners, and politics, for the period extending from the middle of Jackson's first Presidential term in 1831 to the middle of Polk's Administration in 1847. The narrative runs, therefore, through that most exciting epoch in our annals when the fungus growths lodged in the very joints and seams of our Federal structure began, in Biblical phrase, to "take root downward and bear fruit upward," in baleful forecast of the worse things that were to be done in the dry tree when such things were done in the green. As he enters the penumbra of the dim eclipse which came in 1861 to perplex our politicians with fear of change, the historian confesses to some misgivings, lest readers who have thought well of his former volumes may cease to confide in his judgment and discrimination, now that he endeavors, in matters still warm with the blood and passions of living men, to learn and to speak, without fear or faltering, "the whole truth as others have not learned it before." Candidly avowing that it is not in his nature to be impartial as between right and wrong, between honorable and dishonorable public conduct, Mr. Schouler leaves his reader in no doubt at all as to the moral and political weights he uses, or as to the scales in which he places them, while evidently seeking, as far as he can, to hold the balances with a firm and steady hand.

The interval here sketched in its salient features is typical and representative of all that was most distinctive in the political and constitutional history of the United States before the outbreak of the civil war. It was the period (to group together a few of its most characteristic marks) when great administrative

measures of public policy concerning the tariff, internal improvements, the National Bank, the distribution of proceeds from the sales of the public lands, etc., became, in the eyes of the American masses, the articles of standing or falling parties in the State; when divergent political interests and dynastic ambitions, masquerading behind divergent theories of economics and constitutional law, lifted aloft the banner of nullification, and advanced it to the perilous edge of battle; when great party leaders like Jackson, Clay, Webster, and Calhoun could still speak with a voice which commanded the listening ears of all the people; when a vivid interest in public affairs (presenting the conjuncture which Cicero desiderated in the cause of eloquence) begot "the golden age of American oratory," and when, as Mr. Schouler phrases it, "the great wind-sails went round to the delight of all free-born Americans," as Webster, or Clay, or Wm. C. Preston, or S. S. Prentiss, or Wendell Phillips fanned the gales of political debate; when the intensification of this public interest produced a fierce political gladiatorship on the floor of Congress, as John Quincy Adams stood forth for the defence of the "right of petition," and as men like Robert Barnwell Rhett, George McDuffie, and Henry A. Wise showed themselves the swift Hotspurs of debate in defence of slavery and its political rights; when the moral deepening of this public interest found an organ in the flaming zeal of Garrison proclaiming a moral crusade against the abomination of desolation standing, where it ought not, in the very shrine of our national temple; when the elements of party-formation in the country were dissolved by the fervent heats of the time, and kept in a state of seething chaos; when the stately Federalism of our archaic period finally disappeared for ever from sight as the new Jackson Democracy rose to supersede the obsolescent forms of the Jeffersonian Republicanism, and as "the great Whig party" slowly welded itself together into a composite organization, amid such flying fragments as the so-called States'-Rights party, the Anti-Masonic party, the Conservative party, the Equal Rights party, the Locofoco party, the Liberty party, etc., etc.; when a baser sort of sordid and corrupt politics came to take without a blush the place of that patrician management which had swayed the dignified councils of the Essex Junto in the times of John Adams, or had ruled even in the schemings of the Virginian conclave in the days of Jefferson and Madison; when the Congressional caucus, with its abuses, gave place to the worse abuses of the irresponsible national convention, and when the latter, in one of its first essays, offered to the nation the spectacle of a "steam doctor" throwing the vote of the whole State of Tennessee in favor of Van Buren and his mate on the Democratic ticket; when Marcy formulated for the first time the practice of his party and the practice of his age into the neat and quotable dictum of predatory warfare, that "to the victors belong the spoils"; when the shrewd tactics of the Albany Regency, under the deft touch of its "Little Magician," paved the way, by a natural gradation, for the scullion service of "the Kitchen Cabinet" under Jackson, and for the barrack espionage of the "Corporal's Guard" under Tyler.

The whole country has been recently reminded, in a way not soon to be forgotten, that a marked decadence in the forms and in the inspirations of American politics may be said to date from the advent of "Jacksonian vulgarity" in the conduct of our public affairs. The successive stages of this facile descent are traced step by step in the pages of the volume before us, and that, too, with all due concessions made by the writer to the unfaltering courage, the quick sagacity, the administrative statecraft, and the sterling patriotism of the Democratic party chieftain who, more than any other ruler in our history, openly brought the discipline of the camp and the maxims of military strategy to the manœuvres of politics and the despatch of public affairs. "He [Jackson] left nothing in affairs for others to finish," says Mr. Schouler, "betrayed no sign of fear or timidity, shrank from no burden, however momentous, but marched to the muzzle of his purpose, and, like an old soldier, gained half the advantage in a fight by his bold despatch and vigor." But, on the other hand, we are reminded that "personalism came to tincture all politics, all politicians, under his arbitrary and exacting administration, while the painted Jezebel of party patronage seized upon all public trusts for her favorites." Even the fight with the Bank of the United States originated most likely, says Mr. Schouler, "in a personal offence," and was certainly made by Jackson a personal affair after the issue had once been openly joined with Nicholas Biddle.

The spirit of giddiness and revolt so widely shed upon the nation in the forms and phases of its politics during this momentous epoch was not confined to the sphere of politics alone. It was as part and parcel of a general stirring in the popular mind that the whole community was excited alike in the lowest beds of society and in the highest peaks of intellectual culture. Bloody riots shook the peace of our cities. Election riots, anti-negro riots, native-American riots, Irish riots, anti-Irish riots, anti-Catholic riots, and anti-abolition riots kept the public mind in a constant state of tension during the closing years of Jackson's reign. And in higher spheres of culture the old order was changing to make place for expanding schemes of thought and action. It was a time of dissolution and thaw. Woman came to the front for the first time as a social agitator and moral reformer. Tares were mixed with the good seed sown in the fresh-turned plough-fields. Robert Owen preached a new gospel of labor. Fanny Wright preached a new gospel of social order. Fourier had his little knot of free-thinkers and free-livers among us. Thomsonianism, the Graham diet cure, steam doctoration, and the therapeutics of homœopathy and hydropathy in general and in particular were pitted against orthodox medicine. Phrenology vaunted itself as a cheap and easy psychophysics, while peripatetic professors of this new mental science went around fumbling the bumps of the curious and the credulous at so much a head. Animal magnetism, mesmerism, and clairvoyance had their charlatans and empirics, professing to burst the bounds of space and time and to unveil the mysteries of the future state. In religion and in philosophy, men and women of the amateurish sort in both, began, as Mr. Schouler expresses it, "to paddle about the infinite in their cock-boats, and to cast out their plummets in order to sound the bottom of things." Of this "Renaissance" period in New England the Transcendental Philosophy was the bright consummate flower in the domain of pure speculation, as the Brook Farm experiment was its choicest Utopia in the domain of practical life. If this most modern of Utopias "died the death of all genteel communities guided by quill-driving ploughmen," we can all none the less concur with Mr. Schouler in the gratulation that Hawthorne should have raised "such rich literary produce from his dung-fork studies"; and if Emerson, the seer of Concord, showed in his mannerisms some of the contortions of the transcendental sibyl, it is also very certain that he was imbued with a goodly portion of the sibyl's genuine inspiration as he went up and down the highways of New England, advising men everywhere to keep "things" out of the saddle and to hitch their wagons to a star.

It will be seen that the period here discussed by Mr. Schouler is a time of elemental stir. The chief interest of the average reader will naturally attach to the most portentous of these elemental agitations in the sphere of politics—the nullification controversy of 1832, the long and internecine struggle of Jackson with the United States Bank, the recrudescence of the slavery question as raised by Garrison to the higher level of a great moral issue, and finally the annexation of Texas, with its bloody sequel, the war against Mexico.

Confining our attention to two of these topics, the issue joined by Jackson with the Bank and the revival of the slavery agitation under its new front, we may say that the views of Mr. Schouler under both of these heads seem to us in the main to be well-weighed and just. Though his sympathies are evidently with the Whigs in the era of the Democratic crusade against "the monster" of Nicholas Biddle, his judgment often compels him to admit that the drift of wiser opinion and of sounder economy was not discerned by the Whig statesmen. Indeed, while concurring with him in this view, we think he sometimes does a little less than justice to the *apologia* that might be made for the Bank and for its directors when, in the latter stages of its career, he animadverts on its huckstering traffic with the Whig politicians as being like the conduct of "a maiden lost to shame." Mr. Schouler certainly knows that, in the earlier stages of the Bank's unsullied career, it was not the Whig politicians who made trial of its virtue, and that it was not until the Bank had set its face like a flint against the seductions of the Jacksonian Democracy, in the case of Jeremiah Mason and the Portsmouth branch, that Nicholas Biddle and his associates were driven to seek succor and shelter for the "maiden" in the camp of the Whigs. From this time forth the Bank was doomed to fight, not alone for its honor, but for its very existence; and no history of that life-and-death struggle can be called complete which ignores the compromising correspondence had by the Democratic fuglemen with Nicholas Biddle over the head of Jeremiah Mason, when he was appointed as President of the Portsmouth branch in 1829, and all this because he was known to be a friend of Webster's. After Mr. Schouler's intimation that Jackson's quarrel with the Bank most probably originated in a "personal offence," it would seem better to have said less if no more than this was to be said on the origin of the whole controversy. The importance of this controversy Mr. Schouler does not at all exaggerate when he says that for nine long years it irritated the passions of the people "more constantly and more deeply than has any other single national issue save one."

That the Bank meddled with politics, whether with or without compulsion, must be frankly admitted, but what shall be said of "the pet banks" which Jackson installed in its place? On their own motion, and with the full license of the Administration, they crowded around the Treasury troughs at Washington with loud clamors for a share of "the fiscal patronage," in the shape of Federal deposits, openly solicited on the ground that the suitors were "friends of the Administration and of the revered chief at the head of the Government." It was not

long after the deposits had been removed from the Bank because it "meddled with politics" (on the wrong side), that we find the cashier of a "pet bank" writing to Reuben M. Whitney, the lobby agent of "the selected banks" near the Government, that a share in the public revenues was solicited for the express purpose of providing business "accommodations" which would enure to the political advantage of the Administration and to the propagation of "Democratic sentiments."

Mr. Schouler, of course, has not a word to say in defence of this "litter of lesser monsters" which Jackson put to suck at the breast of the Federal Treasury; and while not blaming Jackson for the veto of the Bank bill, he does blame the "meddlesome removal" of the deposits in advance of any better provision being made for the safeguarding of the public funds. Indeed, it not too much to say that, in those days of financial empiricism and wreck, the leaders of both parties were blind leaders of the blind, and hence it was but natural that the Government itself should at last have fallen into the ditch of bankruptcy under Van Buren. It is but just on the part of Mr. Schouler that, amid much derogation from Van Buren's public character in other respects, he gives to him the meed of highest statesmanship for the courage and sagacity with which he advocated and carried the Independent Treasury against the pressure of the best culture in the land, and against the dissuasives of expert opinion in finance, as "best culture" and "expert opinion in finance" were ordinated in that day. Speaking generally, the author concurs with the opinion of another, that the Democrats of that era had the better principles, but that the Whigs were the better men. The Democrats, he says, sided with persons and personal rights. The Whigs, on the other hand, "leaned to property, to great public and private undertakings involving money, and fostered by privilege and favoritism." Their party, therefore, soon became "the favorite of Northern polite circles, of scholars, professional men, the rich and prosperous tradesmen, bankers, of such as led good society or hung to its skirts, of capitalists, and of those who bask in the sunshine of capital, but most of all of manufacturers and merchants." It is easy to see that these principles of party formation are constant factors in our politics, and that they still survive, with certain modifications, in the political divisions of our own time.

In the matter of the new movement at the North in 1831 against slavery, Mr. Schouler makes no secret as to the drift of his sympathies. "Better this agitation," he says, "though it sent a two-edged sword, than the poisonous lethargy before it; better a quarter-century of sharp collision, followed by the desperate struggle for the mastery, than another century of corrupt growth and of bonded mis-alliance." Yet even here he puts his pen in poise that he may the more justly carry out his purpose to "interpret all men and all parties by the atmosphere of their times." In this sense he inclines in the same breath to applaud the bold denunciations of Garrison, and to find palliations for that long stupor of the public conscience under which the nation, sheltering itself behind the defences of the Constitution, had well-nigh lost its faith in the moral order of the world. He thinks it a matter of temperament to decide "whether one shall admire most the bold denunciator whose speech irritates thought into action; or the enlightened statesman who accomplishes for reform all that his age will admit, and respects the limitations of social ordinance; or the grim warrior who wins the fight." History, he says, should do justice to all. Yet he admits that "the one idea of Garrison" was abstractly right, and that it was because this idea ruled in his breast with the spirit of prophecy that the Northern conscience was awakened at length from its long sleep, and public opinion was eventually forced up to a higher plane of thought and aspiration.

The character sketches scattered by Mr. Schouler through the volume before us are drawn with a free and dashing hand. His portraiture of Jackson, Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Tyler, and others does full justice to the strong points of each in respect alike of intellectual and of moral endowment. Conceding to Calhoun the highest praise for the austerity of his private virtues and the purity of his personal character, the writer indulges perhaps in a needless acerbity of phrase in order to point his antipathy to the political aims and objects of the "arch-nullifier," the "vampire dogmatizer," "the Catilinarian," "the high priest of slavery extension," etc. Thucydides, though a victim of the factions of Athens, could paint the portrait of even a Cleon without a single epithet. The portrait of Benton is drawn by Mr. Schouler with much tenderness, perhaps out of respect for the palinode of his later career, and therefore at the furthest possible remove from the charcoal sketch of him by John Minor Botts and Edward Bates.

The style of the volume is in the main animated and sententious. Indeed, Mr. Schouler's sentences are often crisp and sparkling, but sometimes the grammar is careless, as, for instance, when he writes that "the best practical wisdom of the day in trade and finance *were* at the service of the Whigs." Sometimes the rhythm minces a little in its gait, as when he writes "nothing, eventually, moulded, after all, the policy of Tyler so much as the wish to be reëlected." Sometimes we stumble on a solecism, as when he speaks about the difficulty of "coalescing" the old elements of the Opposition into the new Whig party. The historical perspective is sometimes at fault, as when he writes of Amos Kendall as "a good Baptist and a Bible-class teacher" in 1835. It was not until long afterwards that Kendall made a public profession of his Christian faith. The bloody tussle between Jackson and Benton in 1819 is called a "duel." That certainly is not the name by which Benton characterized it in the card he published at the time, reciting how Jackson had assaulted him with murderous weapons in his own private lodgings. The spelling of the proper names is often careless: Mem*m*ucan Hunt instead of Memucan; Gen. Jessup, instead of Jesup; the "Priggs case," instead of the Prigg case, Julian C. Verplanck, instead of Gulian, etc., etc. (This last-named error is carried even into the index, and is quite inexcusable in the case of a versatile scholar like Verplanck, who combined in his person the characters of historian, politician, theological professor, economist, and man of letters.) Reuben M. Whitney, that shady politician whom the Whigs never ceased to lampoon as the "pimp of the pet banks" and the "scullion of the kitchen cabinet," is always despoiled by Mr. Schouler of the middle letter in his name. The references, too, sometimes mislead because of misprints in the figures, as, for instance, on page 542, where reference is erroneously made to page 675 of Benton's 'Thirty Years' View,' instead of page 679. Even the index sometimes trips the reader, as when reference is made in it to page 152 of this volume, as containing some allusion to Benton, though his name does not occur on that page. We presume it should read page 157.

JUSTI'S VELASQUEZ.

Diego Velasquez and His Times. By Carl Justi, Professor at the University of Bonn. Translated by Prof. A. H. Keane, B.A., F.R.G.S., and revised by the author. London: H. Grevel & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

WEIGHT is the most pronounced characteristic of Prof. Justi's 'Velasquez.' It is not only weighty, it is heavy—very heavy. The mere physical weight of this bulky quarto volume of more than five hundred pages is formidable, but the intellectual heaviness of its contents is almost appalling. We are assured in the preface that "some historical and descriptive details not bearing directly on the argument have here and there been . . . omitted" in the translation, and one can only shudder at the thought of what the original must be like, for the volume before us seems to contain everything that human ingenuity can conceive of as even remotely connected with the subject. Of course it includes a great deal of valuable matter. Everything that is known of the life of Velasquez, and not a little that is guessed, is here, together with a critical and descriptive catalogue of all the known and unknown and most of the imputed works of the master; and all this, though unduly expanded, it is well to have; but all this, expanded as it is, would not half fill a volume of the size that Prof. Justi seems to have thought necessary to the dignity of his subject, and no art known to the makers of books is spared to fill up the remainder. We have biographies of every one whom Velasquez painted or may have painted, and of many whom, according to Prof. Justi, he did not paint, and of every man whom he met, or must have met, or may have met. We have long historical accounts of every city he visited and of every house he lived in. We have quotation and description and disquisition without end.

To give an idea of the way in which it is done, let us dissect the contents of the first book, which occupies fifty-five pages. First come, by way of introduction, six pages of general criticism on the master and his position in art. This is well enough executed, but every word of it is repeated—some of it more than once—later in the volume. Then come nine pages devoted to "The Galleries" and to a presentation of the sources for "Biographical Data." So far, one has little to complain of; but there follow five pages devoted to a history and description of Seville, where Velasquez was born, and four to the "Poets and Literary Circles" of that city, with which he had nothing to do. The remaining thirty-one pages of the first book are occupied with a history of Spanish art from the mediæval period to Velasquez's own time, with notices of individual artists from three to eight pages long. All that is essential to know of such of these artists as had even the slightest influence upon Velasquez, is afterwards given in its place in the story of his life, which begins with the second book.

Another and even more striking instance of the author's talent for expansion occurs in the fourth book. In this there is a section devoted to "Murillo in Madrid," which occupies about seven pages. It begins with an account of Murillo's youth and early struggles, and of his determination to go to Madrid; describes his personal appearance on his arrival; gives an account of his interviews with Velasquez, and details the advice that master must have given him; continues with a notice of the effect of this intercourse upon his later work, and concludes with a rhapsody upon his painting in

general. The foundation for all this is, that it is now known that Murillo *did* go to Madrid, and that he *may* have met Velasquez there. The opportunity for digression was too good to be missed, and the result is, "One halfpenny-worth of bread to this intolerable deal of sack!"

But the heaviest thing in this heavy book is the utterly indescribable style, at once stilted and colloquial, never clear, and sometimes unintelligible, stuffed with misapplied technical terms and Germanisms, which makes reading a torture. We are told that the proof-sheets have been revised by the author, but the strange confusion in the use of art-words would lead one to believe that, while the translator knows nothing of art, the author knows nothing of English, and has accepted as a proper translation of technical phrases anything that occurred to the fancy of the former. Certain pet words, "anyhow," "jejune," "blends" (as a substantive), "saturated," are repeated with a "most damnable iteration," and one hears of "the Art" (with a capital A) until one is sick of it. Such a style must be seen to be appreciated, and we give a few specimens gathered here and there. The italics are ours:

"In any case this *feature* provided itself at the right moment with an *eye* as an organ exceptionally endowed for photographing visible phenomena." (P. 4.)

"Here the impression of an ordinary visit to a young mother is completed by the accurately depicted babe in swathing clothes, anyhow this time comfortably tucked in with his pretty but still quite stupid little head and lovely gold curls." (P. 83.)

"Owing to the diagonal *lie* of the axis." (P. 205.)

"*Feelings* of jealousy were too alien from his nature *not to be rejoiced* at the discovery." (P. 231.)

"The outlines receiving an appearance of quivering motion by *broad* brown strokes of the brush *as if stippled.*" (P. 421.)

We will give one longer quotation, a passage of eloquence, and have done:

"But who has ever before more searchingly studied the action of the sun, which here before our eyes weaves pictures with its divers radiations? Here it seems at work with its magic spells, quivering on silken tissues, fondling a dazzling white neck, merging in coal-black Castilian locks, giving plastic distinctness to one object, throwing a hazy weft over another, dissolving the substantial in the imponderable, giving to flatness the roundness of life, transforming the real to an image, the image to a vision. Here we feel with the physicist that light is motion, and on every tongue hovers the exclamation, 'Symphony of colours!'" (P. 432.)

The critical judgments of the author are, in the main, sound. It is impossible to rate Velasquez too high as an artist, and Prof. Justi not only heartily admires him, but generally admires in the right place and for the right qualities. Through all his astonishing verbosity, and in spite of the blunders of his translator, it is still possible to get a right impression of the manner and the merits of the first of "painters." And yet the Professor is not entirely proof against the malady of admiration incident to biographers, and, not content to show us his hero as "le peintre le plus peintre qui fût jamais," he must make him out what he was not, an artist capable of the lofty treatment of classical and religious themes. He writes pages about the "conception" of Velasquez's two or three religious pictures; the fact being that Velasquez had no "conception" of these subjects whatever, and contented himself with wonderfully executed portraits of a few models in more or less decorous and befitting poses. His "Coronation of the Virgin" is, from the absence not only of any "religious sentiment," but of any feeling for the ideal, one of the most disagreeable pictures ever painted by a great artist. Harmony of composition, grandeur or beauty of line, nobility of type, are all wanting, and we only see a decrepit beggar, a ruffianly bandit, and a rather handsome woman seated on the clouds, and encumbered with drapery, and posturing in a dignified but altogether meaningless way. The same indifference to and incapacity for the classical in art is shown in his mythological pieces. In not one of them is there any glimpse of the great Italian feeling for composition. The age of grand art was past, and Velasquez was as helpless to restore it as any of his contemporaries.

Assuredly Velasquez had an idealizing power of his own, but it lay in his intense perception of truth and beauty of light. Here he was the innovator and the unapproachable master. He was the first to see and to paint light and air, the first painter of aspects, the great and true *impressionist*. In his greatest works, "The Maids of Honor" and "The Spinners," the figures seem merely incidents, while the true subject is the light that plays upon them, and the air in front of them and around them; and by the delicate *ordonnance* and balancing of these elements he produces a composition as truly ideal as the grand arrangements of line or splendid harmonies of color of the Florentines or Venetians. With the Dutchmen and with Velasquez modern painting begins, but Velasquez is more essentially modern than the Dutchmen. The powerful chiaroscuro of Rembrandt would have seemed exaggerated to him, and Terburg's detailed insistence upon tangible fact would have seemed petty. He was the great discoverer of *values;* and to him the just amount of light upon an object and the exact quantity of air between it and the spectator—its *appearance* at a given distance and under a given effect—this was the one thing about it worth painting, and this he painted as perhaps no man has done since.

Great innovator as he was, however, he still left something for his successors to discover, and when Prof. Justi would have us believe that Velasquez, three hundred years ago, was a modern *plein-airist*, he goes too far. He severely reprimands a "recent bungler" by whom "our master's landscapes are likened to hanging draperies"; and yet the "recent bungler" is quite right and Prof. Justi is quite wrong, and the fact that these landscapes "are recalled at every step by all travellers in the Castalian highlands" has no bearing on the question. Be the landscape as truthful as it may, in itself, if the relation between it and the figure be *not* truthful, it will look like an admirable landscape-painting *hung up* behind the figure, and it is just so that it looks in the portraits of Velasquez. The just relation of a figure in the open air to the surrounding landscape was, so far as we know, never painted until our own day.

The tendency to praise, occasionally, in the wrong place is shown again when the rocking-horse action of Velasquez's horses is spoken of as "just"; and the passion of all literary critics of painting for finding more in a picture than the artist ever put there crops out amusingly in such a passage (and there are too many such) as the following, from a description of the portrait of Juan de Pareja: "A certain sly air seems to betray the secret, *of which his master is still unaware*, that 'I also am a painter.'"

After all our fault-finding, let us say again that the critical part of the work, while always wordy and sometimes overstrained, is generally sound, and that the historical part seems thorough and accurate. An intrepid reader who is not afraid of wading will find fish for his net therein. The mechanical execution of the book is excellent, the illustrations are better than was to be expected, and the exceptionally full index will render it useful as a book of reference.

LEIDY'S ANATOMY.

An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy. Second edition, rewritten, with four hundred and ninety-five illustrations. By Joseph Leidy, M.D., LL.D., Professor of Human and Comparative Anatomy and Zoölogy in the University of Pennsylvania, etc. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889. Pp. 950.

THE first edition of this work appeared twenty-eight years ago, and then formed the only original American compendium of human anatomy. In the interval, besides several editions of English works, there have been published in this country an extensive treatise by Harrison Allen, and smaller ones by Weisse, and Darling and Ranney, to which may properly be added the anthropotomical articles by Frank Baker and others in the 'Reference Handbook of the Medical Sciences.' The progress of anatomy during the last quarter of a century has been partly through the discovery of new parts or features visible to the naked eye, but more markedly in the determination and interpretation of microscopical structures, the tracing of developmental changes, the recognition of the resemblances between man and animals in the light of evolution, and the simplification of the terminology. This last forms the distinctive feature of the present volume. Most of the modifications are announced in the following extract from the preface:

"As a rule, one name for an organ or part is used, and that one selected which is simplest and most expressive of its character. The name also, so far as may be permitted, is rendered into English. Many phrases in common use as names have been curtailed of what have appeared unnecessary portions, and sometimes the adjective portion of the phrase has been retained, in preference to the substantive portion, where, for various reasons, it has seemed more appropriate. Where names of persons are applied to parts, they are generally avoided. . . . Some further attempts have been made to improve the nomenclature, and it is hoped that the experiment may prove successful in helping the student in acquiring a knowledge of the subject. While the author regards with favor the proposed improvement in anatomical nomenclature of able authorities, he has not followed them completely, in apprehension that, with the prevalent nomenclature, a radical change would confuse rather than facilitate the study of anatomy."

Stated in technical linguistic terms, in this treatise pœcilonymy is avoided; *e. g.*, instead of *tænia hippocampi* in one place, *corpus fimbriatum* in another, and *fimbria* in a third, the last is consistently employed and the others given as synonyms. In the choice between names, etymological accuracy is subordinated to availability; *e. g.*, *vagus* is preferred to *pneumogastric*, and *fiocculus* to *lobus nervi pneumogastrici*. The Latin words are commonly paronymized rather than translated into inelegant or misleading heteronyms; *e. g.*, *pedunculus* is Anglicised as *peduncle*, not *footlet; vermis* is adopted unchanged as an English word, instead of being rendered into *worm*. Certain ponderous phrases are discarded—*e. g.*, *iter e tertio ad quartum ventriculum*—and others are reduced to mononyms; *e. g.*, *crus cerebri* to *crus*, *brachialis anticus* to *brachialis*. When the adjective element of a polyonym is more distinctive than the noun, the latter is dropped and the former used substantively and inflected; *e. g.*, *corpus callosum* becomes *callosum*, adj. *callosal; dura*, *pia*, *striatum*, and *oblongata* are other examples. Epo-

nyms are regarded as undesirable ; the following are discarded : *foramen of Winslow* for *omental foramen ; sinus of Valsalva* for *valvular sinus ; fissure of Rolando* for *central fissure ;* the following are reduced from dionyms by the omission of the personal genitives here parenthesized : *pons* (*Varolii*), *aquæductus* (*Sylvii*), *torcular* (*Herophili*), *antrum* (*Highmorianum*). Since, indeed, the brain contains but one pons and one aqueduct, there is no more need of specifying their real or supposed discoverers or describers than there is of saying the "stomach of Jones" or the "liver of Robinson," supposing those parts to have been discovered or described by individuals so called. Other commendable terms are *hippocampus* for *hippocampus major* and *cornu Ammonis ; calcar* for *hippocampus minor ; crusta* for *pes* (or *basis*) *pedunculi*. Notwithstanding some less happily chosen terms (*e. g.*, "hippocampal hook" for *uncus*, "central lobe" for *insula*, "suprarenal capsule" for *adrenal*), and the non-adoption of Owen's *ectocarotid* and *entocarotid*, *precava* and *postcava*, and some others that could scarcely be misunderstood—and, indeed, have exact precedents in the author's "ectoretina," "mesoretina," "entoretina," and "preretina"—it will be seen that an anatomist, distinguished alike as an investigator and a teacher, at a period of life when any change in the "tools of thought" is unacceptable, has taken a decided stand in favor of nomenclatural reforms which, in various degrees, have been advocated during the present century by Barclay, Owen, and Pye-Smith in Great Britain, and in this country by Coues, Gage, Spitzka, and Wilder.

Respecting the concluding part of the extract from the preface, it may be well to add that no really "radical changes" are advocated by living anatomists. The proposition, independently made by investigators and teachers in New Zealand and the United States, that *ventricle* should be replaced by *cœle* as a designation of the brain cavities, is strictly a rehabilitation of the Greek κοιλία (meaning any cavity, especially of the brain or heart) for the sake of obtaining a series of single-word, inflected terms (*mesocœle*, etc.) correlated with the commonly accepted names of the encephalic segments (*mesencephalon*, etc.); and, while the change accords with the principles advocated by Dr. Leidy, and with his practice in some respects, its acceptance in no way involves the general scheme of terminological reform.

It will be observed that the preface refers only to the names of organs (organonyms) and not to terms of description (toponyms); nor is there any evidence that the author has undertaken to leave the beaten track of descriptive anthropotomy in this respect; indeed, the designation of Figs. 371 and 372, representing sections of the oblongata at a right angle with its axis, as "horizontal sections," furnishes a good example of the general rule that from the chance of being misled by the current descriptive terms of human anatomy, only those are quite secure who do not need to be informed. The designation, however, of the vertebræ between the neck and the loins as *thoracic* rather than *dorsal* (p. 59) is a distinct admission of the force of the latter term, and warrants the expectation that in another edition the descriptive terms may apply not to the upright human body alone, but to any vertebrate in any possible attitude.

As to the general arrangement of the text, two features are to be noted, and the former at least commended; viz., the consideration of the joints in connection with the bones of each region, and the placing of the nervous system and organs of sense at the close of the volume. The author's eminence as a comparative anatomist adds significance to his resistance of the natural temptation to introduce into a work especially designed for medical students details or generalizations respecting animal structures; but the recent discoveries and hypotheses respecting the conarium (pineal body) might well have been mentioned. In the account of the peculiar muscular tissue of the heart there is no mention of the nuclei, and Fig. 132 shows neither the nuclei nor the cellular demarcations so clearly represented by Gage in the fifth volume of the 'Reference Handbook of the Medical Sciences,' published now two years ago. The description of the embryonic brain, though undesirably brief, clearly states the definitive composition of the organ by five segments—prosencephalon, thalamencephalon (or diencephalon), mesencephalon, epencephalon (including cerebellum, pons (with the corresponding part of the oblongata), and metencephalon. Had this been placed before instead of after the descriptive anatomy of the organ, the latter would perhaps have been presented segmentally; as it is, under the caption "cerebrum" are considered not only the "hemispheres," but also the thalami, gemina, and crura, constituting two other segments. A figure of the embryonic or ideal brain would have facilitated recognition of the segmental constitution of the organ.

The generalization (p. 714) respecting that ever-interesting topic, brain and mind, requires some such qualifications as are here interpolated within brackets:

> "All other conditions being equal, the brain is observed [commonly] also to hold a relation in size to the degree of mental development; hence the more civilized races and the more cultivated and intelligent people are [usually, and upon the average] distinguished by a larger and heavier brain, while the opposite condition exists in the barbarous races and the least cultivated persons."

The footnote on p. 714 implies that in no mammal is the brain relatively larger than in man, whereas, as stated by Owen, in the little marmoset monkey the ratio is as one to twenty, nearly twice that of man.

Dr. Leidy refrains from any discrimination between the cerebral depressions as *fissures* and *sulci*, employing the former name for all. It is to be wished that, following the examples of two recent successive Presidents of the American Neurological Association, the intervening elevations had been called *gyres* rather than *convolutions*. The latter word, indeed, seems to be as much out of place in this work—characterized for the most part by short terms—as would be *conflagration* in the author's description of a fire. Moreover, the designation of the association-fibres by the new term, "gyral fascicles," would lead one to expect the employment of the corresponding substantive.

Figures 379 and 380 represent, respectively, the lateral aspect of a white and negro cerebrum, and are intended to illustrate the fissures. The fissural lines are doubtless accurate as to location, extent, and connection, but there is an unusual and perplexing degree of "confluence," and the main fissures are not enough heavier than the others to be readily recognized. The two brains might well be figured and described in detail as quite peculiar, but, so far as the student is concerned, simpler brains or mere diagrams would have been more useful, especially if accompanied by a few figures of fœtal specimens. The insula ("central lobe") is inadequately shown; the paracentral lobule is not even mentioned. Among the clearest and most instructive figures are 388, 389, and 391, all exhibiting the "internal capsule"; but on neither of them is this very important fibrous tract designated.

The lack of distinct indication of the circumscription of the encephalic cavities by a line representing the lining membrane is so nearly universal a defect in anatomical treatises that we note it in this case merely for the sake of adding that, in our opinion, no adequate morphological conception of the brain is possible in the absence of clear demarcation between the ental (cœlian or ventricular) surfaces and those which are ectal or pial. Nor is the text clear upon this matter; the velum ("choroid tela") is said to "extend into the third ventricle"; the central canal of the cord is described as "opening at its lower end into the posterior median fissure," and the thalamus is said to "project from the hemisphere into the lateral ventricle." Nor is the effect of these ambiguities likely to be altogether counteracted by the explicit statement (p. 769) as to the continuity of the endyma over the telæ and plexuses, and the closure of the third and lateral ventricles at their sides.

Of the five hundred illustrations, two hundred are original; of the others, many are from Wilson, others from Sappey, Kölliker, and recent authors; most of them are large enough and well executed. The several parts are designated by numbers, and the descriptions are confined mainly to the names; in some cases the student's recognition of features would be facilitated by additional comment.

The metric system is ignored, and there are no references to other manuals or to monographs. The index contains all the preferred names and most of the synonyms; the two groups of terms might have been distinguished advantageously by some typographical difference, as in Henle's work. Instead of burdening the text and confusing the reader by interpolating synonyms these are placed at the bottom of the page, as in the treatises of Henle and Schwalbe.

In conclusion, while the large and well-established text-books of Gray and Quain may not be generally discarded in favor of this, there can be no question as to the usefulness of the present volume to the numerous students at the University of Pennsylvania. The good effects of the author's courageous and comprehensive departure from the prevailing nomenclature will never cease to be felt.

French Traits: An Essay in Comparative Criticism. By W. C. Brownell. Charles Scribner's Sons.

FRENCH morals and manners, the frivolity and inconstancy of the Parisians, the corrupt condition of society—as pictured in French novels—are favorite themes upon which English and American writers, who perchance have spent a fortnight or a week in the French capital, love to descant with virtuous indignation and a complacent sense of superiority. True, we have now and then a clever little pen-and-ink sketch of French life—Miss Thackeray's pleasant short stories, for instance—which leaves a different and refreshing impression on the reader; but it cannot be denied that even the political events occurring from day to day in our sister Republic are seen with prejudiced eyes by the majority of our writers, from the unknown author of a newspaper paragraph to that of a more pretentious magazine article or book of travels.

Very different is it with the book before us. It is the work not only of an acute observer and critic, but of one philosophically bent, who, not satisfied with looking at the surface of things French, probes their very depth, ever seeking the cause hidden behind the effect.

"The Social Instinct"—the first of the nine headings under which Mr. Brownell particularizes the French traits—is made, by ingenious and sometimes paradoxical reasoning, to explain the virtues, attenuate the faults, and justify the idiosyncrasies of the French people. "There is one instinct of human nature," says Mr. Brownell, "one aspiration of the mind, which France has incarnated with unbroken continuity from the first: since there was a France at all, France has embodied the social instinct." He proceeds to show the development of this instinct under influences that have made it the basis of the national character, so much so that

"French history is the history of this instinct. . . . What one notes in the individual is, more than anywhere else, apt to be a national trait. There is, of course, differentiation enough, but it begins further along than with us, and is structural rather than fortuitous. They vary by types rather than by units. The class only is specialized. Their homogeneousness is not uniformity, but it is divided rather in the details than in the grand construction. . . . They are infinitely civilized. Individuals are of less import than the relations between them; hence manners and art. Character counts less than capacity; hence the worship of intelligence."

Treating that delicate question "Morality," Mr. Brownell's preliminary argument is as follows:

"Morality is indeed a fundamental matter, and French morality differs fundamentally from our own. But this is only all the more reason for replacing censoriousness by candor in any consideration of it. And the first admission which candor compels us to make is the unfairness of estimating the French moral fibre by what ours would be if subjected to the same standards and influenced by the same circumstances. Yet this is an error that we make continually. Consciously or unconsciously, we conceive our manners and character as a constant quantity, and reflect on the fate which indisputably would overtake our morals if we should adopt French ethics. . . . French morality is a direct derivative of the social instinct. Owing to the development of this instinct among them, morality is rather a social than an individual force, and the key to its nature is to be found in the substitution of honor for duty as a mainspring of action and a regulator of conduct. The distinction is a very plain, a very real one."

To give a correct idea of Mr. Brownell's book would necessitate copious quotations, more than the limits of a notice will permit. Suffice it to say that "Intelligence," "Sense and Sentiment," "Manners," "Women," "The Art Instinct," "The Provincial Spirit," and "Democracy" are treated in a like masterly way. True sympathy with and admiration for the French are discernible throughout the volume, yet they never degenerate into fulsome adulation, nor are the sincerity and fairness of the writer less evident. A Frenchman might not admit the defects nor claim all the qualities with which Mr. Brownell endows him. He might insist that he possesses the "poetry of art" denied him, and would grow very indignant at the expressed opinion that Victor Hugo was a greater prose-writer than poet. But how well his conception of *la gloire* is defined, and how proud he would be at the deserved compliment paid to his patriotism, to his readiness to die for *la patrie*, or for an idea that he believes just.

The chapter on "Democracy" is one which he who wishes to form a correct idea of the French Republic, of the state of parties there and their possible influence on the destinies of their country, should read carefully. We are apt to form our opinion upon facts obtained from English sources, and, as Mr. Brownell puts it, "much of the same views and gossip about the French Republic are to be found in the *Figaro* or the *Gaulois*, and in the English and American papers; but the latter only impose upon their readers." After reading Mr. Brownell's 'French Traits,' one will be very apt to lose some of the prejudices and preconceived opinions he has hitherto entertained. He will, moreover, find this book very pleasant reading; while suggestive of much thought, it is bright, discursive, full of fresh ideas, and gives evidence not only of the author's thorough knowledge of his subject, but of his familiarity with the literature and art of the three countries compared—England, France, and the United States.

The closing chapter, "New York after Paris," contains some wholesome criticism, which should be taken in good part. Mr. Brownell says in conclusion: "Life in America has for every one, in proportion to his seriousness, the zest that accompanies the 'advance on Chaos and the Dark.' Meantime, one's last word about the America emphasized by contrast with the organic and *solidaire* society of France is that, for insuring order and efficiency to the lines of this advance, it would be difficult to conceive too gravely the utility of observing attentively the work in the modern world of the only other great nation that follows the democratic standard, and is perennially prepared to make sacrifices for ideas."

The Geography of Marriage; or, Legal Perplexities of Wedlock in the United States. By William L. Snyder. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

THIS book is to be welcomed as a substantial aid to the comprehension of a difficult and important subject. It contains a condensed statement of the law affecting marriage in the several States, giving the requirements as to form of celebration, the regulations concerning infants, forbidden marriages, bigamy, divorce, etc. This statement occupies nearly 150 pages, and is of very obvious value. It is quite sufficient to justify a favorable verdict upon the book, which we should not be disposed to find if we had only the remaining pages before us. Doubtless Mr. Snyder was animated with a laudable desire to popularize his subject when he composed this portion of his work, but we question the wisdom of his methods. His chapters are headed with poetical quotations, and that upon "Clandestine Marriages and Runaway Matches" opens as follows:

"It sometimes happens that a chivalrous suitor entices his sweetheart to climb from the balcony window, in the pale light of the moon, beneath the tender influences of the stars, and accompanies her stealthily, through foliage and shrubbery, or over fields and fragrant gardens, or along silent streets or highways, to the chosen rendezvous where the secret ceremony is to be performed."

Perhaps the most charitable criticism of this sort of writing is that it seems to be liked by the class of persons who stand in need of the warnings contained in this book. But there is much better stuff in it than this. The objections to a national law of marriage and divorce established by constitutional amendment, and the advantages of the alternative plan, are especially well presented.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Rev. L. Signs of Promise: Sermons in Plymouth Pulpit, 1887-9. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Alexander, Mrs. A Crooked Path. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Allen, W. B. Cloud and Cliff; or, Summer Days at the White Mountains. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
American Coin: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Badlam, Anna B. The Primer. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Bickford, L. H. A Hopeless Case: An Unpretentious Narrative. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 30 cents.
Boone, Prof. R. G. Education in the United States, its History from the Earliest Settlements. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Braddon, Miss. The Day Will Come: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Browning, R. Poetical Works. Vol. XV. Dramatic Idyls. Jocoseria. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Carey, Rosa N. The Search for Basil Lyndhurst. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Cary, Rev. H. F. Dante's Purgatorio. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Clip Her Wing, or Let Her Soar. G. W. Dillingham.
Conn, R. R. The Human Moral Problem. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 75 cents.
Cooper, S. W. Three Days: A Midsummer Love-Story. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Croll, J. Stellar Evolution, and its Relation to Geological Time. D. Appleton & Co.
Delitzsch, F. Assyrian Grammar. Translated by Prof. A. R. S. Kennedy. Berlin: H. Reuther; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Dixey, W. The Trade of Authorship. 89 Hicks St., Brooklyn, N. Y.: The Author.
Dod, S. B. Stubble or Wheat? A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 25 cents.
Dods, Rev. M. The First Epistle to the Corinthians. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Dolaro, Selina. The Vengeance of Maurice Denalguez. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Doriot, Sophie. The Beginners' Book in German. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Farjeon, B. L. Three Times Tried, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Faulhaber, Prof. O. One-Year Course in German. 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Fraser, Sir W. Words on Wellington: The Duke—Waterloo—The Ball. London: J. C. Nimmo.
Gibbon, C., etc. Paying the Penalty, and Other Stories. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Goodloe, D. R. The Birth of the Republic. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Haggard, H. R. Cleopatra. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Hale, Lucretia P., and Whitman, Mrs. Bernard. Sunday-School Stories for Little Children. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hall, V. G. Lawn Tennis in America. D. W. Granbery & Co. 25 cents.
Hannan, C. A Swallow's Wing: A Tale of Pekin. Cassell & Co.
Haygood, Rev. A. G. The Man of Galilee. Hunt & Eaton. 80 cents.
Herndon, W. H., and Welk, J. Life of Abraham Lincoln. Belford, Clarke & Co. 3 vols. $4.50.
Hodgkins, Prof. Louise M. Guide to the Study of Nineteenth Century Authors. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hughes, T. Tom Brown at Rugby. Edited by Clara Weaver Robinson. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Japp, A. H. Days with Industrials. London: Trübner & Co.
Jones, R. M. Eli and Sibyl Jones: Their Life and Work. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1.50.
Landon, W. S. Poems, selected and edited by Ernest Radford. London: Walter Scott.
Letters Written by Lord Chesterfield to his Son. Selected by Charles Sayle. London: Walter Scott.
Lightfoot, Rev. J. B. Essays on the Work entitled Supernatural Religion. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Lodge, H. C. George Washington. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
McKeen, Phebe F. Theodora: A Home Story. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Miss Marlowe: A Story of Society. Philadelphia.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 25, 1889.

The Week.

THE expulsion of McDow from the South Carolina Medical Society is the first formal indication that his crime is really condemned by the higher circles of the State. It is a welcome sign, and we give it all the weight and prominence it deserves as proof that the gentleman murderer is no longer free from *all* kinds of punishment in the South. The outspoken sermons, too, of prominent Charleston clergymen against the lax sentiment regarding the sacredness of human life, which was illustrated by McDow's acquittal, are most significant and encouraging. It is much less the practice in the South than in the North for the pulpit to discuss questions of the day, and this fact lends added force to such deliverances as those of the last two Sundays. It really begins to look as though the people of South Carolina were coming to see themselves as others see them in this matter. That is all that is necessary to work a reformation.

The Civil-Service Commission has given a fresh proof of its usefulness and impartiality by a straightforward report as to charges of violation of the Civil-Service Law in the Post-office at Grand Rapids, Mich., under the present Democratic Postmaster. Half-a-dozen clerks in the office have made affidavit that F. A. Hudson, the chief clerk during the campaign of 1888, demanded contributions to the Democratic campaign fund, threatening dismissal in case of refusal—a penalty which was enforced in one case. On the other hand, Hudson has submitted an affidavit specifically denying all the charges, and also copies of letters from two of the clerks mentioned denying the very facts they set forth in their affidavits. Upon which state of things the Commissioners thus comment: "If Mr. Hudson is guilty, he should be prosecuted; if he is not guilty, then the men swearing falsely against him should themselves be prosecuted for entering into a peculiarly infamous conspiracy to blacken his character." As the Commission's powers are limited, especially in the matter of administering oaths and subpœnaing witnesses, it is impossible for it properly to investigate such a case, and, accordingly, all the affidavits and other written matter in its possession have been turned over to the Postmaster-General for such action as he may deem necessary.

The Civil-Service Commissioners have made a valuable report on the Milwaukee Post-office, where their investigation disclosed a disgraceful state of things. It appears that Postmaster Paul, the Democrat appointed by Mr. Cleveland, compelled the secretary of the local board, who was one of his subordinates, to give him free access to the list of eligibles, and forced him to alter the books so as to produce a certification bearing the name of the appointee chosen by the Postmaster; that "the lists of eligibles were twisted and garbled in almost every conceivable manner, in order to produce swindling certificates whereby certain men could be rejected, although entitled to appointment, and other men appointed, although having no rightful claim to the chance"; in short, that "Mr. Paul has grossly and habitually violated the law, and has done it in a peculiarly revolting and underhand manner." The Commissioners conclude that the Postmaster's further continuance in office would be a great misfortune, and recommend his immediate removal. It is said that a Republican Congressman from Milwaukee is Mr. Paul's strongest backer.

Mr. Roosevelt has taken another of the Republican spoilsmen in hand, viz., Sixth-Auditor Coulter, the Ohio man whose idea of the Government is to provide places for the "horn-blowers," and who demanded the resignation of a faithful and efficient clerk, whose fidelity and efficiency he himself confessed, simply because, in his own words, "we want your place." As soon as Mr. Roosevelt heard the story, he went to the Secretary of the Treasury and laid the case before him, the result being a block in Coulter's proceedings. Too much praise cannot be given Mr. Roosevelt for his untiring efforts to secure the carrying out of his party's pledges in the matter of civil-service reform; but, after all, how ridiculous it is for him to try to restrain spoilsmen like Coulter and Clarkson when the President appoints and retains such men. The way to make people believe that the Administration "means business" in this matter is not for Mr. Roosevelt to try to keep up with the tricks of such a fellow as Coulter, but for Gen. Harrison to remove Coulter.

A significant petition has been in circulation for some weeks among the iron-manufacturers of New England. Its text, which is given by the Boston *Herald*, after stating that the signers are members of all political parties, requests New England Senators and Representatives to "insist upon the incorporation of the following provisions in any revised tariff law that shall be enacted:

> "(1.) That iron ore, coal, and coke shall be put upon the free list, as they were before the war; (2) that the duty upon pig-iron and scrap iron and scrap steel which prevailed immediately before the war be restored, to wit: a duty of 24 per cent. ad valorem."

This has been signed so generally, according to the *Herald*, as to encourage the hope that by the time Congress assembles substantially all the iron-working establishments in the Eastern States will have given it their approval. This is the more noteworthy from the fact that practically all these establishments are owned and controlled by Republicans. They are forced to take this step by the conviction that unless relief of the kind proposed is furnished soon, the iron industry of New England will cease to exist.

We have been favored by a protected manufacturer in the interior of this State, Alfred Dolge by name, with a pamphlet copy of his speeches in the late campaign. We are informed in the preface that Mr. Dolge "has searched and studied every authority on these involved and intricate topics. Beginning with Adam Smith and ending with Denslow, Mr. Dolge has studied all the masters in the economic field, including Ricardo, Cary, Karl Marx, Fourier, Proudhon, John Stuart Mill, Sumner, Sismondi, Malthus, Cobden, Spencer, and others." Opening the pamphlet at random, the following paragraph happened to be the first one that we read:

> "Now, for the sake of argument, let us admit that, with free raw material and low wages, the American manufacturer can compete with the European manufacturer. Where is that promised market for his surplus goods? *Can we sell any manufactured goods in Europe*, where they have such an immense surplus of them already that they hail with joy and gladness the possibility of a victory for the free-trade party in America, so that they may flood this country with their wares? 'Oh, no!' says the free-trader. 'There is South America and Australia, countries which do not manufacture at all, but have to buy everything!'"

The works of Marx, Fourier, and Proudhon are a very good preparation for a protectionist stump-speaker, because protection is a form of Socialism; but if Mr. Dolge had bestowed less time on those publications and a little more on those of the United States Government, he would not have fallen into the absurdity noted in the above quotation.

"Can we sell any manufactured goods in Europe?" if we have free raw materials, he asks in a tone of triumph. Well, we should say yes, with some confidence, seeing that we sold to England alone (not including Scotland and Ireland) more than $25,000,000 of manufactured goods in the year 1887, not counting flour, lumber, dairy products, or any of the articles peculiarly indigenous to the soil. Among the free raw materials that we import largely are hides, from which we manufactured for England alone, in the year mentioned, about $7,000,000 worth. We also get a raw material called sugar, from which our refineries turned out for the English market about $6,500,000 worth. From the raw material cotton we produced for the English market nearly $1,000,000 worth, and for foreign markets altogether about $15,000,000 worth. Of machinery, iron, and steel (exclusive of sewing-machines and agricultural implements), we sold in England during that year $860,000 worth; likewise $500,000 of books, maps, and engravings; also more than $500,000 worth of clocks and watches; also $350,000 worth of organs, pianos, and other musical instruments. All of which shows that Mr. Dolge either does not know what he is talking

about, or purposely deceives those who listen to him.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia thinks that the probability is that Chicago will outrank the Quaker City in population in the census of 1900, if not in that of 1890, and that this preëminence will not be due to natural advantages, or to the absorption of surrounding villages, but to greater public spirit, freedom from railway monopoly, and an independent press. On the latter point it remarks that the Chicago newspapers are "not muzzled with passes or silenced by advertisements and social influences." What, we ask, is the meaning of this dark insinuation? Who has been muzzling the press of Philadelphia with advertisements? The most extensive advertiser in that city is Mr. John Wanamaker, or the Wanamaker firm. Mr. Wanamaker does not issue passes (except perhaps on the Western Union Telegraph Co.), but he has been suspected, not exactly of silencing the press with advertisements, but of making it voluble with praises of himself and his Sunday-school doings and his financiering in the field of politics. When the *Manufacturer* throws out such insinuations, it ought to explain what it means, and not leave people at a distance to form surmises which may be unjust both to itself and to Mr. Wanamaker.

Mr. Wanamaker's attempt to issue a general pass to the Government over the lines of the Western Union Telegraph Company is one of the most curious features of the policy of the new Administration. The law authorizes the Postmaster-General to fix the rate at which the Government's telegraphing shall be done by private companies just as it authorizes the fixing of the rate for railway postal service. But it was never contemplated that the rate should be less than cost. One-tenth of a cent per word, the rate fixed by Mr. Wanamaker for telegraphing, is less than the average cost of delivery of the message after it has been transmitted. It may cover the cost of the stationery furnished by the telegraph companies, but it cannot cover the cost of bookkeeping, collection, and postage. In fact, the postage paid by the companies on the vouchers required by the Government auditors will often exceed the amount of money to be collected for the telegraph service rendered. For example, an officer on a frontier post telegraphs to Washington a ten-word message of an Indian disturbance. The compensation for this message is one cent. The message itself must be forwarded as a voucher because the Government does not accept secondary evidence. If it happens to be the only one sent from that station during the month, the postage on it will be double the amount of the money to be collected for telegraphing it. Therefore it would be a saving to the telegraph company not to collect it at all. Probably it would be a saving to make the Government a deadhead out and out, because in that case all expense for bookkeeping and registering would be avoided, and this is probably as much as one mill per word. Mr. Wanamaker's order has the taint of demagogism, or downright oppression, or both.

Judging from the character of the instructions sent to the collectors of customs at El Paso and Eagle Pass, enjoining them to take pains to see that the silver ore which comes into this country from Mexico does really contain more silver in value than lead, the inference is warranted that Secretary Windom does not intend to reverse the decisions and practice of his five predecessors in office (including himself) that those ores are entitled to admission free of duty. The instructions are in part as follows:

"(1.) The sworn entry shall embrace, in addition to what is now required, a statement of the estimated quantities and values of silver and lead contained in the importation, according to the best knowledge and belief of the importer or consignee.

"(2.) The entry shall further contain a declaration that the importation embraces no mixtures of ores or concentrates from different mines.

"It is suggested that in the execution of these instructions care should be taken equally not to unnecessarily detain ores wherein silver so clearly predominates as to fix their character commercially as silver ores; nor to admit without assessment of duty those ores wherein the value of their components of lead appears to exceed that of the silver contained in such ores."

That is all very proper, but is probably what the collectors have been doing all along. If it were intended to reverse the previous decision, it is not likely that any of these instructions would have been sent to the border.

Mr. Abraham Remsen, examiner in charge of the sugar-room, and Messrs. Twamley and Cole, sugar-samplers, all of whom were removed from office by Secretary Fairchild for alleged "sugar frauds," were reinstated at the instance of Appraiser Cooper last Thursday, after an investigation made by a special agent of the Treasury Department. Mr. John S. McElwee, the person appointed by Mr. Fairchild examiner in charge of the sugar-room after he had been discharged by Appraiser McMullen for drunkenness and insubordination, at once tendered his resignation; but as an investigation was pending into his competency and character, the resignation was not accepted. These reinstatements will be as grievous to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* as that of Examiner Bowne, whose return to his post was chronicled some weeks ago. The *Bulletin* informs us *in italics* that the Boston sugar-importers have not commenced proceedings to recover the money wrongfully exacted of them by the bad polariscoping from which they suffered prior to the report of the National Academy of Sciences. Their complaints, it says, "were dismissed on June 18, 1888. The Boston Custom-house has no notification of any suit brought for the recovery of duties wrongfully collected on account of polariscope tests, nor has any protest and appeal been filed. Without this protest the plaintiff has no standing in court." It is true that a protest against the wrongful assessment of duties must be filed within ten days, and that if not so filed, there can be no recovery at law. It is true, we believe, that the Boston importers did not discover that they had been wrongfully deprived of their property until after the expiration of ten days. But it appears that they did make complaint, and we know that they did take steps to recover their money, and we think it altogether likely that they will go to Congress with the same kind of proof of the goodness of their claim that they would have produced in court if they had not been cut off in the manner here stated.

The Ballot-Reform Bill which has been presented to the New Hampshire Legislature by Mr. Branch of Weare is an excellent measure, modelled closely upon the Massachusetts law, and containing, therefore, all the important principles of the Australian system. It provides for exclusively official ballots, for secret voting, and for nominations by means of petitions or nomination papers, as well as by the regular party organizations. The prospects for the bill to become a law are somewhat uncertain. There are much the same conditions in New Hampshire that there were in Connecticut. Public sentiment earnestly demands the passage of a reform bill, but the politicians are opposed to any change in present methods, and while they will not take the risk of defeating the bill openly, they will spare no effort to defeat it by indirection. It could not be expected that a Legislature which had just reëlected "Bill" Chandler to the United States Senate would show much toleration for any reform, especially a reform so purely "theoretical" as this is assumed by its opponents to be. We notice that some of the Republican organs of the State are troubled, as were Gov. Hill and Gov. Bulkeley, about the "complications" of the Australian system. They are very much afraid that it will prove cumbersome in practice, and are repeating the familiar misstatement that it has never yet been tried in this country. It has been tried in Louisville, Ky., and has worked so successfully that there is a general demand for its application to the entire State. It has been tried, in a modified but still "complicated" form, in Milwaukee, and worked so well in two elections that the Wisconsin Legislature at its recent session passed a law making a full adaptation of the Australian system applicable to the whole State.

What becomes of the descendants of kings not in the line of succession? is a question often asked. Hundreds of Plantagenets, the London *Economist* tells us, are simple commoners, earning their living like other Englishmen. And why should not the descendants of George III. do the same? The question is started by the proposed Parliamentary grant to the Princess Louise, who is about to marry Lord Fife. The *Economist* thinks that the grant must be made, but it sees coming a time when such grants will not be made, and when the immediate descendants of royalty will have to depend on the savings of the Crown, or "go into

business" like other people. In order to anticipate the time when democratic ideas shall have so far got the upper hand that Parliamentary grants cannot be had, it suggests the creation of a fund to be formed by the capitalization of various Crown properties, such as the Duchies of Cornwall and Lancaster, the unused royal palaces, etc., plus a grant from Parliament for this single purpose, the whole fund to be administered by trustees, like the fund of an insurance or investment company. The proceeds of this fund should, however, be strictly delimited, because "the country cannot provide for an unlimited clan." There must be a line drawn "beyond which the descendants of George III. shall not be entitled by any law or any rule of etiquette to any provision or any rank not attained by individual service." As to the matter of rank merely, the *Economist* shows that there may be, in the year 1950, two hundred male persons entitled to sit in the House of Lords solely by reason of their descent from George III., constituting a peerage in themselves, and this would be almost a scandal to the British Constitution.

Our British cousins are not always wise in commercial matters, and they are slow to change even when they know that they are wrong. One of their laws provides that when anybody receives a light-weight gold coin in payment, he shall "cut, break, or deface it," and that "the person tendering the same shall bear the loss." To make the latter provision effectual, the person receiving the coin must hand the fragments back to the payer, and then demand a good one in exchange for it. The theory of the law embraces the following points: (1) That every person knows a light-weight coin when he sees it or feels it; (2) that he always has a pair of scales handy with which to prove that the coin actually is light; (3) that he keeps also a vice or other machine suitable for breaking gold coins in half; (4) that he will habitually be eager to offend his customers by breaking up their money and handing the parts back to them so that they can go to the bullion-broker and sell the pieces. This law has been in force for many years, and has been a dead letter everywhere except at bank counters, where coin is habitually weighed in bulk, not piece by piece. If a hundred sovereigns offered for deposit do not weigh a hundred sovereigns, the light coin is searched for, broken on the wheel, and handed back to the depositor according to law. An ingenious mechanism exists at the Bank of England by which any number of coins can be put into a hopper and run through an aperture at the bottom, each one falling on the arm of a lever, the light ones dropping on one side and the good ones on the other. But as a matter of fact very few light ones ever find their way to the Bank. They circulate from hand to hand long after their lightness is apparent to any skilled observer. Probably no private person ever broke a coin tendered to him in payment, unless in the way of revenge, as he might pull the nose of the payer if he had legal authority to do so.

This law is a clumsy device to carry into effect the injustice of putting upon the last holder of a light coin the whole loss incurred by the abrasion of a hundred or more years. The coin may have suffered the entire loss of metallic weight before the holder was born, yet if he is ignorant and easily imposed upon, he is liable to have his twenty shillings turned into nineteen and sixpence by a legal hocus-pocus at any time. He is only spared this misfortune by a consensus of opinion that, since all are liable to be mulcted in this way, all will unite in disregarding such an absurd law. Thus the abrasion of the gold coinage has gone on from generation to generation, till at last something must be done. Mr. Goschen, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, has brought in a bill by the terms of which the mint is to receive all the light coins of earlier date than the reign of Queen Victoria, provided they shall not show signs of intentional abrasion, sweating, or defacement, and give new ones in exchange for them. It is estimated that not more than £5,000,000 of pre-Victorian coins are now in existence. To deal with the Victorian coins will be a much more serious matter. Probably when it becomes necessary to take these in hand, the expense will be met by an issue of one-pound notes.

The adjournment of the Spanish Cortes till autumn, as reported by the telegraph, leaving both the budget and the suffrage measure unacted upon, appears to imply a check to the plans and hopes of Sagasta. The new session opened most auspiciously for him. Violent attacks upon his Administration were made by the Conservative orators, backed up by bitter speeches from dissident Liberals, like Robledo and Dominguez. The object was to renew the noisy altercations of the previous session and to delay the Government's business. The Ministry met this scheme in the best possible way—by maintaining almost absolute silence. They gave their opponents every opportunity to assault, but, beyond two brief and cold speeches from the Government, no attention was paid to the passionate attacks of their enemies. The latter soon got sick of a fight on such terms and gave way to the public business. This was moving along smoothly and rapidly at the last mail accounts. The tax on alcohol was voted, the new law of legal liability was passed, and an important amendment incorporated into the Military Law. Good progress was also made in the discussion of the budget for Spain and Cuba. Sagasta was understood to have declared that the budget must be voted and at least the first section of the Suffrage Bill passed before he would adjourn the Cortes, threatening to hold the Deputies in Madrid through all the heated term, if necessary. Evidently he has not done it. A new combination of his opponents may have forced his hand, or, more likely, the enthusiasm of his followers may not have been equal to the July heat, and they may have called for a recess.

A few weeks ago we noted the assertion by Don Carlos of his right to the throne of France, and that he had made the Prince de Valori his accredited representative. Since then he has written a letter to M. Dubourg, who has been one of the most trusted agents of the Comte de Chambord, which has just got into print, and which contains some interesting paragraphs. Don Carlos says that he looks to his uncle's illustrious example to aid him in directing the affairs of his two kingdoms. "The party of the Revolution is in this year 1889 celebrating the revolt of a hundred years ago against God's rights. We, who have the happiness of being faithful to our traditions of a thousand years, make answer to the centenary in the consoling words that Christ used to the humble men of Paray-le-Monial." He does not quote these consoling words, which are not to be found in any Gospel known to New Testament critics, though probably familiar to devout French Royalists, but goes on: "I wish to unite with the French Catholics in rendering public homage to the Sacred Heart, even as I commemorated in Spain the thirteenth centenary of King Recaredo's conversion. It is constantly made evident that God protects these two glorious nations." The letter shows much faith, and even more hope—in fact, an almost heroic degree of those great virtues. It is also very devout; for if Don Carlos believes, as he doubtless does, that the interests of the house of Bourbon are especially a care of the Divine Being, he must often have forced upon him the lesson that Divine Providence is inscrutable and moves in mysterious ways.

The elections for members of the provincial Diets of Bohemia and Galicia, held June 30, issued in results that have much significance. In Bohemia there has long been considerable antagonism between the Czech and German elements of the population. The former have stood for a greater measure of local control of local affairs, while the latter have been thorough imperialists. An attempt was made to stave off the struggle between the two nationalities and the two policies by uniting all the great landed proprietors in a common party, irrespective of the differences mentioned; but this failed completely, and the election was contested as a fight between Czech and German, between home rule and imperial domination. The battle resulted in a great triumph for the "Young Czech" party, under Count Taafe, which carried twenty-nine out of forty-nine seats—a gain of twenty-three seats. The Germans are naturally cast down over their defeat, and the imperial Government is reported to be much concerned over the prospect of a demand for a Bohemian Constitution drawn on the lines of that granted to Hungary. Count Taafe, indeed, has all along held out this consummation as the thing to be striven for, though he may not find it so easy to reach as he maintained it was before the election. In Galicia, too, the nobility lost five seats to their opponents; and in the next Diet of the province the unprecedented spectacle will be presented of seven members taking their seats as peasants, elected by a peasants' party.

THE TYPICAL TANNER.

THE performances of Corporal Tanner as Commissioner of Pensions are exciting more attention daily, and there is a belief in some quarters that sooner or later the Administration will have to get rid of him. We are unable to see why the President or the Republican party should be dissatisfied with Tanner's course. He is carrying out in the Pension Bureau the idea which possessed the whole Republican party when it returned to power last March. That idea was and is that this country, especially its National Treasury, is the property of the Republican party to use according to its pleasure. On the 4th of March last the leading organ of the party said, without a suspicion that there was anything unpatriotic or unworthy in the sentiment, "The Republican party comes into its own to-day." President Harrison has been carrying out the same idea with unflagging zeal every hour since he entered upon his duties. The selection of Tanner as Commissioner of Pensions was, in fact, an ideal appointment to be made by a President who had come into power with such a notion in his own head and in that of his party behind him. The United States Treasury having become the private property of the Republican party, and the veterans of the war having voted to make it such property, why, of course, they should have some of its benefits. Public office a public trust? Not a bit of it. Public office is a Republican bonanza.

Tanner says that the President told him when he appointed him that he wished him to be "liberal to the boys," and that is just what he is. He said in a speech at Chicago a day or two ago: "I tell you frankly that I am for the 'old flag and an appropriation' for every old comrade who needs it. I don't claim that I represent the views of the Administration, but I do know that I have the support of the President and Cabinet on this line—a pension for every old soldier who needs one." As was only natural in a bureau in which a policy of this kind was known to be in force, the employees were among the first of the "old comrades" to feel the need, not merely of a pension, but of more pension. Tanner had declared himself the foe of low pensions and in favor of rerating all such to figures more worthy the veterans who received them. His entire force have been devoting their energies to rerating not only other pensions, but their own. Pensions of $4 a month were rerated to $30 a month, and the difference of $26 a month made up for all the years, twenty-five perhaps, during which the smaller sum had been paid. In one division of the Pension Bureau—the medical—five examiners had their pensions rerated, several of them from $4 to $30, giving them arrears amounting from $1,500 to $3,000. Naturally, medical examiners who had been blessed in this manner were in an amiable frame of mind towards pensioners who wished to be examined in order to learn if they had not in them hitherto unnoticed grounds upon which a rerating of their pensions might be made. One pensioner at least has been rerated twice, his arrears under the first amounting to $1,000, and under the second to $1,500 more.

Why should complaint be made that Tanner in carrying out this policy is demoralizing the Pension Bureau by exciting among its employees a positive craze to be rerated and get some of the Treasury money? Why should complaint be made that he is also demoralizing the great body of veterans throughout the country by exciting the same craze among them? Why should the Secretary of the Interior step in and remove, in Tanner's absence, several of the medical examiners who had been carrying out Tanner's policy in rerating pensions? Surely they are not to be punished for doing what their superior officer wished them to do, and what he himself was doing in accordance with the President's instructions to be "liberal to the boys." The entire policy of a national administration and a national party cannot be reversed by cutting off the heads of a few subordinates in a bureau who were simply obeying orders.

The only way by which Tanner can be checked and his policy reversed, is to remove him because he is too liberal. Will the Republican party and its President venture to take the position that any policy towards the soldier vote *can* be too liberal — so long as there is a dollar left in the Treasury? They have chosen Tanner, and must they not stand by him till the end of the chapter? For, after all, what is he doing that the President and other members of his Cabinet are not doing also? He is using public office as if it were private property, and so are they. All this is Republican policy. The protected manufacturers have made no concealment of their conviction that, since their money secured the return of the party "to its own" last fall, they were entitled to such Treasury decisions and to such legislation as would bring as much as possible of that money back into their own pockets again. The whole tone has been: "We have bought and paid for this business, and we now propose to divide the profits of it among ourselves." Can such a party "go back on Tanner"?

THE VANDERBILT PORTRAIT AGAIN.

A CORRESPONDENT writes to tell us that the severe rule recently applied to the reimportation of the Vanderbilt portrait is not new. He describes how Secretary Bristow, on the advice of Solicitor Bluford Wilson, decided that there was no law under which permission could be granted to export a picture for repairs and then reimport it, except on condition of paying the full duty a second time on the entire value of the painting, although the Collector of Customs at Cincinnati was of the opinion that in such a case the painting would not be dutiable.

We have not, however, inquired what the Treasury decision should have been in the Vanderbilt case, or in our correspondent's case. Our purpose, a few days ago, was to emphasize Mr. Chauncey Depew's objection to the customs tax on the Vanderbilt portrait, notwithstanding the great enhancement given to the general prosperity by taxes on imported property, and to call attention to the official incompetency implied in the two contradictory Treasury decisions given within six months on facts precisely similar. The decisions in the Schuyler and Vanderbilt cases cannot stand together, and in the Schuyler case the opinion of the Cincinnati Collector was affirmed. The Treasury Department, in November, 1888, gave precisely the permission to export and reimport which was refused to our correspondent. This is the text of the decision in 1888 in Westcott's case:

> With regard to the painting of Mr. E. G. Westcott of Hartford, Conn., which he states he proposes to take to Europe with him, and to bring back to the United States, you are informed that, in accordance with the recent instructions addressed to you in the Schuyler case, the painting may on its return be admitted to free entry, on its identity being established as a painting heretofore imported and subjected to payment of duty, the Department holding that, as it is *a household effect*, which has been in use for many years by Mr. Westcott, it may be considered as not an importation of merchandise within the meaning of the statute. Respectfully yours,
>
> H. S. THOMPSON,
> Acting Secretary.

Whether or not this decision was correct we do not now inquire. It seems, at first glance, to be reasonable and just.

The warehouse laws, enacted and perfected during Robert J. Walker's term, permit exportation of goods imported and placed in bond. But in such circumstances the goods have never paid taxes and never been out of Government possession. In the Westcott case, the Treasury insisted on adequate precautions to identify the painting as one that had once paid duty.

In his letter to the Collector of Customs at New York on the Vanderbilt portrait, Assistant-Secretary Tichenor said that article 547 of the general regulations prescribes that "*dutiable merchandise* imported and afterwards exported, although it may have paid duty on the first importation, is liable to duty on every subsequent importation in the United States." This article, Mr. Tichenor says, is founded on the fact that the provisions of the law imposing duty make no distinction between the original and subsequent importations of merchandise.

It had first to be decided whether or not the Vanderbilt portrait was "dutiable merchandise," or, in a tariff sense, "merchandise" of any sort. In November, 1888, the Department said that a portrait, similarly situated, was *not* either of the two, but was a "household effect." If Mr. Vanderbilt had resided in Paris for one year, with the portrait hanging in his rooms all the time, it would have ceased to be "dutiable merchandise." Why not if in his house in New York; the exemption being by Treasury regulation, and not by statute?

The law exempts from tax the baggage of an arriving passenger. A life-size portrait cannot be classified as a traveller's ordinary baggage, although small miniatures or photographs may be. Yet furniture that has been in use one year is admitted free as "personal effects," even when the passenger does not accompany it. Again, an ex-diplomatic agent of ours may bring in without payment of duty articles which would be taxable if imported by an ordinary citizen, although

there is no law authorizing such distinction. What statute, we might ask, exempts a railway car or a horse and carriage from duty each time it enters our territory from Canada or Mexico? The truth is, that common sense is supposed to govern in a multitude of cases where the law is manifestly absurd. Common sense was applied to the case of the Schuyler portrait and was withheld in that of the Vanderbilt portrait.

Inability, or incompetency, to be *just*, as between tariff-beneficiaries and taxpayers, may account in part for the bonnet-trimming and worsted decisions, as well as for the portrait partisanship. But if the inability or incompetency exists, there is surely a need of reform somewhere, by somebody, to remedy the evil of vacillation and contradiction in executive interpretation of the tax laws. The power now assumed by the Treasury to decide what shall be taxed and what shall not be taxed, or, if taxed, then the rate of tax, is a power too tremendous in the consequences of its exercise to be lodged in executive hands. Do we adequately appreciate the character and reach of the power to tax, to loose and unloose, which an Assistant Secretary of the Treasury now usurps, including the power to say not merely when the decision of a magistrate (like Judge Blodgett of Chicago) shall be rejected, but when a decision of the Supreme Court shall be nullified under the disguise of preparing another case for a reargument of questions already once decided by the same tribunal?

MR. WIMAN ON THE EVILS OF COMPETITION.

Somebody has been so kind as to send us a marked copy of *Electric Power*, a monthly magazine conducted with much ability, the marked article being entitled "The Waste of Competition," by Erastus Wiman. Mr. Wiman is a gentleman of distinction and versatility, and what he says is always worth reading. The article in question is a defence of Trusts, and the sum and substance of it is embodied in the saying that "it would certainly pay two-thirds of the traders in the land to board and lodge the remaining one-third, if they would simply get out of business and cease to annoy and impoverish by expensive competition." If Mr. Wiman had said that it would pay two-thirds of the people of the United States to board and lodge the remaining third if they would simply get out of business, he would have suggested an arrangement which might probably be made if the board and lodging were of the kind that he elsewhere prescribes for them—namely, the best hotels in the country, with tickets to the theatre every night. This would mean that 40,000,000 of people should provide first-class accommodations for the remaining 20,000,000, on the simple condition that the latter should knock off work. The only difficulty, we imagine, would be in stopping the rush of deadheads to the hotels and theatres. Too many people would want to knock off work.

But Mr. Wiman does not mean this; he means that two-thirds of a very limited class in the community could well afford to board and lodge the remaining third *of that class*, if thereby they could make 60,000,000 people pay whatever prices they might ask for the necessaries of life. If he does not thus in terms express himself, it is because he failed to complete his sentences. Moreover, among his mental reservations there was probably one implying that the two-thirds who were supporting the one-third in idleness, should deal in a perfectly just, humane, and kindly way with the 60,000,000, but still that the power of deciding what is kindly, humane, and just should remain with themselves.

Mr. Wiman tells us further that "in the end the public pay for all the extraordinary expenses incident to competition." If that is so, why should the traders object to it? If these expenses are refunded to them, why should they be so eager to go into Trusts? We suspect that this statement is as misleading as the other one. To take an example: Suppose that three persons are supplying a community with shoes, and a fourth, a boy, born in the community, grows up with an aptitude for shoemaking, or is under the necessity of making shoes for a living. (Of course he must exercise some productive industry, or become a pauper, or perhaps a burglar.) In order to get trade he reduces the price of shoes. This, according to Mr. Wiman, causes "terrible expense" to the other three, but what he means is not an increase of expense, but a lessening of profits. The two things mean the same to the shoemakers, but not to the public. The public do not "pay for all the extraordinary expenses" of the shoemakers, because there are none to pay. But, it may be said, they are now supporting four shoemakers where they only supported three. They would have to support four *persons* any way, unless they allowed one of them to starve. But the public are paying no more for shoes than before—by the hypothesis, rather less.

Mr. Wiman gives us some particulars. "Does any one suppose," he asks, "that petroleum would be as cheap as it is to-day if the Standard Oil Company had not existed?" We are able to suppose this without overexertion. Why not? Because, according to Mr. Wiman, the $30,000,000 capital necessary to construct the pipe lines never could have been got if competition had existed. This, then, would have been the first instance where capital could not be found to do remunerative work. As there was no difficulty in getting $30,000,000 to build the West Shore Railway, the remunerative character of which was always doubtful, we should say that Mr. Wiman's apprehensions in this case were quite unfounded and imaginary, the more especially since his whole argument goes on the theory that there is too much capital crowding in every direction. That is what the "waste of competition" means.

Mr. Wiman introduces Mr. F. B. Thurber as a valuable witness. Mr. Thurber, he says, "was the spirited and successful leader of the anti monopoly movement in the Empire State, and was then just as sincere as he is now in his thoughtful and intelligent appreciation of the necessities of combination for the good of the people, as for those more directly concerned." While we were musing on this "oscillation of the pendulum of thought," as Mr. Wiman happily puts it, we received the Prospectus of the North American Salt Company, which says that it is not a Trust, but which seems to be an improved form of Trust intended to evade the laws and court decisions that have been made since Trusts came in fashion, and about the most impudent one of the lot. The Treasurer of this proposed monopoly is H. K. Thurber of Messrs. Thurber, Whyland & Co., wholesale grocers and salt-merchants, a firm of which Mr. F. B. Thurber is a member. It appears, also, that Mr. Wiman himself is engaged to turn over all the salt-producing properties of Canada to this concern. Sufficient reasons are now apparent for the oscillation of Mr. Thurber's pendulum of thought, and also for Mr. Wiman's argument, without going into more abstruse questions. The State of Pennsylvania makes conspiracies of this kind on the part of coal-operators punishable by imprisonment.

THE LANGUAGE PROBLEM IN NORWAY.

With the awakening of the national spirit in Norway made manifest by the constitutional struggle in the Storthing and the unceasing popular propaganda of national independence, has come also a movement for educational reform, a revival of literature, and an increased activity in all branches of intellectual effort. As a necessary corollary to this latter phase of the subject, and corroboratory of it, has arisen, in its turn, a critical scrutiny of the language recognized as the national norm, and out of it, again, has grown a contest but little less bitter than the more generally known political duels which, of late years, from time to time have been fought between the legislative power and the executive.

With linguistic conditions as they exist and have existed in Norway, this result when, finally, an appeal should be made to nationalistic separatism, was almost inevitably sure to follow. Norway, down to the Calmar Union of 1397, had developed her language independently of the other Scandinavian kingdoms, whose speech, although at the beginning nothing more nor less than dialectic variations from a common original, had, nevertheless, before this time, as a result of unlike national growth, struck out into diverging paths of their own. Of them all, the language of Norway, as well as can be judged at the present time, had a condition of the greatest stability and homogeneity, and appears, even at this epoch, to have had a recognized standard of literary expression. Under normal conditions of national development there is good reason to suppose that a language which once, through a process of natural selection, had acquired such a literary precedence, would afterwards be tacitly accepted as authoritative. It would have changed in process of time, as every language changes, even when left to pursue its own course undisturbed by outside political intervention; such changes, moreover, would have been little or great according to circumstances of environment, but always, none the less, would still be in the direction of historical continuity. With the introduction of the Danish sovereignty, however, entered the disturbing cause that prevented the realization of this supposed result, and a state of things came about that has lasted for nearly five centuries and practically prevails to-day.

Norway, under Danish rule, underwent complete national extinction. There is, at first, from time to time, a flickering spirit of resistance, but there is no trace of concerted action. At last, the process of denationalization was consummated, and Norway was declared, without protest on the part of the Norwegians, to be but a province of Denmark. Even the Reformation failed to arouse her from her lethargy, and not until 1814, in the universal indignation evoked at the cession of Norway to Sweden by the Peace of Kiel, was there evidence of an awakening.

A necessary concomitant of the Danish system of governing was the use of the Danish language as its only means of expression, and, in a time comparatively short, Danish had become not only the official, but also the political, and the only written language of all Norway. With the advent of the Reformation by way of Denmark, Danish again became the language of the Church; and when public instruction was extended in the schools, and literature was once more produced, Danish was naturally, as a result not only of political but of intellectual dependency, doubly, and one would think indelibly, impressed upon the people. Nor is there reason to suppose, as some patriotic Norsemen do, that this result was anything other than an effect of the political connection with Denmark. There are, it is true, at the time of the Calmar Union, already traces of dialectic division and consequent instability in the language of Norway, but that is paralleled in the history of other Teutonic languages which have, nevertheless, maintained themselves in unbroken continuity down to the present day. What rendered the process in this instance comparatively easy was the fact that Danish was in reality but a Scandinavian dialect, differing, after all, only in minor points from the language destined to supplant it. The general apathy with which the change was viewed gives the true clue to the ethics of the case.

The spectacle presented in Norway during all these years has been, from a linguistic point of view, a curious, though not perhaps an unparalleled, one. It is very much what we may suppose to have existed in somewhat similar kind in England after the Conquest, when Norman French was the language of political administration and of polite society, though English never ceased to be spoken by the great majority of the people, and still maintained a vigorous, if homely, existence down about the roots in which were the sources of the subsequent national life. As in England, so in Norway, nothing has materially interfered with the continuity of the national dialects; they have never died out. They have doubtless been influenced by the language of culture, and their natural course of development has been retarded or deflected; new words representing the new ideas of modern civilized life have been in the great majority of cases taken in from Danish, and the comparatively flexionless character of Danish grammar has doubtless exerted in its turn a levelling tendency upon the fuller forms of the dialects. Nevertheless, they have still every right to be considered the living and lively representatives in legitimate descent of the old national language of Norway, which they are entitled to represent should opportunity again make the demand upon them.

The steady persistence of the popular dialects, in the face of the acceptance and use of a language over them, naturally gave rise to still further complications. The fact that the written language, the language of culture and of instruction, was different from the spoken language of every-day life, necessitated, in the case of all but a small minority of the population of Norway, the learning of two languages instead of the one which under ordinary circumstances is sufficient for the usual purposes of communication. Danish, in such cases, was naturally the acquired language; in countless instances, moreover, it was imperfectly acquired, and the cause of popular education has, in past years, beyond a doubt, irremediably suffered by the attempt to impart instruction by means of Danish. To the people themselves, however, is chargeable in great degree the fostering and growth of conditions under which they have as surely been made to suffer. Among themselves they have seemed to consider the language of the dialects good enough. In the presence of others even of their own nationality, a resort, however, has been and is still unerringly made to Norwegian-Danish, and this not necessarily at all from a desire to render themselves more intelligible, but solely from the fear lest they be adjudged less cultivated than they would like to appear.

The formal loosening, in 1814, of the long connection with Denmark, did not materially change existing conditions, as they have been described, either in the spoken or the written language of the land. With the new outburst of patriotism, it not unnaturally became the fashion to characterize as "Norwegian," without much discrimination, almost everything that existed in Norway. The language forms no exception, and we hear to-day of the "Norwegian language," when in point of fact we have but the unbroken perpetuation of the language which the Danes, at the beginning of their sovereignty five hundred years ago, introduced into the country. It is true that the language, as a result of its contact with the popular dialects, has been, in its turn, affected both in pronunciation and vocabulary, and markedly differentiates itself in both respects from the present Danish of Denmark. From its more virile pronunciation and the strong and picturesque expressions that have consciously and unconsciously found their way in from the peasant dialects, it is, in many respects, a better language than Danish; the vocabulary and idiom of Björnson and Ibsen contrasted, wholly aside from the question of intellectual force, with anything produced by their contemporaries in Denmark, abundantly proves, in these latter points, the truth of this assertion. The language they write, however, is "Norwegian" in no other sense than that, for instance, the language of America is "American" and not English.

Norway, then, at the present day has no national language, unless it be found among the spoken dialects of the peasants, and these deviate from each other in a very marked degree. The dialect of the east, for instance, is materially different from the dialect of the west, each, on its own side of the central mountain region, having gone its own way but little influenced by the other; within such broad divisions, again, there are minor subdivisions, and the inhabitant of a certain valley may even reveal to the initiated his place of abode by his speech alone. The result to the nation of such a linguistic condition is perfectly well recognized by the Norwegians themselves, and attempts have been and are strenuously being made to fix upon some one form of language which shall be given official sanction as the national language of Norway, and shall serve, consequently, as the language of all literature, of the State and Church and of public instruction, and ultimately become the one language of the whole people. The way to a realization of a widely wished result has proved, however, to be beset with unanticipated difficulties. While the project of a national language has been actively upheld by the people, and the promoters of the movement have clearly a majority in the Storthing, which has attempted to further it by large money appropriations, the whole question is apparently as far from a settlement as ever. Instead of the necessary unanimity of action, sectional jealousy has arisen between the different parts of the country lest the accepted language should represent the already existing speech of its neighbor more fully than its own. Still worse than this, because among its apostles, if at all, a concerted movement might have been expected, personal animus, not to call it animosity, has arisen between the advocates of the different forms of language submitted as a standard, and, instead of the one needed, a round half-dozen "national languages" have been evolved and become the subject of many a heated polemic in newspapers and brochures.

The movement for a *Landsmaal*, or national language, first found expression in literature as long ago as 1848, when Ivar Aasen wrote a 'Grammar of the Norwegian Folk-Language.' Aasen's grammar is based upon the spoken language of the southwest part of the land, particularly that of Bergens Stift, since that locality seems to him to approach nearest in its pronunciation the written forms of the old language; where the dialects differ, the oldest "westland" form is chosen. Aasen, accordingly, seeks his starting point and his justification in Old Norse, a fact which his critics do not hesitate to use against him. Professor Moltke Moe, for instance, calls attention to what is undeniably a fact, that where weight is laid in this manner upon a connection with the past, the language will represent a preceding period and not the present; that it will be "a sort of Middle Norse and not New Norse." Aasen's language, called, further, by Professor Joh. Storm of Christiania, in a recent widely noticed book on the subject, "an astonishing work of art," is, nevertheless, the rational and conservative production of a man who had a fine linguistic feeling and a thorough knowledge of his ground. It is classical in form, pure in vocabulary, and picturesque in its mode of expression. Above all, the author has in it struck the true tone of the folk-life of the North, and Storm himself is constrained to add: "One may contend about forms, but the spirit was there." Aasen's first grammar was followed by literary specimens of the new language, reading books, and various translations into it of widely different originals. It has been used, in greater or less purity, by many Norwegian writers—notably by Kristoffer Janson, Henrik Krohn, and Professor Blix.

Aasen's *Landsmaal* was not long left in undisturbed possession of the field. The first important deviation from it was the language used by A. O. Vinje, an author of unmistakable originality and force, who, particularly through the periodical *Dölen*, made an active propaganda for his form of a national language. In the main he follows Aasen; in other points he differs from him materially in that he often uses the dialect of Telemark, especially where its forms more nearly approach Old Norse. Vinje's idea, developed gradually in the course of his work, seems to have been to use exclusively neither "westland" nor "eastland" forms, but a compromise (literally on central ground) that should smooth the way for both, and render less abrupt the transition from one to the other. After Vinje's death, in 1870, the feeling that neither of the proposed forms of a *Landsmaal* was near enough to the

spoken language of a great part of the land to meet with universal acceptance, seems to have forced itself upon those who were interested in the cause. Fjörtoft of Söndmöre will do away with all old and effete forms, and give currency and authority only to the actual, living forms of the present language. Schjött of Skien takes very much the same stand, and writes a dialect in many respects similar. While both are "westland," Schjött's language has in many points more sharply developed "eastland" characteristics. Garborg and Mortenson, both editors of the journal *Fedraheimen*, in their reading-book make use of a dialect which Storm calls a compromise between Aasen and Vinje. It is "westland" with "eastland" peculiarities, yet not to the extent to which they are found in Fjörtoft and Schjött.

The strife, as thus far represented, has concerned itself only with the dialects of the west and the east. Aasen's language was wholly "westland"; the other proposed forms have one and all had "eastland" characteristics as well, and other writers on the subject, notably K. Knudsen, demand still further representation, if it is desired to make the *Landsmaal* the real language of the land. To complicate the matter, northern Norway now puts forward its claims to consideration, and two forms, different only in minor points, of the dialect of the district about Trondhjem have been presented as a *Landsmaal* by Ivar and O. J. Höyem respectively. Although this Trond dialect seems to have met with but scant general favor, it has, however, acquired an extraordinary importance in the history of the struggle for a national language from the fact that the Storthing made an appropriation of several thousand crowns to provide for the free distribution of O. J. Höyem's 'Sacred and Church History' throughout Norway.

At the present day, the question as to what shall constitute the *Landsmaal* seems as far from settlement as ever. What has really been accomplished is a survey of the field and a more or less complete realization of the magnitude and difficulty of the proposed task. If it has not yet been determined what the national speech shall be, it has, on the other hand, been pretty well decided what it shall not be. In the meantime, suggested forms of a common language are becoming more numerous even than has been pointed out, and what is most remarkable is the fact emphasized by Professor Storm, that scarcely a single grammatical form has been proposed concerning which there is complete unanimity. A real *Landsmaal*, then, thus far does not exist. The dialects exist, but the only national language, the only form of speech common to all Norway, is, and apparently will long remain, the Norwegian-Danish, which this movement so anxiously desires to supplant. The attitude of the Government in the matter is, from a distance, inconsistent and not wholly intelligible. As long ago as 1885 the School Commission proposed that "the *Landsmaal* and the literary language [*i. e.*, Norwegian-Danish] shall be placed upon an equal footing in instruction in the common schools of the land." It, however, neglects to specify which one of the many proposed forms of the *Landsmaal* is intended to be used, and leaves the matter in as great confusion as before.

Although unanimity of action would seem to be a first vital step towards the realization of the desired end, it would neither be under the circumstances the only one necessary, nor would it be unconditionally indicative of success even if it should ultimately result. Wherever in the past a dialect has been elevated from among its fellows to the rank of a national speech, it has been almost universally the result of political and intellectual conquest. In Germany there was, perhaps, nothing of either; but Luther's wise choice of an existing dialect at a time when there was still no common language, but when a whole nation hung eagerly upon the solution of a single question, gave it an irresistible precedence in that it identified itself with the cause as its visible expression, and its success was assured in the success of the Reformation. A language cannot be evolved in cold-blooded deliberation or be promulgated even by popular fiat. In order that a real Norwegian language shall come to take its place among the national languages of the world, some new revolution, social, political, or religious, must bring a form of speech that occasion has evolved prominently into the foreground as the exponent of its message. Or, this wanting, some new prophet of the people must arise whose language, because of the ideas it conveys, shall be looked up to as the standard of a common expression.

BRITISH POLITICS.

London, July 10.

Any one who tries to get at the real condition of British politics by inquiries made in London, now that the Parliamentary session is drawing to a close and the Parnell Commission has heard all the evidence, finds himself surrounded with difficulties. I have talked a good deal with politicians on both sides during the past few weeks, without meeting one who was not satisfied that, on the home-rule question at least, his own side was rapidly gaining ground. But ever since the huge blunder of 1880, when every Conservative in London was satisfied, beyond any manner of doubt, that the country was overwhelmingly in favor of Lord Beaconsfield's policy, one cannot help distrusting the gentlemen who rely on what they hear in London clubs and drawing-rooms, or on newspapers whose editors get their inspiration from the same source. The Gladstonians labor under no such discredit, and although they are not always able to give in facts and figures a reason for the faith that is in them, they are able to make a good show in the matter of probabilities. Many of them do not feel as jubilant over "the bye-elections" as Mr. Gladstone does, but they say with much plausibility that Balfour's policy in Ireland is disgusting the workingmen, to whom the Irish tenants are not tenants, but poor men, the landlords not landlords, but rich men, and the Irish land question is a conflict between labor relying on combination and capital backed up by the army and the police. I have been assured by two at least of the most candid and impartial men in the Gladstonian ranks, whose means of observation are unusually good, that these things are telling on the voters, especially in the north; that enthusiasm for home rule, as the cause of the poor and lowly, is rapidly growing in the country districts. They are never tired of repeating that if you want to know how public opinion is running, you must read not the London, but the country papers, foremost among which they put the Manchester *Guardian*.

I cannot find any one ready to assert positively that the *Times* has suffered in circulation through its Pigott blunder. It has several holds on the public in and around London which hardly any editorial blunder could shake. One is its advertisements. There is hardly any want in English life which is not best made known through its columns. Its Parliamentary reports, too, are by far the best, and the value of this can hardly be appreciated without remembering that Parliament is the one legislature of the empire, and that it contains in one branch or other a considerable proportion of the most eminent men in the country, whose sayings and doings are watched with eager interest from one end of the kingdom to the other. Though last not least, when any person of note wants to communicate with the public about anything, he "writes to the *Times*," no matter what may be his opinion of its morals and manners; and people of note here still write directly letters to the newspapers over their own names without, as with us, sending for a reporter and having themselves interviewed. I notice, also, that the custom of "having their attention called" to some things in the newspapers is not so common here as in America among great men. They admit unblushingly that they had seen it themselves without having it pointed out to them. These advantages all protect the circulation of the *Times* now, and will probably protect it fairly for an indefinite period.

Whether it has lost influence and authority through the Parnell business is another matter; nothing can be proved on such a question. Among the Gladstonians and Radicals generally, of course, its influence and authority are utterly ruined. But, unless human nature is greatly changed, they must be either destroyed or generally diminished among other classes also. The *Times* during the first sixty years of its existence owed a great deal to the mystery which surrounded the management. Very few knew who owned or edited it. Mr. Delane may be said to have been the first editor who threw the veil aside, and presented himself in society as the great being who furnished the tradesmen and the clubs with their daily opinions. But he was a very shrewd and capable man. He kept his thoughts very much to himself. In society, I am told, he was famed for his skill in encouraging people to talk without saying much himself, and making his scanty utterances weighty. His successor, Mr. Chenery, known to some of his ribald contemporaries as "The Arabian," on account of his attainments as an Arabic scholar, was unfit both in training and temperament for the management of a political journal, and one of the ways in which he showed this was his volubility in company. He got very little from the people he met, I am told, because he gave them but little chance of talking—a very unfortunate weakness for an editor. The present editor, every one says, is really Mr. Walter himself, the principal proprietor, Mr. Buckle being put in the place mainly on account of his youth and inexperience. But the light thrown on the management of the paper by the Parnell Commission shows clearly that the arrangement is not a good one. Nothing could have brought out its weakness more clearly than the Irish question, for the Walter family are said to have hated the Irish most cordially for three generations, and hatred of any class or tribe is a very treacherous thing for an editor. At all events, it has finally brought the Walter family to terrible grief by exposing their *arcana imperii*. I doubt if so great astonishment and mortification has overtaken Londoners in modern times as came from the discovery that the great "we" under whose rule they had lived in great mental peace for a century was composed of Mr. Soames, a country solicitor, whom Mr. Walter brought to town to contend with that prince of practitioners, Mr. George Lewis—Mr. Macdonald, the exceedingly droll manager, who thought it took

three men to write all Parnellite letters—and Mr. Walter himself, whom nobody ever suspected of astuteness; that 'Parnellism and Crime' was written by a briefless barrister named Flanagan, so carelessly that it has been torn to pieces in every direction by the evidence before the Commission; and that the author of the famous anti-Irish articles in the paper was an obscure Cork Orangeman named Wilson, for whose opinions on the question, delivered *in propria persona*, nobody would give what the Duke of Wellington used to call "a tuppenny damn." There has been nothing like this revelation to the average London business man since the little girl discovered that her doll was stuffed with sawdust.

All these things must be taken into account in trying to form an estimate of the future of the Gladstonians. The discredit which has overtaken the *Times* is undoubtedly a great help to them. It has given them hopes of great gains in London at the next election, for London went heavily against them at the last; and these hopes are undoubtedly stimulated by the success and influence among the workingmen of T. P. O'Connor's paper, the *Star*. It is a kind of newspaper that middle-class Englishmen detest—slangy, personal, and sensational; but the writing in it is able and effective, and it has an enormous circulation and great weight among the now formidable but formerly much despised class of wage-earners in eastern London. That it can handle serious questions effectively was shown in the support it gave Sir Thomas Farrer in his attack on the Sugar Convention. Baron de Worms's silly scheme received no more destructive blows from any quarter than Sir Thomas administered through its columns.

One hears here, and I heard before I came here, a great deal about the bitterness of feeling existing between the Home-Rulers and the Conservatives; but it is difficult for a passing observer to come on any tangible signs of it. The old men say there has been nothing like it since the passage of the first Reform Bill, but one would have to live in English society and be part of it to get proofs of its existence. Social warfare is very obscure and subtle when carried on between well-bred people. When one sees Gladstonians and Liberal Unionists and Tories together, as I have done on several occasions, there is apparently no want of cordiality in their relations. All the forms of mutual liking and respect are fairly well observed. If you ask how the mutual dislike is shown, you are probably told that it appears in the diminished number of dinners or balls of "smart people" to which Gladstonians are invited, for it must be admitted that although there are a good many "smart" Gladstonians, probably four-fifths of the smartness is to be found among their opponents. The latter have consequently ways of punishing Home-Rulers by leaving them out of their social entertainments, and their "Saturday to Monday" parties in the country houses, which the Home-Ruler finds it difficult either to resent or avenge. He perceives that he and his wife are not asked to houses in which they used to be welcome, and he guesses the reason why, but he cannot openly take notice of it. All he can do is to retaliate, and if there were more smart Gladstonians, retaliation might be effective; but, as matters stand, he is obliged to take refuge in most cases in religion or philosophy.

This kind of political warfare, too, is wonderfully aided in London by the social struggle, or, in other words, by the desire of everybody who stands high in the social hierarchy to keep those below him from rising, and by the desire of these latter to conciliate him and get him to let them join him up at the top. That Darwin never used London society as an illustration of the struggle for existence is a curious omission. The fierce competition which goes on in it gives the party which gets the smart people on its side an immense advantage. It is told of Lady Palmerston, who used to be one of the leaders of society here, and took great pains to keep it very select by throwing her doors open to rank, character, and intellect only, that, after the extension of the franchise in 1867, she was compelled to let down the bars. The new men who then came to the House of Commons wanted invitations for themselves and their wives, and the whips reported that unless they got them the Ministry could not have their votes. This sort of connection between society and politics is now stronger than ever. Opinions, especially on the Irish question, are just as much subject to fashion as clothes or furniture. Everybody who wants to be considered smart or to be on good footing with smart people has to oppose Gladstone's plan for "breaking up the empire," and to denounce "the old man" himself with more or less bitterness. The frankness with which this bitterness is expressed is often very amusing. I met with a country squire recently who declared it would give him pleasure to "hang the old fellow with his own hands"; and a lady told a friend of mine of the eagerness with which she looked in the paper every morning for news of his death. Talking to a man of high standing in the intellectual world the other day, I spoke of Mr. Gladstone's flexibility of mind as something marvellous at his years, not supposing that he cared much about Gladstone's mind, when, to my astonishment, he burst forth with, "Yes, and the old villain's conscience is just as flexible." It must be said that the Gladstonians as a rule receive these ebullitions with mild amusement, which nobody can help sharing who knows the object of them. His gentleness and indifference to attacks on him, and apparent ignorance of them, give them a slight air of bouffe to the casual observer. He may have points of provocation about him which are felt by those engaged in daily encounters with him, but to the mere passer-by it seems as if the furious hostility to him must be feigned.

THE RECONSTITUTION OF FRANCE.

PARIS, July 12, 1889.

COUNT CHAUDORDY began his diplomatic career long ago, under the Empire; he was for some time attached as Chief of the Cabinet to M. Drouyn de Lhuys, who was Napoleon III.'s ablest Minister of Foreign Affairs, and who had preserved all the traditions of our Foreign Office. In the war of 1870, M. de Chaudordy followed the Government of the National Defence, as it called itself, to Tours, and afterwards to Bordeaux. He had not much to do during the war, and had not many illusions as to the result of the journey of M. Thiers, when he went about Europe looking for an alliance. He was chosen deputy to the Constituant Assembly, and, though circumstances had brought him in contact with Gambetta, he took his place among the conservatives of the Assembly. He was, at Versailles, one of the deputies who struggled against the Commune, and he did not disguise at the time his desire to see the reëstablishment of the monarchy. In a book which he has just published, and which has attracted much notice, he says:

"M. Thiers could have created the monarchy at Versailles. His personal influence, the authority which recent events had given to him, rendered this work easy. If the Comte de Chambord had refused to take the crown under the conditions fixed by the National Assembly, M. Thiers would have remained Regent of the kingdom. Negotiated under these circumstances, the peace of 1871 would have been less hard for France. M. Thiers preferred to create the Republic. Many monarchists, having too much confidence in him, aided him in this enterprise. They had forgotten his past, and remembered only his opposition to Napoleon III. Thus was lost the best opportunity which has offered itself of reëstablishing the legitimate monarchy, for, at that time, the Bonapartists were reduced to complete impotence."

M. de Chaudordy was not among those who had too much confidence in M. Thiers; he never believed in the declarations of Bordeaux, where M. Thiers swore before God and man to remain impartial between the republican and the monarchical parties, and to favor personally no particular solution of the political problem. He was among the most moderate but the most determined adversaries of M. Thiers, and he gave all his support to the Government of Marshal MacMahon, his successor. At the present time he believes that France must accept the Republic. He sums up his ideas in these words, which I extract from his book, 'La France en 1889':

"In short, monarchy would be the form of government best suited to France, but it could not maintain itself, by reason of the existence of the Bonapartist party and the democratic condition of the country. The Empire, having its support in the principle of authority, would be better fitted to struggle against the exigencies of democracy; but, by its very nature, it leads the country sooner or later to a catastrophe. The Republic is, therefore, the government to which we must submit. But the weakness of the present system leads us to radicalism."

M. de Chaudordy would like to bring us back to the situation which existed under Marshal MacMahon. He thinks that in France, owing to the obligatory military service and to other circumstances, the moderate men of all parties will sooner or later unite and place at the head of the State a general having authority over the army and over the nation. "If not," he says, "the spirit of indiscipline will proceed from the people to the army; disorder will be the consequence, and we shall have a vulgar dictator, who will be a danger at home as well as abroad."

The National Assembly at Versailles did four things which must be placed to its credit: (1.) It imposed taxes to pay the expenses of the war and the German indemnity; and, notwithstanding these great burdens, it assured the equilibrium of the budget, and established a sinking fund. (2.) It conquered the Commune, and transported to distant parts its principal leaders. (3.) Notwithstanding the resistance of M. Thiers, it suppressed the National Guard, a militia without discipline, and an instrument of revolution. (4.) It placed the seat of the Government out of Paris, and delivered the Assembly from the tyranny of the mob.

If we look at the present moment, we find that the seat of government is in Paris; the most guilty members of the Commune have been pardoned, and many of them are in high places, some even occupy diplomatic posts; the equilibrium of the budget is destroyed, and the state of our finances alarms all thinking men; a new military law has just been passed, which reëstablishes the National Guard in a new guise. We shall soon have, instead of true soldiers, an armed people, with dangerous and undisciplined elements, and it is no secret that this new militia has in reality been created merely in order to force young priests into the ranks of the army. It is a part of our *Culturkampf*, of the great struggle which began when Gambetta said: "Clericalism is our true enemy." Religious persecution has divided

France into two halves, which are now irreconcilable; it has entered every school, every tribunal, every household. Who has profited by this great war? Only the radicals and Gen. Boulanger.

The changes which M. de Chaudordy proposes to make in the Constitution are the following:

(1.) He would allow the right of suffrage only to citizens above the age of twenty-five instead of twenty-one.

(2.) The Departments should vote for their Senators according to the present system; but he would add to the present Senatorial electors all the members of the Municipal Council.

(3.) The number of the Deputies should be limited to 500, and the duration of the sessions restricted.

(4.) The election of the President should take place in the Congress, as it does now, but the electors should be, besides the Senators and Deputies, about 100 delegates of the Councils General.

(5) The Presidential term should be, as it is now, for seven years, but reëlection should be prohibited except after an interval.

(6.) The President should have the free choice of his Ministers.

(7.) The Ministers should not participate in the deliberations of the Chambers; they should not retire in consequence of a vote of the Chambers, but must execute their will.

(8.) Commissioners, appointed by the President of the Republic on the nomination of the Ministers, should be at times charged to give explanations to the Chambers.

(9.) The Council of State should have the care of the preparation of the laws.

(10.) A special Council, composed of members of the Council of State and of the Court of Cassation, should verify, validate, or invalidate contested elections.

You see in this programme an approach to the American Constitution, which M. de Chaudordy professes to admire; it is becoming more and more a sort of axiom that while ministerial responsibility and the collective responsibility of a Cabinet are a necessity under the system of constitutional monarchy, a democratic republic requires, on the contrary, the independence of the Ministers and their selection by the President. At the present moment our Cabinets are too short-lived. As they represent only the prevailing coterie of the Chamber, they generally owe their existence to a coalition which cannot last and does not last. Such a system brings into ministerial life individuals totally unknown to the nation, without experience, without talent, and often without morality.

The defects of the system have never been better shown than during the last few days. If a foreigner, after ascending the Eiffel Tower and going through all the amusements of the Exhibition, should have the curiosity to enter the Chamber of Deputies, he would hear nothing but what we call interpellations. Every day some particular Minister is brought to account, some new scandal is revealed, some new act of corruption, fraud, venality is denounced. I do not like to cite names, but those who read the debates of our Chambers must know that three of our present Cabinet Ministers are under the gravest imputations, and that they have as yet very imperfectly cleared their reputations.

"To-day," says M. de Chaudordy, "the nation, seeing that the Chambers are split into groups of politicians, that individualism rules instead of patriotism, that radicalism, with all its dangers and horrors, is ready to profit by the faults of the most moderate parties, is alarmed. The Exhibition covers up these alarms for a while, but the Exhibition is, after all, an accidental event. It gives France a sense of her intrinsic value, of her productive capacity; it is not an institution; it does not change the nature of the political difficulties."

M. de Chaudordy speaks well of Carnot, who is personally honest, and who fulfils the Presidential duties, in a social sense, much better than M. Grévy. "But," he says, "he has not the necessary authority and energy. We need a personality more powerful, more decided, less accessible to the considerations of detail and to the influences of political groups; not having been mixed hitherto with parties, which are a dissolvent. In order to make a national work, that is to say, to reconstitute the country, we ought to place at the head of the State, with more effective powers, a chief of the army with an unimpeachable record."

Thus ends the first part of the book of M. de Chaudordy; the second part, which is perhaps the most interesting, is devoted to French policy abroad, and to the situation of France in the midst of Europe. M. de Chaudordy is familiar with the diplomatic society of all countries, and he writes on this subject with more authority than on the questions which affect the domestic policy.

FROM NIFFER TO TELLO.—I.

DRESDEN, July 2, 1889.

THE country between Niffer, the site at which our American expedition has been conducting excavations this past winter, and Tello, which the French Consul-General at Baghdad, M. de Sarzec, has rendered famous by his discoveries of sculptures and inscriptions from the earliest period of Babylonian civilization, has been visited more than once by explorers, but never fully described. On Kiepert's large map of the Ottoman empire a few ruins and canal lines are indicated, following stray notices of different travellers, and particularly the valuable little map attached to Loftus's work on Chaldea and Susiana, bearing the date of 1856; but the greater part of the region is a blank. Not only are no proper maps to be had: it was with difficulty we found a guide who knew the country, and who could tell whether the route was practicable, or even how many days we should require for the trip. Then we could find no muleteer who was willing to accompany us. At length the undertaker, if I may so call him, who carries the bodies of devout Affek to be buried in the sacred city of Meshed Ali or Nejef, beyond the Euphrates, agreed to provide us with two animals for a compensation at least double that which we should have paid under other circumstances. At the last we started on an hour's notice, forgetting, in our hurry, our very knives and spoons, so that we were compelled to accept without compromise both the hospitality and the customs of the Arabs. Our party consisted besides myself of Bedry Bey, the Turkish commissioner of excavations, a guide, two *zaptiyeh* (gens d'armes), and a muleteer, and we carried no baggage save that which could be placed on ridden horses.

It was Saturday afternoon, March 30, when we started. At Niffer the weather was intensely hot, the thermometer registering over 100° in the tents; the mounds were treeless, glaring and barren, and there was a constant storm of dust. In contrast with this the twilight boat-ride through the Affek marshes was like a trip to paradise. The canals were beds of fragrant white ranunculus, through which we were poled in long, narrow boats. The air was cool and still; frogs croaked on all sides, birds flew out of the tall reeds, and buffaloes grunted, lazily declining to return home in answer to the summons of their masters on the bank. Now and then we passed the reed village and mud-walled fortress of an Affek subchief, or even a garden of palm-trees and figs. All was beautified by new life in pleasant contrast with the ancient death of Niffer.

These marshes are part of the country of the Affek (pronounced Affej) nation. There is a confederacy of six tribes, of which the Affek are the chief, and it may well be compared in every respect (except that the natural ability of the Arabs is greater) with the Indian confederacy of the Six Nations once existing in New York. The Affek are almost sessile, irrigating and cultivating the land in a rude manner, but extremely warlike and turbulent, and very restive under Turkish rule—in fact, more than half independent of that rule. They are a fine-looking people, the finest-looking Arabs I have seen, with intelligent, attractive faces, of what I should suppose to be a pure Semitic type.

We spent the night at the Affek capital, Shatt-el-Husein, close to the village of Sukh-el-Affek, which is to be found on Kiepert's maps. These villages, with their palm-trees and reed huts, are exactly like the illustrations of African villages which one often sees. Our host was the brother of the great chief of the Affek confederation, Haji Tarfa. The latter is a rich man, worth, it is said, several hundred thousand dollars; and for greater security, it may be, or for some other reason best known to himself, he now resides on a domain of the Sultan beyond the Euphrates, rarely visiting his tribe. In the night the weather changed suddenly, and continued so cool during the whole period of our absence that, having come unprepared for such an eventuality, we actually suffered from cold. When I awoke in the morning, I counted nine coffee-pots on or about the fire, through which, so to speak, the coffee was gradually being reduced to its quintessence. My breakfast consisted of two swallows of this powerful quintessence of coffee, which had undergone, I do not know how many boilings. No Arab coffee-maker that I have seen can be induced to put more than a small spoonful of coffee, perhaps slightly flavored with myrrh, in the cup at once; but a guest of distinction is entitled to two or three such cups, one immediately after the other.

From Shatt-el-Husein we continued our journey on horseback. Our general course was southeast. In half-an-hour we had passed the cultivated land and entered a wilderness sparsely covered with tamarisk and camel-thorn. This serves as pasturage for sheep and camels, which, I was told, are driven as far as possible into the interior at this season, to avoid enumeration and taxation by the Turkish authorities. After a ride of some eight miles, we reached the mound of Delehem. This had been described by the Arabs as a ruin of much importance, and apparently former explorers had heard the same report, for it is to be found on Kiepert's map, and Dr. Ward, in the report of the Wolfe expedition, expresses much regret that he was unable to visit it. It is in reality a mound of small size, but, owing to its shape, conspicuous from a distance. There are two hills connected by a narrow ridge, the higher of the two forty or fifty feet in height, rising abruptly from the plain, and to the east and north of these is a low flat mound, perhaps a dozen feet in height, the whole covering a very small surface. We found there three wells of brick laid in bitumen, resembling those found at Tello, and a few potsherds, apparently fragments of clay coffins and other funeral ware. There are in the immediate neighborhood several other mounds of equal or greater extent,

not noted on the maps. From all that I could learn by inquiry among the neighboring Arabs and inspection of their treasures, these all seem to contain graves, the contents of which, in the shape of beads and other ornaments, resemble the contents of some of those found at Niffer.

About one o'clock, after a journey of less than fifteen miles, we were obliged to stop for the night at a camp of El-Budeir Arabs, because we had reached the limits of the water supply from the Euphrates, and the next water was a day's journey beyond. The El-Budeir are at present a poor, half-wandering tribe, depending chiefly on their flocks of sheep and goats for their support. They have one permanent village with a small plantation of palm-trees, visible from Delehem, but the greater part of the tribe live in tents. Their country is dotted, however, with the remains of mud forts and even of mud villages. These, together with numerous dry beds of irrigation canals and other signs of quite recent cultivation, seemed to confirm their own statement that they and their land have been ruined by the recent change of course of the Euphrates. They still continue to cultivate wherever, by canal irrigation or chance inundations, they can obtain the water which alone is necessary to render this alluvial desert fertile; but under such conditions they are rapidly reverting to the Beduin state. Their relations to the Affek are friendly and almost dependent; but a couple of weeks after my visit, war broke out between the two because the Affek, lying between the El-Budeir and the Euphrates, held the water of the canals to flood their marshes, refusing to cut the dams, to the great detriment of the El-Budeir, who could plant no crops, and barely find water, or rather mud, enough for themselves and their flocks to drink. Wars arising from such quarrels regarding the irrigation canals are of frequent occurrence among all the tribes along the rivers, and I should think that in ancient times similar wars must have been even more frequent.

Two hours beyond this camp were the large mounds of Bismya. These are extensive, but not high, consisting of several long, low hills, almost parallel to one another, with half-filled valleys between. I found no glass nor glazed pottery there, and my general impression, from a cursory examination, was that this is probably an ancient site not used nor built upon in the later post-Babylonian period. It is sufficiently extensive to have been a city of importance. But it must be said that judgments based merely on a cursory examination are of very little value until confirmed by the test of excavation. At present it would be difficult to conduct excavations at Bismya on account of the lack of water and the unsettled condition of the country, which is almost out of reach of the Turkish authorities.

The most important point which I have to notice in connection with Bismya is that it lies on the Shatt-en-Nil. This old canal has been a source of infinite trouble, and no two geographers seem to locate it in quite the same place. It was one of the most important canals in all Irak, and its course must have determined the location of more than one important city of Babylonian antiquity. Such a rôle does it play that Prof. Fried. Delitzsch, in his 'Wo lag das Paradies?' (it will be remembered that he locates Eden in Babylonia), identifies it with the river Gihon (Gen. ii. 13). It left the Euphrates at Babylon, and, according to the notices in ancient writers, seems to have joined the Tigris somewhere about the departure of the present Shatt-el-Haï. But, if this be so, the name adheres, nevertheless, to a large canal which is found at Niffer, and apparently, also, in the neighborhood of Warka (ancient Erech) and Sinkareh (ancient Larsam), and which must, therefore, have rejoined the Euphrates, or else joined the Shatt-el-Haï almost at its junction with the Euphrates. Loftus, Delitzsch, and others, in their maps of the country, have therefore assigned to it a southerly course after leaving Niffer. I found it, however, to the southeast of Niffer at Bismya, and later losing itself in the sandhills in the neighborhood of the three important ruins of Yokhah, El-Hammam, and Umm-el-Akarib. I regret to say that I could find no guide who was able to trace its course back step by step from Yokhah to Niffer, and I was not myself prepared to make the attempt to do so; but I hope that this may be done next season. Delitzsch, in the work above quoted (p. 221), speaks of Niffer as "am östlichen Ufer des Nil-Kanals." But what is known at Niffer as the Nil is a great depression running through the mounds from north to south and dividing them into two main parts, and a second depression, at right angles to this, dividing the eastern portion of the mound again into a northern and a southern half. To the north of Niffer I was able to trace the old canal-bed for some distance, but no one seemed able to point out any traces of its course immediately after leaving Niffer, whether to the east or south.

The desert between the El-Budeir camp and the country of the Montefik (pronounced Montefij) was said to be full of marauders, and therefore, for greater security, we took with us the brother of the chief in whose camp we had been staying. The waterless region between the present extreme limits of Euphrates and those of Tigris canal irrigation proved to be about twenty miles at its narrowest point. There was a time, not long since, when this region was at least partially irrigated and cultivated, and fresh-water shells, left by inundations of the rivers or canals, are visible everywhere; but now, owing to lack of water, it is an utter desert. We passed a number of old canal beds and ruin mounds, or *tels*, none, however, of the first importance. One long line of hills, called El-Harif, and presumably representing an old canal, was said to run from Niffer to the Shatt-el-Haï, and I think that it may have been a part of the old Nil Canal. We also observed in this region very extensive hills and fields of fine white sand. Loftus and Layard speak of these sand-hills in Irak as increasing rapidly, and likely, within a few generations, utterly to overwhelm the country. This prophecy has not yet been realized, and I think the increase of the sand-hills, if increase there has been, has at least been slower than they expected; nevertheless, there are here and elsewhere in Irak enormous quantities of this sand. Immediately to the north of Niffer were large fields of it, constantly shifting place and form; but from my observations there I should suppose that, much as it is blown about, it yet maintains a certain approximative permanence of position. It is generally supposed to have come in from the desert to the west, across the Euphrates and the great marshes of Nejef. I should think it possible that in some measure at least it is a natural product of the alluvial soil, and is, as it were, the chaff of that soil, separated by the wind when and where the ground is parched and destitute of vegetation. Whether this be the case or not, I think it probable, as is ordinarily assumed, that it is a recent appearance, since irrigation has ceased and the land become a desert, and that in the days when Babylonia was rich and populous these sand-hills did not exist.

We reached Tigris water first in the shape of a marsh formed by the Mejidieh, a canal not given on the maps, which leaves the Tigris, I was told, a little above the point of departure of the Shatt-el-Haï. About these marshes were camps of several sub-tribes of the Montefik, among others the Bene Temim, in whose tents we rested and refreshed ourselves at noon. They were feeling poor because another Montefik sub-tribe, the Ez-Zefih, had just robbed them of sixty she asses and two mares. From the Mejidieh marshes to the cultivated land along the borders of the Shatt-el-Haï proved to be another stretch of waterless, barren desert, about eighteen miles in breadth, a roaming ground of Montefik Beduin and marauders. This region must have been very rich in the ancient times, when the land was well watered, and to the south of our route especially lay several important mounds, of which hereafter. It was after six o'clock Monday, April 1, when, having been piloted through the numerous and intricate canals which irrigate the broad grain fields by the border of the Shatt-el-Haï, we reached an encampment of the Bene Rechab on the borders of that stream, or rather canal, some four hours above the Turkish town of Shatra, and about fifty miles almost due southeast from Niffer.

JOHN P. PETERS.

Correspondence.

WITCH-BURNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If "F. D. H." will turn to Bancroft's nineteenth chapter, he will find that New England did indeed hang, not burn, her witches. During that outburst of superstition at Salem which cost twenty lives, Noyes, the minister, pointed exultingly to where the bodies of eight of the victims swung, saying: "There hang eight firebrands of hell."

Hawthorne, in the 'House of the Seven Gables,' makes Maule, "at the moment of execution, with the halter about his neck," curse Col. Pyncheon: "God will give him blood to drink." He elsewhere pictures an elm as blasted and dead through the awful burden its branches were made to bear at that dark time. But nowadays persons generally speak of witch-burnings, perhaps because that mode of undoing seems to them more æsthetic than hanging. A few years ago, a short New England story, by Brander Matthews, appeared in *Harper's*, of which the motive was a never-dying fire kindled by a brand brought from a witch's burning, and kept alive by family hatred, until the long feud was quenched in love of youth and maiden, when the flame flickered and died.

Since our New England ancestors did burn human beings, albeit black, I think it makes small difference, on the score of greater or less iniquity, that they hung the witches instead of burning them, but it is as well that their descendants should be accurate about the matter. Besides the haziness as to the mode, I think the common belief exaggerates the number of executions. Apart from the twenty who were hanged at Salem, five more suffered at other times and places in Massachusetts, according to Hutchinson's 'History of New England,' and three were condemned in Connecticut; but the same authority holds that there is reason to believe that two escaped, making the total number twenty-six. The annals of the Plymouth Colony and of Rhode Island are free from such a stain, and Pennsylvania acquitted the one witch brought to trial in her dominion, while I believe there is but one authentic record of an execution in Virginia.

The accused were mainly women; and, in the matter of negro-burnings, those old Puritans showed a ghastly gallantry, sending the women to the flames, the men to the gallows.

J. C. N.

CINCINNATI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "F. D. H." is undoubtedly right as to the absence of witch-*burning* in New England; but he is wrong, is he not? in his impression that, "at the period referred to, they were so put to death in the mother country." Was it not precisely because they were not burned in the mother country that they were not burned in New England?

In its form, indeed, the terse Massachusetts law of 1641—"If any Man or Woman be a Witch (that is, hath or consulteth with a familiar Spirit), they shall be put to Death"—is clearly a reminiscence of the Mosaical legislation; but it fails to prescribe the penalty, and the penalty took the form customary in England. Later than the middle ages there was no burning of witches in England. The first law on the subject in the English statute-book—in 1541, under Henry VIII.—prescribed only that the crime of witchcraft "shall be deemed, accepted, and adjudged felony," and that the offender "shall have and suffer such pains of death, loss, and forfeitures . . . as in the case of felony." The milder law of Elizabeth, in 1562, which provides only imprisonment and the pillory for the first offence, unless death has been caused, stipulates likewise that the hardened witch "shall suffer pains of death as a felon." And even when witch-hating Scotch Jamie, fresh from his torturings and burnings beyond the border, came to the English throne, in 1603, and at once turned his ponderous wits to the framing of a sharper statute, he left the penalty still defined only by the phrase "pains of death as a felon." Now this, in England as in New England, throughout the "witch-burning stage," was taken to mean simple hanging.

Yet "witch-burning stage" is surely the proper phrase; for everywhere else in Christendom—if not in the mother country, yet in all the fatherlands—not only on the Continent, in France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Scandinavia, but in Scotland and Ireland as well, witches were burned—not always alive: they were often, especially during the seventeenth century, first mercifully strangled or otherwise done to death before the fire reached them. But, alive or dead, burned the witch must be. It was not, as in the case of arson which you cite, a rude attempt to suit the penalty to the crime. Burning for witchcraft was a legacy from the Inquisition. Witchcraft was devotion to the devil, and so heresy, and heresy must be punished by fire. Magicians had been burned, indeed, as far back as under the Roman law—the Roman law in the hands of Christian emperors; but this had been long half-forgotten when the scrupulous conscience of the mediæval Church discovered that burning is not the shedding of blood, and that to commend heretics to the secular arm for such merciful anticipation of the flames beyond the grave was but in the true spirit of the Gospel to cast into the fire the withered branches that abode not in the vine. Before the end of the fifteenth century, for witchcraft as for heresy, the stake had found its way hence into nearly every code of Europe. Even England itself, where, in 1407, Henry IV. put the suppression of sorcery into the hands of the bishops, saw before the Reformation more than one witch-burning.

Nor, though our own "witch-burning stage" is happily gone by, is witch-burning wholly a thing of the distant past. The last witch was legally burned in Great Britain in 1722, and it is now more than a century since the courts of the Continent punished their latest victims; but the last quarter-century has seen witches perish, at the hands of popular superstition and frenzy, in Russia, in France, and in England. The latest (as yet) judicial witch-burnings known to history took place not quite a dozen years ago in Mexico. Nay, twice at least within the last year or two, if one may trust the newspapers, the law has had to intervene for the protection of witches in New Mexico and in Colorado. It is not a year since the London *Times* announced the opening of a witch prosecution in Austrian Poland. And not four months ago our own dailies brought tidings of a complaint of bewitchment preferred against a villager in eastern New York. Can any of your readers tell me of other modern instances?

G. L. B.

THE WHITE LIBRARY, CORNELL UNIVERSITY,
July 16, 1889.

EMERSON'S FREE-TRADE VIEWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent review of 'Emerson in Concord,' I do not recall any reference to the following passage, which is quite complete in itself, and which treats the subject in hand with the ability that is begotten of simplicity:

"The scholar is bound to stand for all the virtues and all the liberties—liberty of trade, liberty of the press, liberty of religion—and he should open all the prizes of success and all the roads of nature to free competition.

"I have no knowledge of trade. There is not a sciolist who cannot shut my mouth and my understanding by strings of facts that seem to prove the wisdom of tariffs. But my faith in freedom of trade as the rule returns always. If the Creator has made oranges, coffee, and pineapples in Cuba and refused them to Massachusetts, I cannot see why we should put a fine on the Cubans for bringing these to us—a fine so heavy as to enable Massachusetts men to build costly palm houses and glass conservatories under which to coax these poor plants to ripen under our hard skies, and thus discourage the poor planter from sending them to gladden the very cottages here. We punish the planter there and punish the consumer here for adding these benefits to life. Tax opium, tax poisons, tax brandy, gin, wine, hasheesh, tobacco, and whatever articles of pure luxury, but not healthy and delicious food."

WILLIAM H. MAYHEW.

URBANA, O., July 17, 1889.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS foreshadow their autumn publications by announcing 'Tales from the Korea,' collected and translated by Henry N. Allen, Secretary of the Corean Legation; 'A Race with the Sun,' a trip round the globe by Carter H. Harrison, ex-Mayor of Chicago; 'The Industrial Progress of the Nation: Consumption Limited, Production Unlimited,' by Edward Atkinson—a large octavo; 'A Woman's War Record, 1861-1865,' by Mrs. Gen. Charles H. T. Collis; 'Lectures on Russian Literature,' by Ivan Panin; 'Christian Theism; its Claims and Sanctions,' by Prof. D. P. Purinton, of West Virginia University; 'The Modern Chess Instructor,' by W. Steinitz; 'The Story of the Hansa Towns,' by Helen Zimmern; and 'The Practical Pocket Dictionary,' in English, French, German, and Italian.

Early in August, Macmillan & Co. expect to publish an edition of Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' annotated by John Saunders, with a description of English life in the poet's time, and with illustrations from the Ellesmere MSS.—a volume of some 600 pages; also 'Sant Ilario,' by F. Marion Crawford—a sequel to his 'Saracinesca.'

Prof. Max Müller's Gifford lectures at Glasgow last year will be published directly by Longmans & Co. under the title, 'Natural Religion.'

'Selections from Wordsworth,' chronologically arranged, and edited by A. J. George, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

The second part of Mr. George O. Seilhamer's "History of the American Theatre," 'During the Revolution and After' (the first having been 'Before the Revolution'), is nearly ready. (Philadelphia, 112 N. 12th St.). The third and last part, 'Last Years of the Eighteenth Century,' is in course of preparation.

The Dunlap Society has just issued, as its final publication for the current year, Mr. Lawrence Barrett's recent lecture on "Charlotte Cushman," adorned with a strong wood-cut portrait, and enriched by an appendix from the learned pen of Mr. J. N. Ireland, in which there will be found a most instructive and interesting list of parts played by the great actress during her long career on the stage. A note informs us that Mr. Henry Edwards is preparing a bibliography and a list of portraits of Miss Cushman, to be issued later.

Although intelligent interest in the theatre has greatly increased of late years in England and America, it has not yet attained to the French; and in that less intelligent interest which gives itself over to gossip about the incidentals of the stage, Paris still claims the foremost place. Many books have been published in Paris about the accompaniments of acting, but none of these has been quite as unnecessary or as frankly personal as 'Loges d'Artistes' (Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern), by "Rose-Thé." It contains some four hundred solid pages of about a square foot each, devoted to a description of the dressing-rooms of the leading actresses of Paris, amplified by an occasional account of the private residences of these ladies, all illustrated by many drawings by M. Félix Fournery, and introduced by a letter of M. Émile Bergerat. Five of the thirty ladies thus immortalized, Mmes. Desclauzas, Judic, Céline Montaland, Sarah Bernhardt, and Théo, have been seen in America. Nearly a third of them are now connected with the Comédie-Française. About a quarter are attached to the Opéra or Opéra-Comique.

The New Haven Colony Historical Society proposes to publish in August the inscriptions in the old Milford graveyard prior to 1800. The transcription will be literal, the type being varied to represent as nearly as possible the appearance of each stone. The work will be illustrated by photo-chemical facsimiles of seventeen of the most interesting stones. Copious genealogical notes by Mr. Nathan G. Pond, the transcriber, will be included. The following names are among the most important: Andrew, Baldwin, Beard or Baird, Bryan, Buckingham, Burwell, Clark, Camp, Fenn, Fowler, Gunn, Gillett and Jillit, Herpin, Liron, Miles, Merwin, Newton, Nettleton, Northrup, Perit, Prudden, Rogers, Sanford, Smith, Tibbals, Treat. Only 250 copies will be sold. Subscriptions are received by Dwight E. Bowers, Box 595, New Haven, Conn. Milford's 250th anniversary will be celebrated next month.

The time for subscribing to the now completed 'Directory of the American Book, News, and Stationery Trade' (Milwaukee: C. N. Caspar) at the lowest price has been extended for a few weeks. One of the features of this work is a polyglot vocabulary of terms and phrases

employed in literature, the graphic arts, and the book, stationery, and printing trades.

The Legislature of Minnesota has lost patience with "one Willard Glazier," whose distressing attentions to the Father of Waters as sole discoverer of the fountain-head are well known. It has passed an act fixing the name of Elk Lake situated in Beltrami County, and warning all publishers that "no edition of any school geography, published subsequently to January 1, 1890," which gives Glazier's name to that lake, or any name but Elk, "shall be used in the schools of this State."

Capt. Glazier's feat is ignored in the list of discoveries which Mr. Fred. A. McCord puts at the front of his excellent 'Handbook of Canadian Dates' (Montreal: Dawson Bros.), though he notices Joliet and Marquette's finding the Mississippi in 1673. The handbook must be of the greatest convenience to any one concerned with the political history of the Dominion. The founding of cities, of newspapers, the order of wars, and battles, and treaties, the provincial delimitations and organization, the Viceroys and Governors and Secretaries of State, the clergy and judiciary, the personnel of cabinets, the sessions of legislatures, the growth of railways—such are a portion of the data offered here as the fruit of laborious research.

Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac' for 1889 has been issued in due time by the American News Co. Its usefulness is so generally appreciated that we need do no more than mention the fact of its issue (the twelfth).

We must dismiss briefly, too, the very attractive series of "English Men of Action" (Macmillan), of which five volumes have accumulated on our table, viz., 'Henry VII.,' by James Gairdner; 'William Dampier,' by W. Clark Russell; 'Wellington,' by George Hooper; 'Lord Lawrence,' by his Secretary, Sir R. Temple; and 'General Gordon,' by Sir W. Butler. Several of these handy books in scarlet contain portraits; that of Dampier, a woodcut, being a great improvement on the steel print one sometimes meets with from the same painting. Mr. Hooper, in summing up the pros and cons of Wellington's generalship, utters a just rebuke of Lord Wolseley's militarism as exhibited in disparagement of the Iron Duke. "That form of intellectual activity which is called military genius," he says, "is, when free from the restraints of all moral principle, a curse to mankind; and that will be an ill day for England when her generals come to prefer and adore such a form."

D. Appleton & Co. have published 'The History of a Slave,' by H. H. Johnston, the well-known African explorer. It is an intensely realistic description of life in the slave-raided region of the Western Sudan. No one can read it, or even glance at the illustrations from sketches (often of real scenes) by the author, without feeling with Dr. Livingstone that it is the duty of the Christian nations to use every proper means to heal "the open sore of the world."

Those who have still a keen interest in fixed forms of verse may be glad to see 'New Verse in Old Vesture,' by John Cameron Grant, a pamphlet of poems published in London by E. W. Allen. Mr. Grant's verses are introduced by a preface written by Mr. Gleeson White, the recent editor of 'Ballades and Rondeaus.' Mr. Grant's muse is exact, conscientious, and fertile, but her sacrifice to the virelai and the kyrielle and the gloze, and such artificial trifles, is idle. Mr. Dobson, Mr. Lang, Mr. Bunner, and Mr. Henley have shown that true grace may be put in a rondeau and real vigor in a ballade; but most of the other forms still seek a poet to justify their right to live.

Mr. Townsend MacCoun has published an historical atlas of the United States, prepared by himself, which will be found a most valuable aid to the study of American territorial history. The volume, a small quarto, contains forty-three maps, grouped in four divisions. The first, "Discovery," consists of six maps, mostly from fifteenth and sixteenth-century originals, and taken from the "Narrative and Critical History of America." The second division is "Colonial Period," the third "National Growth," giving the successive changes in territorial possessions from the time of the French and Indian war to the purchase of Alaska. The fourth division, "Development of the Commonwealth," gives the divisions of territory—colonies, cessions, States, and Territories—at successive epochs from the Revolution to the present day. The maps are followed by forty-four pages of "Explanatory Text," very compendious—perhaps too much so—but perspicuous and well arranged. The work is done with extreme care and accuracy. It is hardly possible that, in so varied and complicated a subject, and so comparatively new a field, there should not be errors; but we have not been able to detect any. Among the most curious of the maps—rather for special students than for general classes—are those which give the various boundaries proposed in the negotiations for the treaty of peace in 1783. A copy of this work we must consider almost indispensable for any thorough study of the subject; and for advanced classes it would be desirable that every member of the class should have a copy.

'Longman's New Atlas, Political and Physical, for the Use of Schools and Private Persons,' would be thought a luxurious possession by any schoolboy in this country, and indeed by the teachers of most of our public schools for their own use. It is a handsome quarto in substantial cloth binding, "consisting of 40 quarto and 16 octavo maps and diagrams, besides insets, and 16 quarto [lithographic] plates of views," etc., an index of places, and an introduction. The map scales are identical, or multiples of the prevailing scale; a uniform coloring in three tints indicates the comparative heights of countries; physical features are sufficiently indicated along with the political, save where special maps are given to both; only the more significant towns are named, but the index locates many of the places thus excluded. Such are the main cartographic principles observed, and they are very well carried out. Convenient is the table of contents inside the front cover. The map edges are reinforced by a backing, and numbered as in a ledger. Naturally, a British atlas is strongest in British maps, and the American portion would be too meagre for this market, which might well be consulted in a special edition. If the plates of typical scenery, etc., which make about one-fifth of the bulk of the volume, were dispensed with—as we think they might be, though the racial portraiture is fresh and admirable—the price would be by so much diminishable. It seems odd that lithography should here have been resorted to in place of woodcuts, which would have told so much more in the same compass, and told it better.

Some of our readers may have seen the Japanese Fairy Tale series—English version and native illustration and decoration—which we think the Messrs. Putnam introduced in this country. 'Princess Splendor, the Woodcutter's Daughter,' a legend of Fujiyama, translated by E. Rothesay Miller, comes to us from Tokio. It is a pleasant and humorous little tale of a banished fairy giving impossible tests to her human suitors. The pictorial embellishments are pertinent and effective.

After an inexplicably long interval, the excellent series of 'Les Grands Écrivains Français' has resumed publication with a biography of Thiers by M. Paul de Rémusat, an adequate and sympathetic sketch from the hand of a personal friend. We can do no more now than to note its appearance and say a word of praise for the admirable photogravure reproduction of M. Bonnat's vigorous portrait now in the Louvre. The 'Thiers' is the sixth volume issued, and in it we find a list of announcements greatly enlarging the original scope of the series. Among the new volumes now promised are 'Corneille,' by M. Sarcey; 'Pascal,' by M. Sully-Prudhomme; 'Marivaux,' by M. Ganderax; 'Madame de Staël,' by M. Albert Sorel; and 'Calvin,' by M. François de Pressensé.

The death of E. Véron, editor of *L'Art*, on May 22, is appropriately noticed in that magazine for June 1 by Paul Leroi, who speaks of his late chief in the highest terms, and enumerates some of his varied works, historical, economical, and artistic, as 'The Superiority of Modern Arts to the Ancient,' etc. For the rest, *L'Art* follows up on the one hand the Salon, on the other the Exposition, and continues its comparison of 1789 and 1889. M. Leroi says of the French school of art that its great evil is the suppression of thought in the sole interest of execution.

Wm. Mueller, 695 Broadway, sends us the American edition of *Academy Architecture and Annual Review* for 1889—a new venture, containing a selection of the most prominent architectural drawings hung at the Royal Academy exhibition, and "a review of interesting architectural subjects carried out or designed [in Europe] during the last few years." The editors, Alex. Koch and C. W. English, appear to be partners, for one of their designs appears on p. 81. The brochure consists wholly of plates, and the illustrations are indifferently process or heliotype copies of drawings, or, in a few instances, of nature. The variety of subject and of nationality gives much interest to this collection for the layman, and may have some for the designer and draughtsman, according to his critical capacity.

The Bureau of Education has just issued 'Education in Georgia,' a monograph in the series edited by Dr. Herbert B. Adams. The compiler is Mr. Charles Edgeworth Jones of Augusta, and his treatment follows the scheme adopted of tracing the history from the beginning. For the period before the war thirty pages suffice, since "there was no regularly organized system of common schools supported by public taxation" till Lincoln and Grant and Sherman had made it possible. The ninth chapter is devoted to institutions for colored people. Illustrations are given of college buildings, etc., as heretofore.

The professors of law, science, and letters and medicine at Grenoble have just founded a periodical *Annales de l'Enseignement Supérieur*, the first number showing all the faculties represented, and topics which range from "Orestes and Hamlet" to "un nouveau procédé de restauration du nez."

—The too slender ranks of genuine and serious students of American history have just been diminished by the death of Alexander Johnston, Professor of Political Economy in the College of New Jersey, at Princeton on July 20. This sad and sadly premature event had been foreshadowed by the state of Mr. Johnston's health for many years—perhaps even from the date of his professorship, to which he was called in November, 1883. He then wrote

to us, with a humorous deprecation of journalistic blundering, that we might "get his record straight," as follows:

"The record aforesaid is a brief one: graduated at Rutgers College in 1870; admitted to the bar in New Jersey in 1875, from the office of Gov. George C. Ludlow; and have written a 'History of American Politics,' the American political history in Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Politics' and R. E. Thompson's American Supplement to the 'Britannica,' and No. xii of the Johns Hopkins historical series, 'The Genesis of a New England State [Connecticut].'"

"The catalogue of the books which I have not yet written, would fill," he added, "a large volume, but I think the above are all you can do anything with at present." In fact, this industrious writer subsequently produced the 'Connecticut' (in the American Commonwealths Series); 'Representative Orations, with an Outline of American Political History'; a 'History of the United States for Schools'; and the chapter on the history of political parties in the seventh volume of Winsor's 'Narrative and Critical History of America.' Add to this that, while his strength permitted, he was an active contributor to the *Century Magazine*, especially in its "Topics of the Time" department, and an occasional contributor to the *Nation*. Finally, he had but just attained his fortieth year, having been born in Brooklyn, N. Y., on April 29, 1849. One must be a genius to cover as much ground as he did at so early an age, and be free from error of fact or judgment; and he had the candor to acknowledge past mistakes and the eagerness for better information which were one of the charms of his character. In conversation he was as fluent as with his pen, and both socially and on his professorial side he was singularly genial and attractive.

—Few will rise from reading Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Gleanings," in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, without the conviction that the Roger Williams of his documents is the subsequent founder of Rhode Island. The supposed parents are James Williams, citizen and merchant tailor of London, in good circumstances, and his wife Alice, who survived him thirteen years. The wills of both are given, each with mention of Roger, and the mother's (in 1634) speaking of him as "now beyond the seas," which *our* Roger had been for three years. Various other wills, in Mr. Waters's fashion, throw light on the family connection, and in particular that of Roger Pemberton of St. Albans, godfather of Roger Williams, and father-in-law to a sister of the Rev. Josse Glover who provided the means for establishing the first printing-press in what is now the United States, viz., in Cambridge, Mass. (Concerning this Glover-Pemberton alliance Mr. Waters promises us more information hereafter.) Mr. Waters, whose genealogical instinct is worth more than most men's researches, declares that tradition alone stands in the way of the proposed identification—the tradition, namely, that Williams was a Welshman, which has been supported by Mr. Reuben A. Guild, Librarian of Brown University. Mr. Waters considers Mr. Guild's argument, only to draw from it additional proofs of his own view. He points out lines of further research, regretting that he cannot prosecute them himself.

— For the full strength of the case we must refer to the *Register;* it covers the points of Roger's age, his brothers and sister, a kinsman whom he brought to New England as a protégé, etc. After Mr. Waters's communication was in type, he suggested a clue which the editor of the *Register*, Mr. John Ward Dean, promptly followed up, discovering two letters written by Roger Williams in 1629, preserved in the collection of Mr. Lowndes of Barrington Hall, Essex, England. Tracings of American autographs sent to him Mr. Lowndes pronounced identical with the signature appended to these two letters, which relate to a rejected proposal from Roger Williams to a niece of Lady Joan Barrington, and to the health of this lady's soul. He was then living at High Laver, in Essex. He speaks of "many former offers [of honor and preferment] and that late New England call," and of his pecuniary expectations ("amongst some other children") "after the death of an aged loving mother." This tallies exactly with all the circumstances of Alice Williams and her family at that date. Mr. Dean hardly seems to us to insist strongly enough—the handwriting considered—on the conclusiveness of this link in the chain of evidence.

—Some of the friends of the late Allen Thorndike Rice seem to think that he was the originator of the present habit of filling a review with articles bearing the signatures of contemporary celebrities or notorieties. Mr. Rice carried the practice to more pernicious extremes than other editors, but he did not originate it. In the *Edinburgh*, which was the earliest of all reviews, the articles were all anonymous, although the names of the writers were generally known to those most interested. When Buloz evolved the fortnightly *Revue des Deux Mondes* from the English quarterlies, French custom overruled the English precedent, and the articles bore the name of the authors. In time the English *Fortnightly Review* was founded, in imitation of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and, under the editorship of Mr. John Morley, its articles were also signed by the authors—then a distinct innovation on English usage. The *Fortnightly* was always decorous and devoid of "sensational" attraction. One of its rivals, the *Contemporary*, was edited for a while by Mr. James Knowles, and he it was who began the search for sensational signatures. When he withdrew from the *Contemporary* to found the *Nineteenth Century*, he made special efforts to get as many titled contributors as possible, and to extract timely articles from the man or the woman of the hour, even when these temporary lions were not professional writers. It was from the *Nineteenth Century* that the *North American* borrowed this unliterary seeking for special attractions, and this looking rather to the name of the writer than to the merit of the writing. Under the adroit guidance of Mr. Laurence Oliphant, Mr. Rice was able to vie with Mr. Knowles, and to procure papers as likely to be talked about as Mr. Gladstone's "Kin across the Sea." But after Mr. Oliphant was called away, and more particularly after Mr. Metcalfe withdrew to found the *Forum*, the *North American Review* sank lower and lower into the marsh of mere sensationalism. The founder of the *New Review* has spoken of his new venture as "a sixpenny *Nineteenth Century*," and so far Mr. Grove has skilfully followed on the lines of his two-and-six predecessor: not even Mr. Knowles could have done better than to get an article on the Eiffel Tower by M. Eiffel himself. There are no signs, fortunately, that either the *New Review* or the *Nineteenth Century* will ever descend to the depth of perverted "timeliness" in which the *North American* now is. The *Forum* has a dignity which the *North American* has wholly lost; and it seems to have a certain originality in that, as its title indicates, it offers itself as a platform for the man who has a pressing message. The demise of the *New Princeton Review* is much to be regretted, although the *Political Science Quarterly* is able to find room for essays, such as Mr. Whittredge's recent paper on "Rotation in Office," which we should have expected to find in the *North American Review* of twenty years ago.

—The completion of the second volume of the *Journal of Morphology* by a number containing five papers, two hundred and sixty pages, seventeen lithographic plates, and about forty figures in the text, calls for mention of it in connection with No. 2, which should have been noticed at the time of its publication. The paper by H. V. Wilson on the development of a coral (*Manicina*) was prepared as a thesis for the degree of Ph.D. at the Johns Hopkins University, and admirably represents the high character of the work done there. Should there be obtained a second example of the peculiar fish, *Grammicolepis*, described by Poey and Shufeldt, it is to be hoped that the brain and heart may be preserved and studied for the surest determination of its affinities. Prof. Cope discusses the hyoid and ear-bones of the Batrachia. He finds confirmation of his previously expressed view that *Siren* is descended from a land-salamander, and that its immediate ancestor became aquatic again at a comparatively late period of geological time"; he concludes that the condition of the ear-bones of the tailed Batrachia is "one of degeneration." From a comparative study of the Alaskan bird, *Aphrisa virgata*, Shufeldt concludes that it should constitute a distinct family, and thinks "that when such an isolated form is discovered, the fashion is too prevalent" of assigning it to some family already constituted.

—Of Number 3, the initial and longest paper is on the uterus and embryo of man and the rabbit, embracing numerous original and important observations. The author, Charles Sedgwick Minot, properly acknowledges the aid of a grant from the "Research Fund" of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the first of the grants from that source. The plates and text are so clear that it is almost ungracious to suggest that in this, as in some other papers, the often nearly blank page opposite the plate might be profitably occupied by a categorical mention of the more important points which are illustrated thereby—an extension, so to speak, of the plan approximated in Plates xxviii and xxx. All American naturalists will welcome the paper of Mr. Allis on the "Lateral Line of Amia," not only for the new facts which it contains, but also because it is understood to be the first of a series of monographs, in which the structure and development of this interesting teleostean ganoid are to be presented in the country which alone it inhabits. The rostral disk will remind readers of the similar structure observed by A. Agassiz in the embryo garpike, while the transformations of the tail from protocercal through heterocercal to the adult "masked heterocercal" stage was predicted by Wilder in 1875 and 1876. Shorter but by no means insignificant contributions are "Segmental Sense-organs of Arthropods," by William Patten; "Atoms and Molecules," by A. E. Dolbear, a discussion of a topic interesting the biologist from the physical standpoint, and "Some New Facts about the Hirudinea," by C. O. Whitman, in which are presented very important considerations as to the nature and origin of vertebrate sense-organs.

—In connection with the above-named paper on *Amia* may properly be mentioned Mr. S. Garman's account of the lateral line system of sharks, skates, and Holocephali, forming No.

2 of volume xvii of the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. The figures are based upon dissections made for the late Professor Agassiz by Mr. Garman and (in 1866-8) by Wilder. The text includes a description of the arrangement of the canals in thirty-four genera, a "synoptic list," a bibliography, with historical comments, and concludes as follows: "Professor Agassiz was the first to attempt to use the canal system as a basis for homologies, as an aid in classification, or as a means of tracing affinities—purposes for which it is admirably adapted." To Mr. Garman's study of the rattlesnake we owe an article in the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History (vol. xxiv), tracing the growth of the rattle in connection with the sloughing, discussing the uses of it, and connecting its evolution with the copperhead (*Ancistrodon*), by way of the ground-rattler (*Sistrurus*). The same writer has contributed to the Bulletin of the Essex Institute (vol. xx) a literary-scientific paper on "The Batrachia of Kalm's 'En Resa til Norra America'"—a very thorough examination of Kalm's 'Travels' to determine just what the Swedish naturalist recorded about the frogs of this continent. Mr. Garman carefully compares the original text with English, Dutch, and German versions. He concludes that the bull-frog and the leopard-frog are "the only species noticed by Kalm that can be identified with any degree of confidence."

—Prof. Willard Fiske has published in Florence a pamphlet of twenty-eight pages containing a second list of books in the author's own collection not cited by Lidderdale in the British Museum Catalogue. It contains 139 titles of books acquired since the publication of the previous list, together with some corrections of it. In the British Museum Catalogue, the author tells us in his preliminary note, are 170 titles of books printed in Iceland before the establishment of a press at Reykjavik, in 1844. His two supplementary lists contain 278 more, making a total of 448, an astonishing number considering the population of the land and the wretched economical conditions that prevailed. The great majority of the books are of a religious or ethical character. Among the others are several calendars, an A B C book, a tract on the resuscitation of persons apparently drowned, on epidemic catarrh, and on vaccination. The titles are followed, as in the first list, by accurate descriptions of the copy catalogued and by complete bibliographical material, often extended to an exhaustive essay on the various editions of the work; the whole is succeeded by an index of names and titles. The value of this material in its bearing upon the history of the language and literature of Iceland, because of the definitive shape in which it is given, cannot well be overestimated. The steady growth of Prof. Fiske's unparalleled collection of Icelandic books attests not only an extraordinary interest in an out-of-the-way subject, but bears witness as well to his skill and indefatigability as a collector.

SAMUEL ROGERS.

Rogers and his Contemporaries. By P. W. Clayden. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros. 2 vols. 1889.

"I MET Rhymer near your door, and he looked so unusually complacent that I guessed he had been at his old work, endeavoring to make some one dissatisfied. . . . You must not be disconcerted by his remarks, for, if I may be allowed to parody the observation applied to Charles II., I should say that Rhymer is known never to have *said* a kind thing, or never to have *done* an unkind one. He has come to the assistance of many a man of genius in those vicissitudes to which individuals of that class are more than any other liable when they depend on literature for support. Towards artists his good word to would-be patrons, possessed of more gold than taste, has never been wanting; yet, such is his peculiarity that, while ready to *serve*, he is seldom willing to avoid offending, and evidently finds a pleasure in saying disagreeable things. Even his compliments, and they are few and far between, have something in them which leaves those present in doubt whether they do not admit of another and less kind interpretation, although the individual to whom they are addressed may not be aware of it. . . . His age and infirmities screen him from the correction which his malice so frequently merits; and, aware of his impunity, he thinks himself privileged to annoy all those with whom he comes in contact. But no, not all; for to the rich and great he is as obsequious as he is insolent to those who are not in a position to gratify his *parvenu* taste for grandeur."

Such was the portrait of the poet Rogers as painted fifty years ago by Lady Blessington in her almost forgotten novel 'Strathern'; and on the whole the characterization is eminently just. It is borne out by his 'Table-Talk,' published soon after his death by his friend Alexander Dyce, much as that was decried at the time by some of Rogers's other friends; and by the remembrance of those who were intimate with him. At first sight the book before us would seem to give Rogers quite another character, especially in his earlier years; but, in summing all up, it comes to much the same thing.

In fact, Rogers had a very good heart and a very sharp tongue. He even took delight in saying disagreeable things, and

"had cultivated the habit of making caustic remarks until it had become a second nature. Sir Henry Taylor tells us that his wit was in higher repute than any of his time except that of Sydney Smith; but while Sydney's was genial and good-humored, that of Rogers was sarcastic and bitter. Rogers knew this and sometimes apologized for it. 'They tell me I say ill-natured things,' he observed to Sir Henry Taylor, in his slow, quiet, deliberate way. 'I have a very weak voice; if I did not say ill-natured things, no one would hear what I said.'"

His tongue was, a friend testifies,

"an incisive organ, never allowed to grow blunt or rusty, but kept bright and well pointed for needful occasions—moreover, always polite and always distinct, which immensely increased its effect; but, what has been forgotten by his detractors, it was strictly used for defence, never for provocation, and for defence of others quite as much as of himself. Although, therefore, within these limits, no one could better say a bitterer thing, yet all will admit that he never said a vulgar or a rude one, or that that small and distinct voice ever failed to be lifted up in praise of merit or defence of the injured."

To say, however, that Rogers's tongue was used solely in defence is saying too much. One remark of Lady Blessington's quoted above is made almost in the same words by Fanny Kemble Butler: "Although you say most cruel things (as I remember), you do, I know, many most kind ones; and I feel, therefore, the more courage in addressing this prayer to you." One would think that this was the preamble of a request for an important service, whereas it was only a sort of formula in a letter of introduction given to Miss Catherine Sedgwick. Rogers duly invited Miss Sedgwick to breakfast, and she as duly reported it in print in an American journal, being sure that "his life flowed in a kindly current. K. told me he met him one winter in Paris, where he found him enjoying art like a young enthusiast, and knowing every boy's name in the street he lived in, and in friendship with them all."

That Rogers should receive Miss Sedgwick was but natural—the son of a man who put on mourning on hearing of the fight at Lexington, and who had himself given hospitality to Priestly after his house had been destroyed by the mob at Birmingham and on the eve of his departure for America, could not but be kind to Americans. He was indeed so kind that his hospitality was sometimes taxed, and he said, according to Mr. Sumner: "The Americans I have seen have generally been very agreeable and accomplished men, but there is too much of them; they take up too much of our time." But there they were; and if he objected to the number, he must have been pleased with the quality of his guests—Cooper, Irving, Ticknor, Longfellow, Willis, Daniel Webster, Everett, Bancroft, Prescott, Sumner, and a host of others.

To go back: As to Rogers's goodness of heart there can be no question. Mrs. Norton says rather tartly: "He gave what he valued least, money: not what he valued most, praise." But this was not only untrue but unfair. Rogers, although a banker, never had money to throw away; he had money which was at the service of his friends, and for the assistance of those who needed it most. When Moore was in difficulties, Rogers lent him £500. Some time after it was repaid, Rogers asked him what he should do with that check, and on being told to present for payment, said: "Well, if it is any convenience to you in your Bermuda business, to enable you to allege that you *have no means*, I will keep it for you." Subsequently he offered to lend him £1,000 to arrange his affair with Longmans. In the same way he lent money to the poet Campbell to buy a share in a magazine, who said that his only difficulty was in inducing Rogers to accept the repayment of the loan. Several times he helped Sheridan, and after his death there were found among his papers checks of Sheridan which he had never presented. Much later in life he sent £200 to a friend who had been condemned by the physicians and wanted to go to the Cape as his last hope. In telling his sister of it he wrote: "I think my money well spent if I never see it again."

Such instances might be greatly multiplied, but it was not only in money ways that Rogers was kind. He was willing to take great pains and trouble for his friends, his friends' friends, and even for people who had no claim upon him—whether it were simply in providing for their amusement, for obtaining them places in the British Museum, or under the Government (as with Cary, the translator of Dante, and others), or for negotiating with publishers for the publication of their works (as with Wordsworth). He got Sir Thomas Lawrence out of difficulties by inducing Lord Dudley to purchase some of his art-treasures. Like all men in his position, he had almost countless applications for favors; not all could be granted, and some had to remain unanswered. Hence, perhaps, the accusations against him of hardness of heart. Rogers was by no means a rich man, and his friends believed that his income in the later years of his life scarcely exceeded £2,000 a year. When his bank was robbed, in 1844, of about £47,000, it was thought at first that the loss might cripple the bank and possibly ruin him. Most of the money was ultimately recovered, but during the period of suspense Rogers reduced his expenditure and gave up his carriage. One of the fabulous stories of his wealth and ostentation was manifestly impossible—that he had a million-pound note of the Bank of England framed in solid gold, and hanging in his drawing-room. What really hung there was Milton's receipt for the five pounds paid to him for the copyright of 'Paradise Lost.'

Rogers was never a handsome man. He was

in his later years very bald, his countenance singularly pale—even cadaverous—and wrinkled. This unearthly pallor brought upon him many jokes from his friends, which he generally took in good part and rather enjoyed. "One day, when he had been visiting the catacombs with a party of friends, Rogers emerged last. 'Good-bye, Rogers,' said Lord Dudley, shaking his hand, and everybody understood the joke. Sydney Smith jocosely advised him, in having his portrait taken, to be drawn saying his prayers with his face in his hands." Carlyle, in a letter to Emerson, speaks of "Old Rogers with his pale head, white, bare, and cold as snow," and says he "will work on you with those large blue eyes, cruel, sorrowful; and that sardonic, shelf chin."

Rogers's life was so long that he could easily have repeated to persons now living details of events occurring in the early part of the last century, told him by the actors in them. He had heard Blair and Robertson preach; had spent a day with Adam Smith; had known Fox and Grattan; had been intimate with Byron, Campbell, Moore and Scott, Wordsworth, Lamb and Coleridge, and afterwards knew Macaulay, Tennyson, Ruskin and Gladstone. Such a long life naturally falls into periods: his early years, when he was himself managing the bank, living in the country, and making his poetical reputation; his middle life, after he had come to London in 1803, was making his way in London society, and his house in St. James's Place a centre of literature and conversation, and when he was still at intervals busy at his poetry; and, finally, the twenty years after he had published the illustrated edition of his poems, had given up writing, and was living only to enjoy life. The accounts of the middle period, which are the most entertaining, are, or rather were, to be found, until collected by Mr. Clayden, only in the memoirs and letters of his contemporaries. The 'Reminiscences' and 'Table-Talk,' published after his death, naturally relate to his last period, and even the generation that noted them down has now almost passed away. These distinctions have to be remembered in considering Rogers, because his memory failed him towards the end, and the same story, therefore, often assumes different forms. Circumstances of which he had originally thought little or nothing—as, for example, Byron's somewhat coarse practical joke on him at Pisa—gained importance in his eyes after being often talked about and criticised.

In Rogers's time, or at all events in part of it, conversation was made a fine art. Men prepared themselves for the breakfasts and dinners at which they were to take part, sketched out the conversation, and arranged how to bring in their special topics and stories. Many took notes afterwards of the talk at table, and some even entered in a ledger the names of the guests and the anecdotes they themselves had told, so that they might not repeat themselves too often. Rogers had commonplace books of this sort, and he used sometimes to bring them out and read his recollections of distinguished men. In those days a man talked to the whole table, and allowed no interruption and no rivalry. Rogers himself was very exacting in this respect. He said one day that "it was a great fault in young men not to listen to old ones who were talking together; that a few days before, at a dinner-party, he was talking with the Archbishop of Canterbury, an old man like himself, and two young men sitting next to them kept talking together at the time; if they had held their tongues and listened to the old ones, they might have heard a great deal that was interesting." He preferred entertaining his friends at his own table to dining out, and when he spoke, the guests were expected to listen. His greatest difficulties were with Sydney Smith and afterwards with Macaulay, whom it was hard to put down. They met at Bowood on one occasion during the Christmas holidays in 1841, when Lord Lansdowne had a distinguished company of guests. Greville, speaking of Macaulay's sonorous voice, physical energy, and declamatory style, says: "The drollest thing is to see the effect upon Rogers, who is nearly extinguished, and can neither make himself heard nor find an interval to get in a word. He is exceedingly provoked, though he cannot help admiring." Fanny Kemble Butler makes a general remark about Macaulay's "speech-power," and says that

"'Sydney Smith's humorous and good-humored rage at his prolific talk was very funny. Rogers's, of course,' she adds, 'was not good-humored; and on this very occasion, one day at breakfast, having two or three times uplifted his thread of voice and fine incisive speech against the torrent of Macaulay's holding forth, Lord Lansdowne, the most courteous of hosts, endeavored to make way for him with a "You were saying, Mr. Rogers"—when Rogers hissed out, "O! what I was saying will keep."' Greville writes: 'He will revive to-morrow, when Macaulay goes.'"

Much of what was called wit in those days seems to us little more than coarse banter. The sayings of Rogers are neat expressions of cynicism or severe criticism rather than wit. His nephew, Samuel Sharpe, says:

"My uncle's conversation could hardly be called brilliant. He seldom aimed at wit, though he enjoyed it in others. He often told anecdotes of his early recollections and of the distinguished persons with whom he had been acquainted. These he told with great neatness and fitness in the choice of words, as may be understood by an examination of the prose notes to his poems. But the valuable part of his conversation was his good sense, joined with knowledge of literature and art, and yet more particularly his constant aim at improvement, and the care that he took to lead his friends to what was worth talking about."

Mr. Hayward wrote of Rogers's parties:

"It was a current joke that he asked people to breakfast by way of probation for dinner; but his breakfast parties (till the unwillingness to be alone made him less discriminating) were made for those with whom he wished to live socially, and his dinners, comparatively speaking, were affairs of necessity or form. Even in his happiest moods he was not convivial; his spirits never rose above temperate; he disliked loud laughing and talking, and unless some distinguished person or privileged wit was there to break the ice and keep up the ball, the conversation at his dinners not unfrequently flagged. It seemed to be, and perhaps was, toned down by the subdued light, which left half the room in shadow, and speedily awoke the fairer portion of the company to the disagreeable consciousness that their complexions were looking muddy and their toilettes the opposite of fresh. After making every allowance for this drawback, however, his dinners were justly reckoned among the pleasantest in town."

Some who have thought Rogers's poetical reputation unmerited have considered it even factitious, and gained for him by his wealth, his social position, and by the cheap compliments of writers and critics who had been entertained by him and wished to be his guests once more. For such a statement there is no foundation. The contemporary critics of Rogers may seem to us mistaken in their judgments, but there is no reason or justice in accusing them of dishonesty. Certainly we cannot but suppose that both Byron and Lord Holland—to say nothing of others—were sincere in their admiration of Rogers's poetry. In point of fact, Rogers had made his poetical reputation and enjoyed popularity as a poet before he came to settle in London in 1803, and long before he possessed social power. 'The Pleasures of Memory,' on which his reputation was based, had been first published in 1792, and had been extremely popular. In those eleven years it had had a continual sale, and a new edition of 2,000, the fourteenth, had just been issued. It is true that at that time his only great rival was Cowper, and the other poets of the day were Mason, Joseph Wharton, Whitehead, Cambridge, Beattie, and Hayley. As Mr. Clayden says:

"Campbell had published the 'Pleasures of Hope,' written in emulation of the success of 'The Pleasures of Memory'; had just composed 'Lochiel's Warning' and 'Hohenlinden,' and was on his way to London to devote himself to literature as a profession. Southey had written 'Thalaba,' but it had been coolly received; Wordsworth, married in the year before, was writing the 'Prelude,' but had only actually published the enlarged edition of 'Lyrical Ballads'; Coleridge had composed some of his best poems, but was little known, and was earning his livelihood by writing for the *Morning Post*. Walter Scott had translated 'Goetz von Berlichingen,' and issued 'Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border,' but was not yet known to fame. Tom Moore, then called Anacreon Moore, because he had translated Anacreon, was travelling in America; and Byron was a boy at school."

The 'Epistle to a Friend' had appeared in 1798. From that time Rogers published nothing until 1812, when he issued his 'Columbus,' on which he had been slowly working for fourteen years. Two years later, curiously enough, as it seems to us now, his 'Jacqueline' was published in the same volume with Byron's 'Lara,' neither with the author's name, though there was no attempt to conceal the authorship. 'Human Life' came out in 1818, by far the best of Rogers's poetry up to that time. It is scarcely possible to characterize all these poems as other than a series of platitudes, conventional sentiments and commonplaces expressed in precise language and smooth and flowing verse. Some of them—the 'Columbus' especially—were submitted by the author to his friends for their criticism in privately printed copies; and there were often long discussions by letter as to the best form for certain passages and even for single lines.

The 'Italy' was the last work of Rogers, although on two or three subsequent special occasions he wrote a few verses. Unlike most of his other poems, it is in blank verse. It is pleasing, and appeals to cultivated minds far more than they. It is still read, but it is almost the only one that is read, and is perhaps the only one by which he will be judged in future. To those who have been in Italy every line recalls a picture, an impression, or a feeling; for that reason it is an agreeable book for the traveller to have in his portmanteau. It was the product of Rogers's two Italian tours. He went to Italy in the autumn of 1814, as soon as the Continent was again open to English travellers, and remained there the winter, passing through Brussels on his return only a few days before the battle of Waterloo. He kept a diary which is the foundation of the poem. It is a pity that Mr. Clayden has not printed it in full, for he saw much that would be entertaining in his detailed descriptions. Canova showed him how he kissed his bed three times when he went into it after dinner; and after he had dined at the Duke of Bedford's the Duchess waltzed and danced with castanettes before Canova. At Naples,

"at a ball at the house of the Minister of Finance, 'all the world danced and the King himself, in a quadrille, with the Princess of Wales. Wonderful play with his limbs, too much so with his head and body. It gave him the balancing air of a rope-dancer, or of a dancing-master teaching ease to his scholars.' Murat was extremely polite to Rogers, whose fame as a poet had reached him. The Queen talked to him about 'The Pleasures of Memory.' Murat

himself, as he rode on horseback about Naples, often met Rogers, and always saluted him with the question, 'Eh, bien, monsieur, êtes-vous inspiré aujourd'hui?' . . . On the 6th of March, after a visit with Lord Holland to Pompeii, Rogers was at Lord Holland's at night when the rumor came, 'Bonaparte gone from Elba.' Rogers adds: 'Fainting of his sister, the Queen; many conjectures'; 'un peu d'espoir,' says Mosbourg, 'et beaucoup de désespoir.'"

The idea of 'Italy' was formed gradually in his mind. Various bits had been written or sketched out on the spot, though it must be admitted that some of the prose descriptions, written hurriedly at the time—for instance, that of Paestum—are equal to the more finished and revised verses. In the autumn of 1821 Rogers went again to Italy for the winter, this time meeting Byron—first, at Bologna, and again at Pisa with Shelley. The meeting is commemorated by the passage headed "Bologna," though it was written after Byron's death. During the winter Rogers continued writing, and, under the editorship of his sister Sarah, the first part of 'Italy' appeared anonymously, while he was still absent from England. The second part was not published until 1828—this time with the author's name attached. But new schools of poetry had sprung up, and poets had appeared who were greater than Rogers—this relic of a past generation. The public taste had changed, and although 'Italy' had a *succès d'estime*, it was not popular.

"Rogers fancied," says his nephew, "that the cool manner in which the poem was at first received amounted to an unfavorable verdict. He was not disposed to question the taste of the public in the case of a work which was meant to please the public. So he made a bonfire, as he described it, of the unsold copies, and set himself to the task of making it better."

He therefore revised, enlarged, and improved the poem, and determined to issue it in an illustrated edition. Everything was done under his own constant direction and supervision. He chose the subjects, suggested the character of the pictures, superintended their execution, and made the illustrations almost as much his own as the letter-press they adorned. Of the fifty-five illustrations, twenty-five were from Turner's drawings, twenty from Stothard, and two from Prout. The total cost of the whole edition of 10,000 copies was over $36,000. The success of this magnificent book was such that Rogers then brought out a new edition of his poems, illustrated chiefly by Turner and Stothard, the preparation for which cost nearly the same sum. Both books paid for themselves, and the early copies now bring good prices on account of the engravings. They did much towards making Turner generally known.

Mr. Ruskin, in his 'Præterita,' tells of receiving as a present on his thirteenth birthday a copy of the illustrated 'Italy,' which, he says, "determined the main tenor of my life." In a letter to Rogers, written from Venice, he says:

"The worst of it was that I lost all *feeling* of Venice, and this was the reason both of my not writing to you and of my thinking of you so often. For whenever I found myself getting utterly hard and indifferent, I used to read over a little bit of the 'Venice' in the 'Italy,' and it put me always into the right tone of thought again, and for this I cannot be enough grateful to you. For though I believe that in the summer, when Venice is indeed lovely, when pomegranate blossoms hang over every garden wall, and green sunlight shoots through every wave, custom will not destroy or even weaken the impression conveyed at first, it is far otherwise in the length and bitterness of the Venetian winters. Fighting with frosty winds at every turn of the canals takes away all the old feelings of peace and stillness; the protracted cold makes the dash of the water on the walls a sound of simple discomfort. . . . When I used to get into this humor, I *always* had recourse to those lines of yours:

"'The sea is in the broad, the narrow streets
Ebbing and flowing, and the salt sea-weed
Clings to the marble of her palaces.
No track of men, no footsteps to and fro,
Lead to her gates. The path lies o'er the sea
Invisible; and from the land we went
As to a floating city—steering in
And gliding up her streets as in a dream.'"

RECENT NOVELS.

The Open Door. By Blanche Willis Howard. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Girl Graduate. By Caroline Wooley. Ticknor & Co.

Grandison Mather. By Sidney Luska. Cassell & Co.

A London Life. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

Margery: A Tale of Old Nuremberg. By George Ebers. Translated from the German by Clara Bell. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.

Micah Clarke, his Statement. By A. Conan Doyle. Longmans, Green & Co. Also, Harper & Bros.

On the title-page of 'The Open Door' Miss Howard, in quotation from Molière, begs permission to weave the web of her romance at leisure and not to be pressed for the conclusion. For what is properly the romance the prayer must be denied. Hardly any one is morbid enough to wish to linger over the passionate love of a healthy young woman for a man whom she has never known in any other condition than that of an incurable and rather ill-tempered cripple. The author has evaded love-passages with some cleverness, and devoted her evidently ample leisure to less distasteful episodes. In the contrast between the dazzling lieutenant who rode out at morning to enjoy his kingdom, the world, and the maimed, senseless clod borne back at evening never again to move beyond the shady garden corner, a skilful psychologist would have had his opportunity. He could have made us sigh and weep for Count Hugo, and consoled, instead of offending, by the sacrifice of a beautiful, imaginative Gabrielle. Miss Howard cannot sound deep waters, and her attempts produce cumulative irritation. Count Hugo philosophizing is dull, and as a moralist inefficient. When he quarrels with his ridiculous mamma, he becomes amusing; and mamma, together with her pampered puppy, Mousey, provokes mirth in every attitude. Miss Howard has often come very near writing capital comedy, never nearer than in the delineation of the Countess von Kronfels; but she seems to lack either the sense for art or the knowledge which would keep her from bubbling over into burlesque. She has never learned how to make a good effect by moderating hilarity. Her tenacity of early habit shows itself in many ways. Long residence in Europe has not denationalized her style, which remains vigorously American. Her Europeans are all seen through American eyes, and New England's social simplicity permeates the wickedness of the worst. Count Hugo has no more hesitation about sending his sweetheart down to the village alone, at midnight, to protect the honor of a saucy chambermaid, than a chivalrous, republican Mr. Frye of Maine would have had. And would it ever have entered into the head of a woman who had not had the benefit of New England "culture" to select as a title for a story an indefinite phrase from Epictetus which has almost nothing to do with the case?

'A Girl Graduate' is a product of New England culture unimpaired. Life is always a serious affair, almost always solemn. The baby is born in a maze of problems and questions, and the old man dies still seeking solutions and answers. Everything is decorous and honest and uplifting, and there is either no grammar at all, or a great deal of it, very inflexible and stately. The girl graduate has the grammar, while her family and friends have it not; and one of the problems which, at eighteen, confront her is, how she may gain an entrance into those charming circles where it is believed to be pretty evenly distributed. Maggie Dean is the daughter of an illiterate machinist, and would be described by an Englishman as "a young person educated above her station." To Maggie's father, as to thousands of American fathers of the same class, the English phrase is meaningless. They are accustomed to knowing that their women are finer than they, and, in their heart of hearts, are proudest when "one of the girls" is like unto the owl for wisdom and the bird of paradise for plumage. To those fond and guileless men she cannot have been educated above her station, for does not her education make her equal with the best? It is left to the girl herself to find out that it does not, and then comes the bitter hour. In the story of the 'Breadwinners' the worst consequences to a girl's nature of recognition of this disappointing truth are described with a stern disregard of popular sentiment. It would be pleasant to be able to believe that the Maggie of that famous story is exceptional and Miss Wooley's Maggie typical; but we fear that the anonymous author generalized from the wider experience, and that his views about the effect of high-school education upon the mob were less rosy. Still, it is cheerful to have Maggie Dean purged of vulgar ambitions by the fire of social snubbing, and developing a refinement which does not always accompany the knowledge gained from books.

'Grandison Mather' is a modern and realistic "romance of a poor young man." The poor young man has been rich, has been fairly educated, and capitally trained to do nothing. In the heyday of fortune he provided himself with a wife, lovely and penniless, and, when fortune takes wings, she is the only luxury of which he is not deprived. The wife is not introduced to point the proverb that "a young man married is a man marred," but to impress upon a sceptical generation that most of all in poverty and trouble a man may rejoice with the wife of his youth. There is nothing intense or tragic in the situation while the husband is looking for work, the wife waiting at home, and the slim purse diminishing, but it is all tender and pathetic, and enlivened by humor inseparable from the circumstances. Grandison Mather and his wife are fictitious, but the story of their vicissitudes is true in the most trifling detail. The author could not resist the temptation to permit his hero in the end the achievement of notoriety if not of greatness. His book, 'Dreams Within a Dream,' is the novel of the year, and there, in enjoyment of his fame, the romantic novelist would have left him. One swallow does not make a summer, nor one novel that is talked about establish preëminence in fiction. The hardest lesson Mather has to learn is, that the creative faculty is independent and erratic, and not to be relied on for the provision of what Mrs. Lecks called "board-money." By this last bitter experience the story becomes a consistent chapter of real life. Its consistency is marred by only one romantic flight, the description of St. Marc, the terrible and all-powerful critic. The author's evident acquaintance with the conditions of journalistic and literary life in New York ought to have kept his pages free from the impossible lion with the tawny mane, and the remarkable den in which the place of honor

is given to a table laden with "a whole battery of liquors."

There is novelty in a story by Mr. James with a situation so important that we are more occupied by what the people do than by the way they do it. Such a situation is to be found in 'A London Life.' Not the great one—that is simple enough. From the beginning it is clear that Mrs. Lionel Berrington is on the high road that leads to the Court of Probate and Divorce, and that the case of "Berrington versus Berrington and others" will come on in due time. The scene which makes us pause and question its possibility is that managed by Laura Wing at the opera, when she practically asks her serious and ingenuous compatriot to marry her, and is practically declined with thanks. In the moment of certainty that the long impending disgrace was accomplished, that her sister, Selina, had bolted, Laura Wing might have cried out to Wendover to save her. That would have been an impressive expression of the desperation to which she had been gradually brought by her sister's artistic wickedness and her brother-in-law's brutality. But she stopped to consider that by to-morrow Selina's crime would have engulfed her, and to decide that she must play boldly now, or be lost for ever. It is her cold calculation which makes the scene important and improbable, for the only way to reconcile it with probability is by attributing to Laura a large share of Selina's unscrupulousness, an inference which is contradicted by her ultra-sensitive rectitude and exaggerated sense of personal responsibility. Having conceived the situation, it would have been more interesting if Mr. James had permitted Laura to win, and then shown us her feelings and thoughts when she looked herself in the face, and knew, as she would know, that, for honesty, there was no choice between her and Selina.

Selina is done in the author's best manner. A most airy, elegant, and apparently superficial creature, her corruption is so profound that she has lost every shred of moral perception. Sometimes her methods strike us as too subtle and finished for an American girl born of honest, decent stock. In the end, however, she does credit to her uncultivated ancestors, for, not content with making a scandal, she does it, as old Lady Davenant says, "in the most offensive way, publicly, clumsily, with the vulgarest bravado."

Mr. James long ago reached perfection in the art of insinuation. One of the great charms of his work is, that we can imagine so much more than he tells us, and feel quite sure that our imagination does not lead us astray. It is very pleasant and flattering to find ourselves able to do half the author's work, but it is maddening to have to do it all, to be given almost nothing to go upon. In Mrs. Temperly the author overestimates his power and abuses his privilege. She is an astute, managing mamma, of course, but what is the object of her astuteness? Where does she mean to arrive? The sphinx was frankness itself in comparison with Mrs. Temperly, and no one not in the author's intimate confidence will ever know what she was "after."

It is strange that when a story is discovered in ancient, mouldy, crabbed MS., it is pretty sure to be so dull a story that we wish the worm had eaten it, or that it had been quite undecipherable. For all the entertainment that can be extracted from it, the MS. of 'Margery, a Tale of Old Nuremberg,' might as well have rotted on the shelves of the merchant in Venice. Margery was old when she wrote her life, and that is some excuse for her prolixity, heaviness, and disorderly habit of narration. If she had undertaken less, she might have done better. Her own love affairs and the charms of her youth, beauty, and virtue are quite enough for one volume, while a consecutive account of the adventures of her wild brother, Herdegen, would suffice for a large second. The one merit of her clumsy, discursive manner is that it helps realization of a ponderous pomp and slow-going magnificence with which a burgher aristocracy, at the height of its power, probably surrounded itself. Some of her descriptions of fêtes and pageants are rich and gorgeous word-pictures, and the author's name is a guarantee for their historical accuracy.

The MSS. left by Micah Clarke, to be collated and edited by a descendant, are better worth preservation. The compiler unfortunately delayed his work a little too long, and his story of the Western Rebellion of 1685, and of the pitiful rout of James Duke of Monmouth, has been forestalled by Mr. Besant. But the tale can be twice told without loss, especially when there is no resemblance between the characters and minor incidents of the two versions. Micah had a stirring time for a month or two, and describes his adventures graphically. He is not the hero of his own tale, but an humble follower of Decimus Saxton, who had sold his sword to every prince in Europe, but was none the less able a soldier because he plied his trade neither for principle nor patriotism, but for money and purè love of a fight. Decimus is a spirited example of the soldier of fortune, and his figure makes a brilliant contrast to that of the unhappy Monmouth, the slave of mood, one hour depressed to the ground, the next exalted to the skies, fit for nothing less than a leader of armies, unless it may have been a king. Throughout the story there is a great deal of vivid, thrilling description, of which the charge of the King's men on the peasants massed behind their scythes at Sedgemoor is a fair example:

"The fog was rent, and the long lines of the royal cavalry broke out from it, wave after wave, rich in scarlet and blue and gold, as grand a sight as ever the eye rested on. There was something in the smooth, steady sweep of so great a body of horsemen which gave the feeling of irresistible power. Rank after rank and line after line, with waving standards, tossing manes, and gleaming steel, they poured onward, an army in themselves, with either flank still shrouded in the mist. As they thundered along, mane to mane and bridle to bridle, there came from them such a gust of deep-chested oaths, with the jangle of harness, the clash of steel, and the measured beat of multitudinous hoofs, that no man who hath not stood up against such a whirlwind, with nothing but a seven-foot pike in his hand, can know how hard it is to face it with a steady lip and a firm grip."

GOULD'S ORNITHOLOGICAL WORKS.

Birds of New Guinea, and the adjacent Papuan Islands, etc. Five volumes, imperial folio. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1875-88.

Supplement to the Trochilidæ, or Humming-birds. One volume, imperial folio. 1885-87. Same publishers.

THE ornithological works of the late John Gould comprise forty imperial-folio volumes, embracing about 3,000 colored plates, in most cases giving life-size figures of the species treated. This series of works, unrivalled for the accuracy and beauty of the illustrations, was begun in 1832 with 'A Century of Birds from the Himalayan Mountains,' and 'The Birds of Europe.' The latter, in five volumes, with about 450 plates, was completed in 1837. After two years of residence and travel in Australia, accompanied by his wife, Gould began the publication of his great work on the 'Birds of Australia,' in seven volumes, with 600 plates, finishing the work in 1848, to which, however, a 'Supplement' was added, 1851-69, consisting of eighty-one plates and accompanying text; the work as finally left comprising eight volumes and nearly 700 plates. In the meantime, he began a companion work on the 'Mammals of Australia,' which was not finished till 1863, forming three volumes, with nearly 300 plates. His next work was the 'Monograph of the Trochilidæ, or Humming-birds,' begun in 1849 and finished in 1861, five volumes, with 360 plates. In 1850 he brought out the first parts of his great work on the 'Birds of Asia'—seven volumes, with 530 plates—which, however, was not finished till 1883, two years after Mr. Gould's death. In 1875 he entered upon the publication of his seventh great work, the 'Birds of New Guinea,' one of the works here especially under notice.

Besides these large works, Gould published three important monographs of particular families of birds, mostly remarkable for the brilliancy of their plumage. These are, in the order of publication, 'A Monograph of the Odontophorinæ, or the Partridges of America,' 1844–50, 32 plates; 'A Monograph of the Family Rhamphastidæ, or Toucans,' 1852–54, 52 plates; 'A Monograph of the Trogonidæ, or Family of Trogons,' 1868–75, 47 plates.

In addition to his large folio works, Gould published a 'Hand-book' of the birds of Australia in 1865—two volumes, large 8vo, without illustrations, consisting of the letter-press of the larger work, with much interpolated matter, designed more especially for the residents of Australia and for those unable to purchase the larger work. He was also in the habit of publishing, as separate works, each in a single octavo volume, the introductory portions of his larger works, mainly for distribution among his scientific friends.

As already stated, the publication of the 'Birds of New Guinea' was begun in 1875, of which only twelve parts of the twenty-five comprising the work had appeared at the time of Mr. Gould's death in 1881. The remaining thirteen parts have been prepared and carried through the press under the direction of Mr. R. Bowdler Sharpe, the eminent curator of the Ornithological Department of the British Museum. The 'Introduction,' also written by Mr. Sharpe, gives an historical sketch of ornithological discovery and exploration in New Guinea and neighboring islands, mostly restricted in time to the last thirty years. Prior to this time our knowledge of this most interesting region was exceedingly slight and vague. "No other country," says Mr. Sharpe, "has produced in recent times more novelties in the way of birds than New Guinea, and every fresh expedition to the mountains of the interior appears to add to the number." Here several new and remarkable genera, as well as species, of birds of paradise have been discovered within the last few years, as well as many new parrots and other striking forms.

As shown by the full title of the work, 'The Birds of New Guinea and the Adjacent Papuan Islands, including any New Species that may be Discovered in Australia,' it was intended to be in a measure further supplementary to Mr. Gould's great work on the birds of Australia. As the work was limited to twenty-five parts, only about three hundred species are here figured, out of a total of more than a thousand now known as inhabitants of the Papuasian region. The birds of New Guinea are especially remarkable for the brilliancy of their plumage, including as they do the larger part of the great family of paradise

birds, with their rich metallic coloring and odd and striking appendages in the form of ruffs, crests, shields, and remarkably elongated plumes. The great parrot family is also represented in its extreme brilliancy of coloring and variety of forms, while some of the kingfishers and the fruit pigeons and the gaudy pittas, make up an assemblage that may well tax the most skilful artist to delineate. Many of the smaller birds are not lacking in striking features of coloration or form. As usual in Gould's works, a single sheet of text accompanies each plate, giving a description and a brief history of the species figured.

The supplement to the Trochilidæ, or humming-birds, projected shortly before Mr. Gould's death, was also carried to completion by Mr. R. Bowdler Sharpe, with the coöperation of Mr. Osbert Salvin, a well-known English ornithologist, who has made this group of birds a special subject of study. This work was issued in five parts, 1885-87, forming a single volume of fifty-eight plates and text, completing the work on the humming-birds, now comprising six volumes, with upwards of 400 plates. About 420 species are figured the size of life, with appropriate floral surroundings, almost rivalling in effectiveness of presentation nature's own handiwork. The original designs (of the original work, at least), as in the case of Gould's other works, were executed by himself, and drawn on stone by Mr. Richter. The introduction to the work fills more than one hundred pages, and treats of the classification and systematic arrangement of the genera and species.

The humming-birds have been styled the "gems of creation," their metallic tints rivalling in brilliancy, variety of tint, and play of colors the richest mineral gems. Mr. Gould's collection of these birds, numbering nearly 6,000 specimens (now in the Natural History Department of the British Museum), was for many years unequalled in its extent and completeness, and long since acquired a world-wide celebrity. The common generic names given these birds indicate well some of their striking features. Among them are, with distinctive prefixes to indicate the various species, such as the following: emerald, amethyst, sapphire, topaz, ruby, star-throat, flame-bearer, sunbeam, rainbow, sun-angel, wood-star, hill-star, velvet-breast, train-bearer, sylph, raquet-tail, plumleteer, coquette, etc.

Mr. Gould was a remarkable man, and his illustrated works form an enduring monument to his energy, unceasing activity, artistic ability, and taste. He was born in September, 1804, in Lyme, Dorsetshire, England, and died February 3, 1881, at the age of seventy-seven years. In 1827 he went to London and was appointed Curator to the Zoölogical Society's Museum. He here made the acquaintance of many leading naturalists, including Mr. N. A. Vigors, an eminent ornithologist, by whom he was encouraged to make his first venture in the field in which he eventually became so famous. "By this time, however, an event had taken place which had an influence on the whole of his later life; viz., his marriage with Miss Coxen, the daughter of Mr. Nicholas Coxen of Kent. Besides her other accomplishments, Mrs. Gould was an admirable draughtswoman, and, from her husband's sketches, she transferred to stone the figures" of his first illustrated works. In 1838 she accompanied him to Australia, where for two years they studied in life the birds they were to depict and describe. Soon after their return, however, Mrs. Gould died, and for a time Mr. Gould was nearly overwhelmed by his bereavement.

Letters of Thomas Carlyle. 1826-1836. Edited by Charles Eliot Norton. Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THESE new letters of Carlyle extend from the date of his marriage to that of the publication of the 'French Revolution,' and, in his life, from the thirty-first to the forty-first year. They are in nearly all cases written to members of his family, and portions of a few of them were included, with many errors, in Froude's 'Life.' They afford a complete view of Carlyle's interests, labors, and temperament at this important and trying period of his life, and amply justify the hopes that such an epistolary autobiography would give not only a much needed correction of the false impressions made by Froude's method of dealing with his materials, but an entertaining and useful story of Carlyle's growth and nature. The most striking general feature of the letters is their simple and almost humble tone. Froude, by selecting for publication the most highly colored passages, and especially those most affected by emotion, melancholy, or picturesqueness of style, made his narrative altogether too high-strung. The larger mass of ordinary letters is needed to give proper relief to such moments of feeling. With these new letters before us, we see that Carlyle's relations with his family—and these were the most vital and intimate of his life-relations—were natural and healthy; and they were in the highest degree honorable to him. One would look in vain for a better example of filial or brotherly affection constantly alive, conscientious, and helpful. He was interested in the doings and fortunes of all, not in a generally sympathetic, but a specific and practical way, and he knew no difference between the "Doctor" at Rome and Naples and poor "Alick" struggling on his farm, under the hopeless conditions and hard surroundings of Scottish agriculture. He was always anxious to give and receive merely personal news, shared in their ventures and trials, and was ready with advice and encouragement.

The more interesting part is naturally the expression of the attachment between himself and his aged and pious mother, as it also exhibits character in a very pure form. Carlyle's mother, indeed, with her worryings over the children and her trust in God, her learning to write from him and her painful exercise of the pen, her reading of his books and articles, her limited experience beyond the Ecclefechan horizon, and her looking forward to the annual meeting with her son, is the most prominent character in the correspondence; and whenever he writes to her, the page is brighter for the beauty and tenderness of the relationship. To have brought out fully the fact of this tie, which was so large an element in Carlyle's human life, is sufficient reward; but when to this is added the spirit of the whole united family, struggling to live independently and worthily, and to better themselves and each other according to their opportunities, a great deal has been added to our knowledge of the good in Carlyle's days.

Next to this undiminished and simple family affection and helpfulness in Carlyle, one notes particularly his kindness to those whom he could in any useful way assist. He was hospitable really to any sincere and honest young man, and did not limit his interest to literary youths. He was willing to do a good turn by the way to very humble and ordinary folk. The capital instance of his kindness, however, in these letters, is his attention to poor Glen, a disciple of his whose mind failed. He read Homer with him—much to his own pleasure, it is true, but that does not lessen the virtue of the act, and he was attentive, so far as was in his power, to his comfort and bettering. To Irving, too, his spirit is admirable in patience and love. The victim of what Carlyle most abhorred, he nevertheless was not suffered to become alienated from his heart, and Carlyle's pictures of the wretched condition of his friend are more full of sorrow than of the contempt he must have felt for the results of such a life as Irving came to lead. Towards Jeffrey, also, though one perceives the gradually widening rift between the two, Carlyle maintained as appreciative and grateful an attitude as was to be expected. Jeffrey himself nowhere in our accounts of him stands forth so amiably and acceptably as here. He was kind and helpful, according to his lights, when Carlyle needed friends, and will be so most pleasantly remembered. Mill's friendship and considerate services also are truly rendered, and, on the whole, one gets the impression that he was a truer and more interested friend than the correspondence properly shows. These are the principal human elements in the letters, outside of the family concerns, and they give an impression of general kindliness and good-will in the air—the very thing which Froude most left out.

Carlyle himself is egoistical as always; absorbed in himself, in his genius and its expression so much as to lend disproportion to the world of men outside him, which he always beheld with a queer distortion. The keenness of his physical eye seems to have partly blinded him to moral and intellectual character less immediately and continually shown, and his proneness to a depreciatory judgment disturbed his little faculty of toleration. His mood was that of the prophet, and he carried it to the dinner-table, where it does not belong. The difficulty he found in obtaining expression for his genius doubtless contributed to this oblique view of ordinary human life. The necessity he seems under of talking to himself, as a driver does to his horse, to keep his courage up, is as obvious in all these letters as in any others. He preached to his own soul as pertinaciously as to the world, and in the same words. This strain, this unceasing reminder to himself to fear God and respect not men's judgments or ways, keeps on independent of his progress. He gradually left behind the schemes of taking professorships and lecturing, he burned his failures in literature, and came to a sure conviction as to his place and work, and the fate he was subject to of staying put, but without finding it easier to do so without self-declamation.

It is hardly fanciful to say that these apostrophes to himself and "lashings" of moral feeling were to him what, in another age and with other modes of the same faith, prayer and "wrestlings" would have been. They were his spiritual resource and the language of them. But in a certain way the constant repetition of these phrases and the fluency of these "communings" serve an end. It was one result of the publication of his opinions upon men and of his family history to turn attention from his works to his life; and it is well to find that the principles he preached were those he lived by, that they were self-derived, genuine and native to his own struggles, and to observe in what way they operated on himself from day to day and year to year. The sight of struggle in its real forms, of tragedy unsoftened and unilluminated by the poetic spirit, is never pleasant; hard features are as disagreeable in a life as in a face, and in Carlyle's biography this element is trying always. But, although in these letters all this must enter, being a part of the truth, yet the value of

Prof. Norton's work, which is that of a just friend as well as of a laborious editor, is that it lowers the relief of these hard lines, and shows more fully the kindliness, the fidelity, and the true-heartedness of Carlyle, in which his manhood lay quite as much as in his self-rallying courage, his indignation at feebleness and folly, and his uncharitableness when his affections were not concerned. These volumes show his private life with those nearest and dearest to him, apart from his genius, and in this way—which is the way of truth—serve his memory as his friends would wish.

Speeches of the Right Honorable Lord Randolph Churchill, M.P., 1880–1888. Collected, with Notes and Introduction, by Louis J. Jennings, M.P. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

Later Speeches on Political Questions, with Select Controversial Papers. By George W. Julian. Indianapolis: Carlon & Hollenbeck. 1889.

An American reader of Mr. Jennings's volumes cannot help asking himself of how many of our public men it would pay to print the speeches after the voluminous fashion in which those of Lord Churchill, Mr. Bright, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Gladstone, and many others have been presented. A cynical politician might reply that they are not expected to pay, at least in a pecuniary sense, but only as an advertisement of the particular statesman. But the question recurs *à fortiori*, how many of our public men would think that any gain at all adequate to the expenditure could result from such a method. That which seems to be much more relied upon here is the management of primary meetings and nominating conventions and political machinery in general. But it is not only remarkable that these speeches should be printed, but that they should be made. With us, in the few weeks preceding a Presidential, and in a much less and almost vanishing degree before a State election, a certain number of speakers make the rounds, but the audiences are for the most part small, and much more interested in brass bands and torch-light processions. In England, at every interval of Parliamentary sessions the leading statesmen go about the country, and the interest is so great that, to hear even men of the second rank, like Lord Churchill, audiences of five, ten, and twenty thousand persons are not wanting.

A third feature of the English speeches is that they are so much more readable than any made here. The writer of this notice, at the time of the introduction of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill, waded through at least a hundred columns of speeches reported in the *Times*, and has not found the interest of these two volumes to flag. Yet, surely, the questions of civil-service and tariff reform, of the Inter-State Commerce Act, the general pension bills, the treatment of the Indians, admit of as dramatic presentation, and ought to be of more interest to us, than those of home rule in Ireland, of the Egyptian expedition, or the management of the British army and navy.

The secret we take to lie in the personal and public character of English politics, as compared with the anonymous and abstract quality of ours. In England all great questions are debated in the open arena of the House of Commons. They take the form of definite measures, for and against which are arrayed all the leading men, both of the Government and of the Opposition. When these men afterwards go outside of Parliament or into the provinces, they are already perfectly well known, both of themselves and in their relation to the great questions of the day. A keen interest is felt in seeing them and hearing their remarks, not only upon the main subjects, but upon their colleagues and opponents.

In this country all business is thrown, in its crudest and most abstract form, into the committee-rooms, from which it emerges in perfectly impersonal shape, and usually only in the last hours of a session, or in such a confusion of other business that debate of a kind to interest or inform the public is out of the question. When a member, therefore, undertakes to address the constituents of his own or any other district, he must deal in pure generalities. His hearers know nothing of the processes or arguments by which the result, if any, has been arrived at. They do not identify it with any particular man or men, and thus the element of personal interest is wholly lost. No speaker can point to anything good or bad which he himself or anybody else has done, or can promise that he or anybody else will do anything in the future, because all action depends upon majorities—first of committees and then of the houses—respecting which nobody can say anything definite of any kind. We are not now discussing other qualities of the two systems; but with regard to the interest of public speaking there can be no question as to where the advantage lies.

Lord Randolph Churchill is apparently neither a very great orator nor a very great man, yet these side-lights make his speeches entertaining. First of all comes the fury and hatred with which the true Tory regards Mr. Gladstone. The rueful admission of his great influence with the mass of the nation, coupled with the outbursts of denunciation, is very amusing. Not less so is the exaltation of the influence of property and land and position, struggling with the compulsory worship of the rising tide of democracy. On one side Lord Randolph seems distinctly to deserve credit, in that he has ventured to separate himself from his party by denouncing the extravagance and inefficiency of the spending department, and preferred rather to resign the Chancellorship of the Exchequer than to be a consenting party to expenditures against which he had pledged himself in his public speeches. It may be added that while not always expressed in the purest of English, these speeches show a good deal of vigor and force, and at times rise to a fair height of eloquence.

It is to be feared that reformers of Mr. Julian's type do more upon the whole to discredit reform than to advance it. Their besetting sin is exaggeration, and after they are once found out their influence ceases with the sober-minded. We are in full accord with Mr. Julian in most of his contentions, and we have no disposition to question his sincerity; but we are repelled by his methods. Those who differed with him may have been in the wrong, and those whom he denounced may have deserved denunciation; but *est modus in rebus*. Profuse and diversified vituperation may seem effective oratory at the hustings, but it makes poor reading, and of several of the speeches collected in this volume we must say that they are "full of sound and fury, signifying nothing." Reason revolts when we peruse a diatribe full of such statements as that in Massachusetts "a crouching tenantry, toiling under absentee landlords, bears witness at once to the decline of agriculture and the decay of freedom"; or when the author calls the denial of the suffrage to women as gross a wrong as negro slavery is. Yet, in spite of the offensive tone of these speeches and their almost total lack of literary merit, they are worth preserving. They contain some sort of history of the Independent movement of 1872, or rather of the abuses which caused that movement. They contain also very clear and strong statements of the case against Garfield, of that against Blaine, and of the scandalous proceedings in Louisiana after the election in 1876. These statements are made in partisan manner and for partisan purposes, but they seem to us substantially accurate, and are very effectively arranged. It would probably not be easy to find a more detailed and comprehensive arraignment of the Republican party than is contained in this volume.

Bibliotheca Washingtoniana: A Descriptive List of the Biographies and Biographical Sketches of George Washington. By W. S. Baker. Philadelphia. 1889.

Valuable as is this fourth compilation on Washingtoniana that Mr. Baker has prepared, it yet falls short of the needed detail and accuracy of a bibliography of the subject, while, on the other hand, it is more full and general than would be looked for in a reader's handbook. A bibliography would demand a complete collation of an edition, the full title, paging, and even errors of arrangement; but the manner in which Mr. Baker has secured many of his titles, from library sales and booksellers' catalogues, notes in magazines, or advertisements of proposed publications, has made this complete record impossible. Where a copy of a book has come under his eye, the needed information is given, and, so far as we have compared his titles, given accurately, while his notes are judicious and by no means uninteresting reading.

It is difficult to realize how much energy has been expended in describing the life of Washington—we had almost written *lives*, as a comparison would lead the readers to believe that different persons were being written of, and not the same man. And it is by no means a consoling reflection to think that it is the crude and more imperfect attempts that enjoy the greatest popularity. Of the earlier writers none can begin to compare with Marshall, whose biography in many ways is still the best extant. Now Marshall is noted 18 times, Weems 49, Corry 20, Ramsay 14, Aaron Bancroft 12, and Morse 10. Of the later writers Sparks is most favored, but Irving, Guizot, and Frost are not left far behind. It is, therefore, Weems, the itinerant book-peddler and fiddler, who has gained the greatest popularity; and a very curious story in the evolution of Washington myths could be written from the different editions of this little book, now worthy to be called a "classic," for its sale still pays a royalty to the possessor of the latest copyright. In the first edition (1800) Weems is merely "Rev.," and the moral tales of the cabbage-garden and cherry-tree do not appear until the reverend author has had sufficient courage and imagination to describe himself as "formerly rector of Mt. Vernon parish," equally a myth with his legends. This did not occur until the sixth edition, published in 1808. Yet the popular idea of Washington is more apt to be based upon these figments of Weems's imagination than upon a more solid estimate like Marshall's. We should like to notice other curiosities, such as the first biographical sketch noted (1777), the Latin works of Glass and Lance, the play by Custis, and the absurd genealogy issued by Welles, in which he starts with Odin; but space forbids.

The fact that a limited edition of Mr. Baker's book is issued precludes a second edition, yet it will be well to note several errors and omissions. His 447, without an author's name,

is a reprint of Mrs. Hyde's volume, already entered as No. 426. A note should have been added to Habberton's sketch (No. 474), to allow the reader to know that it is a "comic" biography. And, as the man has been his best biographer, why ought not some mention of the new collection of his writings now in process of publication to have been made? It was announced early in 1888, and Mr. Baker has titles of what has been issued in 1889. But these are light failings when compared with the general utility of the book. Its interest and value are enhanced by an etching of the "Powel" portrait of Washington, painted by Wright.

John Brown. By Dr. Hermann von Holst. Edited by Frank Preston Stearns. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

THIS small volume is perhaps the first evoked in a polemic spirit by Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's Life of Lincoln during its piecemeal appearance in the *Century*. Others, we dare say, will follow, not so recklessly incurred—for a judgment of the hero of Harper's Ferry was by no means necessary to the biography. Mr. Stearns, whose father's relations to John Brown are well known, seems to us to have been unduly moved by an *obiter dictum*, and on the other hand to have overrated the effect of the essay which Von Holst contributed to vol. xli of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. Its style is rather more tropical than that of the author's 'Constitutional History,' and the argument seems to us to offer nothing new to a discussion which cannot possibly be compressed into 120 pages of coarse print—one-half devoted to Harper's Ferry alone. While allowing full weight to Holst's historical opinion and moral sympathies, we think Mr. Stearns unwarrantably elated when he makes of this essay an impregnable bulwark against hostile attacks on Brown. "No rude hand will ever again," he is confident, "reach high enough to pull down this record of his fame." But, as a first consequence, let us see if Messrs. Hay and Nicolay will feel constrained to modify their censure in the finished book.

For example, what has Von Holst done to fix the verdict of posterity concerning the midnight Pottawatomie massacre—assassinations—"executions," to use Mr. F. B. Sanborn's euphemism? He gives at most 300 words to the subject, and declares it a false accusation that Brown was the originator of the deed. Mr. Sanborn, on the contrary, writes a whole chapter to prove that Brown was the author of "this act of wild justice," that it was his crown of glory, and that he was, "consciously or unconsciously," executing the will of Heaven. No doubt the difference between the essayist and the biographer is referred to by the former (who wrote before the appearance of Sanborn's Life) when he tells Mr. Stearns that, while his views of Brown's character and the historical significance of his career have undergone no change, "the new materials brought to light by Mr. Sanborn render some corrections as to details necessary." Mr. Stearns thinks "the details in this case are fortunately not essential." If Pottawatomie is one of them, he will not find many to agree with him, and certainly not Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, whose insistence upon it in their general disparagement of Brown is one of Mr. Stearns's chief grievances.

The editor's part in this volume consists of a preface, a rambling introduction professing to characterize Von Holst's great 'Constitutional History of the United States,' and a medley of appendixes, in the longest of which Mr. Stearns takes up the unfriendly criticism of John Brown. He even has to cover Brackett's bust of Brown from assault, without convincing us that it has a tithe of the impressiveness of the best photographs before the beard was grown—for Brown's mouth was the man.

Mr. Stearns's ill-health compelled him to employ for the translation of Von Holst a French American, and hence on page 171 we have "Freedom" (for Liberty) party; but "Pelleton" on pages 190, 192, should not have been overlooked. Other slips are "36° 31′" (for 30′) on page 68, and "Dr." Richard D. Webb, for plain Mr., on page 49. Views of John Brown's grave, a beardless portrait, the bust, the medal, adorn the volume.

A History of the University of Cambridge. By J. Bass Mullinger, M.A. [Epochs of Church History.] A. D. F. Randolph & Co. Pp. 232.

MR. BRODRICK'S history of the University of Oxford, which we reviewed nearly two years ago, has found a companion in the history of the University of Cambridge, by J. Bass Mullinger. It would be invidious, if it were easy, to draw a comparison between books of so high merit, especially when the plan of composition does not admit of any but a very general and popular treatment. The distinctive character of the two institutions does not fail, however, to show itself in the treatment. The strong intellectual life of Oxford, its general conservatism, and its steady adherence to the party of the King, are contrasted with the ardor with which its sister university espoused the cause of the Reformation, and its decided Puritan leanings. Mr. Mullinger has supplied what we pointed out as a defect in Mr. Brodrick's book, by giving a pretty full sketch of the origin of the university system of the Middle Ages, and something of its management. The interesting history of university education in the last two centuries is well related, and this will be found, in both books, a welcome aid by many students.

French Life in Letters. By Mrs. Molesworth. Macmillan & Co. 1889. Pp. 80.

A YOUNG English girl goes to Paris with some relatives for the purpose of improving her knowledge of the French language. She has promised to write to her mother and sister chatty letters recounting the incidents of her voyage, impressions of French life, shopping, housekeeping, sight-seeing, etc. Her teacher suggests that she add the useful to the agreeable by writing altogether in French. Such is the plan of this excellent little book—a happy idea, well carried out. Miss Laura has only had time to write ten letters when her mother and sister join her in Paris; but these eighty pages, so fresh and interesting, so different from the commonplace, guide-book rehash usually found in text-books, so replete with useful information, might have for epigraph, *Multum in parvo*. The style, always natural and correct, is far from childish, and, though the book be intended for schools, any young lady contemplating a trip to Paris will find it a valuable companion to take along with her. The typographical execution is what we expect from Mrs. Molesworth's publishers. Still, errors will creep into the best work, and in another edition it were well to print *sourit*, instead of *souria* (p. 64), and *demandai-je* instead of *demandais-je* (p. 53).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. Days out of Doors. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Alexander, Mrs. A Crooked Path. Geo. Munro. 20 cents.
Belford's Magazine. Vol. II. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Bunsen, E. de. Islam, or True Christianity. London: Trübner & Co.
Cobb, S., jr. Ben Hamed. Street & Smith.
Dean, F. A. The Heroines of Petoséga. Hawthorne Pub. Co.
Dean, Mrs. A. Isaac Eller's Money. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 2s.
Dickson, W. G. Gleanings from Japan. London: Wm. Blackwood & Sons.
Fane, Violet. The Story of Helen Davenant. D. Appleton & Co.
Johnston, H. H. The History of a Slave. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Meagher, M. W. Alluring Absurdities; Fallacies of Henry George. Am. News Co. 25 cents.
Molee, Prof. E. Germauik English. Bristol, Day Co., Dakota: The Author.
Norman, Lucia. Popular History of California. 2d ed. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
O'Reilly, H. Fifty Years on the Trail. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Parsons, Crawford, and Richardson. The World's Best Books. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Partnership Laws: The Statutes of New York, with the Decisions Thereon. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 75 cents.
Plato's Protagoras. Edited by Profs. J. W. White and T. D. Seymour. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Prentiss, Mary E. The Story Lizzie Told. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 25 cents.
Raymond, Grace. How They Kept the Faith: A Tale of the Huguenots of France. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Robertson, Margaret M. Eunice: A Story of Domestic Life in New England.—By a Way She Knew Not.—The Two Miss Jean Dawsons. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents each.
Roosa, Dr. D. B. St. John. The Old Hospital, and Other Papers. 2d ed. Wm. Wood & Co.
Russell, Sir C. The Parnell Commission: The Opening Speech for the Defence. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Russell, W. C. William Dampier. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Seymour, Prof. T. D. First Three Books of Homer's Iliad. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Slosson, Annie T. Fishin' Jimmy. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 60 cents.
Travel, Adventure, and Sport from *Blackwood*. White & Allen.
Valdés, A. P. Marquis of Peñalta.—Maximina. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents each.
Van Daell, Prof. A. N. Pages Choisies des Mémoires du Duc de Saint-Simon. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Van Zile, E. S. The Last of the Van Slacks. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Wall, E. J. Dictionary of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co.
Walsh, Marie. His Wife or His Widow? G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Warner, C. D. Studies in the South and West; with Comments on Canada. Harper & Bros.
Washington Life Insurance Co.: Historical, Actuarial, and Medical Statistics. New York.
Weismann, Prof. A. Essays upon Heredity. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Westall, W. Birch Dene: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Whitman, H. The Washingtons and their Connection with Warton [Eng.]. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 25 cents.
Wicks, W. S. Log Cabins: How to Build and Furnish Them. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.
Wilson, G. H. The Musical Year-Book of the United States. Vol. VI. Boston: The Author.
Winter, J. S. Sophy Carmine. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Wright, W. A. Letters and Literary Remains of Edward Fitzgerald. 3 vols. Macmillan & Co. $10.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 1, 1889.

The Week.

THE particulars of the rerating of Senator Manderson of Nebraska as a military pensioner have a very bad look. Mr. Manderson was wounded in 1864 and granted a half-pension in 1865. From that time to the present his ability to earn a living has been demonstrated by his notable advance in public position, which has brought him in middle life to the very highest council of the nation. All this tells *for* him as a man and *against* him as a pensioner. That is, it has demonstrated in a remarkable way how little Mr. Manderson needs to be supported at the public expense in consequence of wounds received in the military service, or for any other reason. But, as a matter of fact, a fellow named Squires, whom Corporal Tanner took to Washington as a clerk in the Pension Office, and who has since been discharged for gross misbehavior, or rather transferred to a different office (that of timber agent), pulled out of the pigeon-holes of the department the medical certificate on which Manderson's half-pension was granted in 1865, and he (Squires), together with Tanner and one Carpenter, a "medical referee," decided in a private way that Manderson ought to have been awarded a full pension in the beginning—that is, for "total disability," which the law fixes at $30 per month for officers of his rank. This is called rerating. It gave Manderson "back pay" at the rate of $15 per month from the date of his discharge to the present time. It hoisted the sum of $4,000 out of the public treasury into Manderson's pocket, and it causes the additional sum of $15 per month to be paid to him during the remainder of his life if the rerating transaction is allowed to stand.

It is said that Senator Manderson had not applied for a rerating, and that he knew nothing about the proceedings until he received the check for back pay. But it appears that he put it in his pocket just the same. The public will not recognize any difference between the one act and the other. He was either entitled to the money or he was not. Being a lawyer and a Senator as well as a pensioner, he knows what the words "total disability" signify. He knows whether he was totally disabled by a wound received a quarter of a century ago. If he was not, then he knows that he was not entitled to the $4,000 hoisted out of the Treasury for his benefit by Squires, Tanner, and Carpenter, and that he had no moral right to touch it. Whether he had a legal right to it may yet be determined by the courts. A despatch to the Philadelphia *Inquirer* says that if the Secretary of the Interior is not satisfied with the proceeding, he will bring suit against Manderson to recover the money. Such a suit against a Senator will be a public scandal, and one which the people of Nebraska would probably have taken notice of by sending Manderson into retirement if it had occurred before his re-election last winter. The man Squires, who took the initiative in rerating Manderson, was formerly a clerk in the Naval Office of the New York Custom-house. Tanner was in the same office with him. Squires, under the free-and-easy system which aforetime prevailed in the Naval Office, knocked off work for a year or more, but continued to draw his pay. It was found that he was running a pension agency of his own somewhere in the city. He was finally called to order by the Naval Officer and directed to abandon one vocation or the other—either to resign his clerkship or his pension business. After a good deal of difficulty, and after orders had been issued forbidding to pension claimants entrance to Squires's room, he resigned. Naturally he turned up as an invaluable auxiliary to Tanner at Washington. After he was discharged by the Secretary of the Interior for scandalous conduct, he was appointed timber agent at some place in the West, where his opportunities for thrift will probably be as great as they were in either the Pension Office or the Naval Office, and will be worked for all they are worth.

It is believed in Washington that both the President and Secretary Noble are desirous of keeping the Commissioner of Pensions, Mr. Tanner, away from the approaching national gathering of the Grand Army of the Republic. The reason given for this desire is fear of what Tanner may say there on the subject of pensions. It is said the Administration is anxious not to be committed to the service-pension policy, and is afraid that if Tanner attends the meeting and talks, as, of course, he would, he would commit the Administration not only to that, but possibly to some policy even more "liberal to the boys." Fear of Tanner's mouth is not without justification, but it is difficult to see how he can commit the Administration any further than he has already done. He said only a short time ago, in a public speech to some veterans at Chicago: "I tell you frankly that I am for 'the old flag and an appropriation' for every old comrade who needs it. I don't claim that I represent the views of the Administration, but I do know that I have the support of the President and Cabinet in this line—a pension for every old soldier who needs one." If that does not mean a service pension, what does it mean? As for the standard of "need" required to get Tanner's approval, the Manderson case throws sufficient light upon that.

Congressman De Lano, of the Twenty sixth New York District, has been giving a great deal of his time and mental force to the problem of getting the post-offices of his district out of the hands of Democrats and into the hands of Republicans with the least possible delay. When asked how he had succeeded, he is reported to have replied, a day or two ago: "Pretty well. There are 190 fourth-class post-offices in my district, and 140 of them are now run by Republicans. The others pay so little that there is no demand for a change. I am pretty well satisfied with the Administration." Probably this case represents accurately the average speed with which the post-office guillotine has been worked by the First-Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Clarkson, since he took office under the pious Mr. Wanamaker, or, as he is called by his religious admirers, "our beloved John." Nothing approaching Mr. Clarkson's record has ever been made in the Department. During the same period of time in which his predecessor, Mr. Vilas, removed 4,000 fourth-class postmasters, Mr. Clarkson has removed 13,000. His best record was 1,015 in one week, or an average of 169 each day for six days; for, of course, no assistant of so good a man as Mr. Wanamaker would be allowed to work on Sunday. This would be about one removal every three minutes, which is extremely rapid work, and which would not be possible under a system that allowed removals for cause only. The present rate is about 600 a week, and this is likely to be the regular pace, kept up with slight variations, until every one of the 55,000 fourth-class post-offices in the land has a good Republican in it.

An interesting glimpse at Republican methods in a Southern State is afforded by the proceedings of a meeting of Republicans recently held in Eureka Springs, Ark., to protest against the appointment, at the instance of Powell Clayton, of J. W. True as Postmaster. The resolutions, while holding President Harrison blameless, on the ground that he was "misled and deceived in the premises," accuse Clayton of disregarding the wishes of nine-tenths of the Republicans in the place in this matter, and declare that he "has openly and notoriously violated repeatedly the will of the Republican party, not only in his own home, but in different parts of the State of Arkansas, *and has prostituted his high privilege in our party as the dispenser of Federal patronage.*" The resolutions further declare that "it is our honest conviction that Gen. Clayton's leadership of his party in this State is only for his own personal benefit in controlling Federal patronage, and not for the success of Republican principles and the party," and that he "has thereby ruined Republican success in this State; and it is our opinion that so long as these methods in procuring this and other appointments are resorted to and he remains at the head of our party, we despair of success." The participants in the meeting resolved that they would not further submit to "this damaging and ruinous element in our party," and called on "all true and tried Republicans throughout the State" to follow their example, and "assist in every lawful way and manner to restore our party to honorable and impartial leadership." Northern Republicans who

cannot understand why their party does not stand better with decent men at the South, may study these proceedings with profit.

The prospectus of the North American Salt Company is too much for the loyalty of the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, which is moved to say:

"The combination between American and British salt magnates is designed to go into operation on January 1, 1890. Congress will meet a month—perhaps two or three months—before that date, and will give its undivided attention for a few weeks to the subject of 'combines.' *Salt must be put on the free list.*"

What is to become of our precious platform adopted at Chicago last year, which says that "if there shall remain a larger revenue than is requisite for the wants of the Government, we favor the entire repeal of the internal-revenue taxes, rather than the surrender of *any part* of our protective system"? Is not salt a part of our protective system? Anybody who has kept the run of tariff debates for a quarter of a century will be apt to think so. Anybody who recalls the wonderful speeches of the Republican members of Congress last summer, when the salt paragraph in the Mills bill was under discussion, will think that this article is as large a part of the underpinning of the protective system as anything else that can be named. Who has authorized the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* to trample on the precious platform and knock out the underpinning of the tariff in this reckless fashion? What authority has this wild Western newspaper to pledge Congress to so ruthless an act? What has the question of Trusts to do with the tariff anyway? Did not Mr. Blaine tell us that Trusts were largely private affairs? And how, we ask, are the beneficent effects of the duty on salt (79 per cent.) lessened by the salt combine? The theory of protection is that the money made by the protected interests is "kept in the country," and that it is diffused in the form of dew all over the land. Obviously in such a case it can make no difference whether the money is collected by a Trust or by individuals. The formation and distribution of dew will go on just the same in either case. We think that the *Globe-Democrat* is much too hasty.

The collapse of the Salt Trust is due entirely to the force of public opinion. There are plenty of capitalists who would have been glad to share in the venture. The prospectus of the Syndicate was very attractive. The plan announced was feasible, and would probably have been subscribed for two or three times over if confidence in Trusts had not been so much impaired by the hostility of the press, the State Legislatures, the courts, and all the recognized organs of public sentiment. One of the most ominous signs of all, and the most painful to the protected Trusts, has been the vacillating course of the *Tribune*, which seems one day to be coming over to the free-traders and the next to be going back to the high-tariffites. On Monday morning it essayed both rôles in the same paragraph, thus:

"Free-trade Democrats have the idea that Trusts and other similar combinations are fostered by the tariff. If they could realize how the sugar monopolists feel about the matter, and the promoters of the Salt Trust, they might change their minds. The power of the people to smash any combination, by reducing or abolishing a duty on imports, is one which monopolists are just now inclined to regard with great respect."

The difficulty of making out which way the *Tribune* is steering has probably unsettled the minds of many American investors, and may have affected unfavorably the subscription to the salt combine in England. The announcement from the other side that if the owners of the salt works show a good disposition, the scheme may be taken up in England next October, is very funny indeed, considering that the prospectus did not contemplate that the owners of salt works should do anything except sell out for cash. Yet it is true, we believe, that the only heavy subscriptions made were those of producers of salt whose property was to be embraced in the combine.

If there is any kind of property in this country that British syndicates do not want to buy, after taking the breweries at the owners' estimate of their value, we cannot imagine what it may be. Of all vocations by which men make a living, brewing in a large city is the one requiring the closest personal attention and the most unceasing vigilance. A document published by the Church Temperance Society a year or two ago disclosed the fact that most of the beer-saloons in this city are held under chattel mortgage by the brewers. It was shown that one brewer owned nearly two hundred saloons, the street and number of each one and the nominal proprietor being designated. Of course the strictest attention is needed to secure the proper returns from each saloon. Now, fancy all the breweries consolidated and the management of these and their outlying dependencies, the saloons, put under a single management, and that management responsible to a board of some kind sitting in London. What would probably be the end of such a speculation? We have heard of cheating in Western mines owned by foreigners, when there was only one thing and not more than half-a-dozen persons to be watched. Who will watch the breweries and saloon-keepers in a dozen American cities and render faithful accounts weekly or monthly to a confiding syndicate in Lombard Street?

The *Tribune* has an article entitled "Wool and Ballots," the aim of which is to show how much the price of wool has been advanced by Harrison's election, and how great an advantage that is for the country. In the concluding paragraph, however, it appears to recall the trifling circumstance that there are buyers as well as sellers of wool. It admits that the manufacturers "have not yet realized corresponding benefits," and that "it is felt by most of them that the state of the market for goods does not warrant so large an advance as has been realized in wool." What ought we to do in such a case? The *Tribune* has its own idea about it, and we have never seen anything more lucid in its discussions of public questions. The wool-growers ought to lower their prices for wool *a little*. Here is the remedy in its own words:

"If the growers have insisted upon too rapid or large an advance, some modification of prices may be found necessary in order to secure ready sale of goods representing the entire supply of wool. If, on the other hand, the goods market will support the manufacture fairly on the basis of wool at present prices, the most enterprising and skilful will soon discover and demonstrate the fact, and others will be encouraged to follow their example."

It is so much the custom of the producers of staple articles to accept less than the market rate in order to accommodate the purchasers that, we have no doubt, Mr. Columbus Delano, President of the Wool-Growers' Association, will speedily call his clan together and address them in words like these: "We have been too hasty and too greedy. We have '*insisted* upon too rapid and large an advance.' The manufacturers cannot stand it. We have demanded twenty-six cents a pound for our wool. The manufacturers will pay us this price rather than not have it. But as some modification may be found necessary in order to secure a *ready sale* of woollen goods, I move that we charge only twenty-three cents per pound. The voting will be by ballot."

We can imagine that the assembled wool-growers would receive the proposition at first with the respectful silence due to the known wisdom of the *Tribune* in commercial matters. But after some moments spent in pulling the wool away from their own eyes, probably somebody would ask how they could be sure that all would join in charging lower prices for wool, because, even if a pledge should be signed to that effect, some one might sneak off and sell his clip at the full market rate. Such an inquiry, once started, would spread to growers not members of the Association, to foreign growers, to wool-merchants having stocks on hand, and to foreign merchants in like case. How to get them to join in charging lower prices in order to make things easier for the manufacturers would be an ever-widening puzzle. Probably before all could be brought in and induced to sign the pledge, and to give satisfactory bonds for keeping it, the whole clip would have been worked off, and nothing done. There is, however, a latent idea in the *Tribune's* suggestion. It is that the wool-growers and manufacturers are partners in business, and that the former cannot be permanently prosperous if the latter are impoverished. The manufacturers will not work much longer on the starvation wages they have been getting. They are already on strike for lower duties on wool. They are demanding ad-valorem instead of specific rates, and of course they would not want that change unless it promised to give them wool on easier terms. Now we advise the wool-growers, instead of lowering the prices of their own wool by ballot, in the way hinted at by the *Tribune*, to lower the price of South American, Australian, Cape, and Donskoi wool by consenting to a change in the tariff. It is immaterial what you call it, so that the manufacturer gets his wool with less difficulty.

The organ of the American Protective Tariff League is moved to wrath by the charge that

it seeks to "*unduly* advance the prices of articles entering into the daily consumption of the people." It finds this charge in the columns of the New York *Tribune*, reference being had particularly to the article of refined sugar as at present monopolized by a Trust, and it brands the charge as "false," although it prefers to consider it due to a misunderstanding on the part of the *Tribune*. The *Tribune* has a good many misunderstandings, but this is not one of them. It was easy to say last year, while party feeling was in an excited state, that the tariff had nothing to do with Trusts, because people did not then stop to discriminate. They can see now that the tariff has to do with some Trusts, and not with others —that it is the bulwark and support of the Sugar Trust, the Lead Trust, the cotton-bagging, the binding-twine, castor-oil, linseed oil, and twenty or thirty others, while it has nothing to do with the Standard Oil, the Cotton Oil, or the Distillers' Trusts. Hence we are convinced that the *Tribune* is not laboring under the misunderstanding which the *American Economist* kindly intimates.

The tariff organ insists that it does not seek *unduly* to advance the prices of articles entering into daily consumption of the people. Evidently much depends upon the meaning of this phrase, and especially upon the kind of people who have the power to make the definition. Elsewhere in the same number of the tariff organ we find a triumphant comparison of the railway freight charges in this country and in Europe, the average here being $1.04 per ton, while it is $1.70 in Germany, $2.00 in England, and $2.14 in France. Now, what is it that has made the rate lower in this country than in the others named? Can we fancy that, if all the railways in the United States had been tied up in a Trust, the rate for freight would ever have gone as low as it is to-day? In such a case the railway managers would have said that they had no desire to maintain *unduly* high rates, but inasmuch as they were relieved from the pressure of competition, and were under no compulsory process to find the most economical methods of operation, they would be the exclusive judges of high rates, and would maintain them at about the figures prevailing twenty years ago. Competition has not allowed them to do so. That is the alpha and omega of railway rates in this country. Unduly high rates are any rates higher than free competition will fix and establish. When any man talks about his intention not to unduly advance the price of an article which everybody must buy and which he alone can sell, he means that he intends to fix those prices to suit himself, and that anybody who does not like them can let them alone.

Valuable testimony to the efficacy of the new ballot law in Massachusetts, which is to go into effect this fall, is furnished by J. E. Fitzgerald, one of the shrewdest and most adroit of the Democratic politicians of Boston. In speaking before a Democratic meeting on Thursday last, he urged the great necessity of harmony in the party because of the lessened chances of Democratic success caused by the new voting regulations. "There is," he said in describing the new law, "no ballot-distribution, nobody can hustle anybody up to the polls, and every man votes according to his conscience, behind a desk, with nobody to see him." The keen eye of the "practical politician" has detected one of the greatest reforms which the new law will secure: "Nobody can hustle anybody up to the polls." Nobody can "fix" a ticket for the bribed or intimidated voter, put it in his hand, and "hustle him up to the polls," and watch him while he casts it. There might be some prospect of "fixing" his ballot under the new system did not the law forbid any except official ballots to be used. That is the last and most deadly blow to the "hustler's" business, and that is why the politicians everywhere fight that provision the most earnestly of all.

The synopsis of decisions by the Treasury between July 6 and 20 is edifying for taxpayers. One of them is this:

"*Wooden cases* for use by manufacturers and venders of bottled soda-water, beer, and other liquors, and which are left by them with consumers to be called for again for the purpose of refilling, are not the *usual and necessary* coverings for imported bottles, and, when imported containing bottles, are dutiable at 100 per cent. ad valorem, under the proviso of section 7 of the Act of March 3, 1883." (Letter to Collector of Customs at New York, July 11, 1889.)

A hundred per cent. on a plain wooden box is rather a severe tax. How can the Collector know on entry that the box is to be thus left with the consumer or buyer of the contents, and called for and refilled, and is not to be used as kindling-wood? Are bottles treated in the same way? Is the box free of tax if not to be thus called for? What is the "usual and necessary covering" of imported bottles, if not a wooden box?

Mr. Wanamaker's idea of selling our present Post-office building and moving the office up town has been disposed of very summarily. Scarcely a voice has been heard in favor of the proposition, while practically the entire business community has condemned it as little less than foolishness. If Mr. Wanamaker had thought about it a little in advance, he would have seen that so long as the exchanges, banks, steamship and railway companies, heavy business and commercial houses, as well as newspaper offices—in fact, all the largest contributors to the mail service—are down town, they will insist upon having the Post-office as near to them as possible. The suggestion of removal up town must have come from the same source as the one to have the elevated railways extended to connect with the Post-office. The office is at present within a few steps of the stations of two elevated roads, and a switch track, if it were practicable, would not save an appreciable amount of time.

There is no doubt that, so far as Judge Settle of North Carolina is concerned, the "good old days of Grant" have indeed returned. The Judge, who served as captain in the Confederate army, was one of Grant's favorites, and between 1871 and 1877 he was able to get almost anything he desired from the national Administration. President Grant gave him the mission to Peru in 1871, and in 1877 appointed him United States District Judge for the Northern District of Florida. The Judge was naturally a devoted Grant man, and, if we are not mistaken, was an ardent advocate of a third term. Yet even in the heyday of his friendship with Gen. Grant he did not get so many "good things" for himself and family as the *Times* shows that he has been able to get from Gen. Harrison. The list reads as follows:

"Thomas Settle, son of Judge Settle, solicitor; Tyro Glenn, brother-in-law of Judge Settle, United States Marshal; Douglas Settle, son of Judge Settle, cadet at West Point; B. C. Sharpe, son-in-law of Judge Settle, General Storekeeper; Oliver H. Docker, brother-in-law of Judge Settle, Consul-General at Rio de Janeiro; Mrs. Hellen, sister-in-law of Judge Settle, stamp clerk at Winston. The total salaries to be drawn from the public purse for the benefit of this single family foot up to the very comfortable figure of $27,000 a year."

We doubt if the seven Harrison relatives for whom the President has found places draw more than that aggregate from the national Treasury. There is no equal to the Settle list that we have heard of save another for North Carolina which the *Times* mentions but does not give in detail, that of the family of J. J. Mott. Mott is himself Revenue Collector, and has succeeded in getting offices for five members of his family. It is small wonder that there is discontent in North Carolina at the greediness of the Harrison-Settle-Mott Trust.

Gen. Boulanger has made a sudden descent from the sublime to the ridiculous. He had announced himself as a candidate for the General Council in 451 cantons, and has been successful in two dozen. He had been debarred from standing for the Chamber of Deputies in more than one electoral district by the new law which restricts multiple candidatures. So he turned to the *conseils généraux*, which are administrative bodies something like our county boards of supervisors, but having much larger political powers. They assist in electing Senators, and they are charged in a comprehensive way to see that the republic receives no detriment. In the event of a dissolution of Parliament by a *coup d'état* the *conseils généraux* are empowered by law to form a new Parliament forthwith. Probably this feature of the political constitution of France prompted Boulanger to raid that body with horse, foot, and dragoons all at once. That he had every confidence of success was shown by cable despatches on Saturday, embracing an interview with Boulanger himself, in which he candidly set forth his electoral expectations, and announced the intention of maintaining peace with England and settling the affairs of Egypt in a satisfactory way. His adventure among the *conseils généraux* turns out to have been a complete fiasco. The plébiscite has been taken, and it is against him.

GEORGIA REJECTS THE BLAIR BILL.

THE action of the Georgia Legislature last week, in rejecting a proposition to endorse the Blair bill, must be received with great satisfaction by President Harrison, because it calls the attention of the whole country to the emphatic manner in which this representative Southern State has vindicated the position which he took, five years ago, when this question was before the Senate. In a speech delivered on the 25th of March, 1884, Gen. Harrison thus concisely and forcibly presented the argument against attempting to foster education in the Southern States by throwing millions of dollars out of the national Treasury into those States:

"The only permanent reliance for the education of the masses must be upon local taxation in the States; every one concedes that. One dollar voted by the people of any school district for the support of common schools is worth $10 given out of the Treasury of the United States. It evinces an interest in education, and guarantees a careful and intelligent supervision. Only a local supervision and interest will bring these constituencies that are now so backward in the race of education abreast with other States. In my judgment there could be no worse policy than to throw in a single year into those States $15,000,000 out of the national Treasury."

Five years ago it was open to anybody to say that such views as these of Gen. Harrison's were only a matter of theory; but the test of experience in Georgia has in the meantime vindicated them by facts. The vindication is so striking, and the moral is of such universal application throughout the South, that it is well worth while to set forth these facts at length.

Georgia has long been known as "the Empire State of the South," but for years it lagged behind its poorer neighbor Florida in the matter of public education. So long ago as November, 1882, Mr. Gustavus J. Orr, then State School Commissioner, in his report to the Legislature, condemned "the utter inadequacy of the sums which we are applying to the support of schools to the object to be accomplished"; pointed out "the urgent necessity of more liberal appropriations for schools"; showed that a tax of only one-fifth of one per cent. upon the property of the State would keep the schools in operation six months, nearly twice the period that they were then open; met the former plea of poverty by the declaration that "the time has come when we can do better"; and concluded: "I am sure that we have reached a point where we can continue our schools in operation for six months [nearly twice the period at that time] without unduly burdening the people."

The Legislature, however, failed to act upon Mr. Orr's recommendation. The reason for this failure was stated in an interesting letter to the *Evening Post* by Mr. Woodrow Wilson, author of the work on 'Congressional Government,' and himself a native of the South, who wrote as follows:

"In the winter of 1882-83 I spent some time in Atlanta, Ga., while the Legislature was in session. The project of Federal aid to education was already then being pushed. One day I dropped into the gallery of the State Senate Chamber for an hour, and chanced to find a discussion in progress upon a proposal to increase the appropriation for education, as Mr. Orr had urged that the State was so abundantly able to do. Only a small minority favored the measure for heavier taxation. The majority supported a counter-resolution that the Senators and Representatives of the State in Congress be requested to do all in their power to secure the passage of a law giving aid from the Federal Treasury to education in the States. I heard one speech made in opposition to this begging resolution. It was a sturdy appeal to the self respect and independence of Georgians, in view of what the speaker treated as the unquestioned ability of the State to support a school system worthy of so great and prosperous a commonwealth. No attempt was made by the majority to answer his argument, which, like Mr. Orr's plea, was indeed unanswerable. The majority kept silence, and contented themselves with passing the resolution appealing for outside help to do what by their very silence they confessed they were able to do themselves. It was evident that no increase in the State appropriation for public education would be voted so long as there was the least prospect of aid from Washington. The whole performance impressed me as a shameless declaration, upon the part of a well-to-do community, of its deliberate determination to enjoy the easy position of a beneficiary of the national Government to the fullest possible extent, rather than to be independent and support a good school system by its own unaided efforts."

Mr. Wilson's judgment that "no increase in the State appropriation for public education would be voted so long as there was the least prospect of aid from Washington" proved correct. Year after year passed without any increase of school taxation in Georgia, the people meanwhile waiting in the hope of getting the needed money from the Federal Treasury. But by last winter they had generally concluded that the public sentiment of the country would never permit the passage of the Blair bill, and they resolved to rely only upon "local supervision and interest." The Legislature therefore passed a bill making a large increase in the amount appropriated for public schools. This marked the turning-point in the long controversy as to whether the people of Georgia should build up a good school system themselves, or play the rôle of beggars, and the rejection last week by the Legislature of a resolution endorsing the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" followed as a matter of course. Ever since the fight over heavier taxation for schools was won in the Legislature last winter, public interest in education throughout the State has grown steadily and rapidly, and there is no longer any doubt that the commonwealth will soon have a common-school system which will put it "abreast with other States."

This would be a matter of national interest if it concerned Georgia alone; but Georgia is in this respect only a type of all the Southern States. Gen. Harrison's words applied to them all when he said that "the only permanent reliance for the education of the masses must be upon local taxation in the States," and that "only a local supervision and interest will bring these constituencies abreast with other States." The worst feature of the long agitation of the Blair bill has been the check which it put upon the normal development of this local interest. Some scattering talk of throwing millions of dollars out of the national Treasury into those States is still heard, but the advocates of this demoralizing policy grow fewer and weaker all the while.

THE POSTMASTER-GENERAL AND THE TELEGRAPH.

IT appears that Postmaster-General Wanamaker heard from somebody that the Western Union Telegraph Company sent messages for certain large corporations at the rate of one mill per word, and, without making further investigation, he immediately fixed that rate for all Government business passing over the wires. It turns out that Mr. Wanamaker was entirely mistaken in his premises; that no messages are sent for any corporations at any such rate; that that rate is far below the cost of the business to the company, and even below the cost of *delivering* the messages after they are transmitted, transcribed, registered, enveloped, and superscribed. In short, Mr. Wanamaker has made a blunder, and the question now is whether he has the manliness to acknowledge and correct it, or whether he is one of those narrow-minded persons who esteem it a point of honor to stick to a decision once made, no matter how unjust it may be. A statesman like Mr. Gladstone can back out of a war, even under the stigma of a lost battle, when it becomes clear that the war ought not to have been begun. A weaker man would insist upon beating the enemy in order to teach him not to insist upon his rights in the future.

Now, Mr. Wanamaker must do one of two things. He must either convince fair-minded men that it is just and proper to cut down the price of Government telegraphing to one mill per word, or he must rescind the order he has made. If he does not do one of these things, not even his Sunday-school will save him from condemnation in the minds of business men, with whom he likes to stand well. Already we find among his supporters in the press a disposition to turn the matter off with a blast against great corporations, as though it were right and creditable for the Government to take from the Western Union Telegraph Company by force what it would not take from an individual. Such demagogue appeals might answer for some people, but not for Mr. Wanamaker. He belongs to the class of rich men himself. His faith in corporations has never been shaken, but their faith in him will be shaken mightily if he or his immediate supporters are found parroting the slang of Gen. Butler when he wants to excite the prejudices of labor against capital. Mr. Wanamaker has no standing except in the ranks of capital. His figure rallying the horny-handed sons of toil against corporate greed would be a laughing-stock for the continent. We therefore advise the Pottsville *Miner's Journal*, for example, not to emulate the New York *World* in this species of argument. The *World's* antipathy to capital is known to be unconquerable and deep-seated. When it declaims against rich men and corporations, we recognize the real shriek of the proletariat. No such purity and singleness of purpose would be allowed to the *Miner's Journal*, still less to Mr. Wanamaker himself.

We conclude, therefore, that Mr. Wanamaker must set about his defence in a reasonable way, and that he must not be too slow about it. He says that he has learned that the Western Union Company serves certain corporations at one mill per word. Dr. Green, the President of the company, replies that Mr. Wanamaker is entirely mistaken.

He says that this rate is much below actual cost, and that the company does not send messages for less money than it has to pay to its messenger boys. If Mr. Wanamaker has doubts on this point, the onus is nevertheless upon him to prove his thesis. Ample facilities will, no doubt, be given him for this purpose, whenever he shall show an inclination to begin. We will presume that up to this time he has been simply mistaken, having "gone off at half cock," as novices in public affairs are apt to do. This excuse, since Dr. Green's statement was made, is no longer available. Therefore it may be expected that he will speedily make good his own statement, or withdraw it.

We quite agree with those who say that the Government is entitled to as low rates as anybody for similar service. It is entitled to no less, but it is entitled to no more. It is able to pay, and it ought to pay, a fair rate. The presumption is that a fair rate is that which others pay voluntarily, but this presumption may be rebutted. The mere fact that a law of Congress authorizes the Postmaster-General to fix the rate does not help one to decide what is fair and just. It is a matter of business, of *quantum meruit*, and it is quite proper to take into consideration the special, not the general, services, if any, that the Government renders to the company—the general services being paid for by taxation, to which the owners of the property contribute. Dr. Green denies that the company has ever taken a stone or a stick of timber from the Government land. Certainly, the Government has not carried the poles, wires, linemen, and operators free of charge, nor has it put up the wires when they were blown down, or supplied new ones when the old ones were worn out. Has the Government furnished the right of way? Certainly it has not done so at any cost to itself. The right of way through the States belongs to the States and municipalities to give or withhold, and the latter are now requiring, very properly, that telegraph wires be put under ground. Right of way through the Territories is too trifling a matter to have been in Mr. Wanamaker's thoughts when he descanted on the services rendered by the Government to the company.

"Similar service" means service performed in similar time and manner, and at like cost to the party rendering it. If the Government gets its messages by "drop copy," like the Associated Press, no delivery by messenger being required, it is entitled to as good rates as the Associated Press, which, by the way, are far above one mill per word, and probably higher on the average than the Government has been accustomed to pay and was paying before Mr. Wanamaker made his recent order. If the Government builds lines for the company, or keeps them in repair when built, or pays the wages of operators in whole or in part, or carries materials free, then it is entitled to the same rates as the railroads which thus share in the first cost of the service. If it does none of these things, but on the contrary gets a preference in time on all business transmitted, and has a large reporting service free of charge, which no other patron has, then it is not entitled to any advantage in rates over private persons and corporations.

TELEGRAPH CHARGES IN AMERICA AND GERMANY.

In the July number of the *North American Review* Prof. Ely writes in advocacy of a Government telegraph. Most of the article consists of statements of opinion—the opinion, for instance, that a government is likely to be less corrupt if it does more business, or that the abuses which result from having a matter partly in politics will be lessened if we get it wholly in politics. As long as these remain mere statements of opinion it is impossible to refute them. But it is the misfortune of the advocates of State socialism not to be able to content themselves with expressions of opinion, but occasionally to descend to facts; and when they come to facts they almost always state them wrongly.

The article before us contains quite a marked instance of this kind. It ends with a comparison of telegraph charges in the United States and in other countries. It says that we may assume that the average charge in the United States is fifty cents a message of ten words, while that of Germany is only seventeen cents for ten words, and from this a deduction of one and a quarter cents per word is allowed if the message contains less than ten words. When a thing of that kind is stated by a man whose position should make him a responsible authority, people will believe him. It is worth while to examine the matter in detail and show how untrue the statement really is.

What Prof. Ely means by saying "we may assume" that the average charge in the United States is 50 cents a ten-word message we do not know. If he means that the advocates of State socialism are liable to make assumptions without regard to facts, perhaps he is right. If he means that this is a proper way of proceeding, he is decidedly wrong. What the average charge for a ten word message in the United States is, we have no means of telling; but the average charge for all messages, counting the longest as well as the shortest, during the last year covered by the Western Union report was 24 per cent. less than the figures assumed by Prof. Ely. The total number of messages sent was 51,464,000; the aggregate receipts were $19,711,000. The average receipt per message of every kind, including the longest as well as the shortest, was thus 38 cents instead of 50. If we omit miscellaneous receipts, the actual tolls per message are said to be only 31 cents.

If now we compare the German figures of the same kind, we find that in the year 1885 the number of telegrams sent* in the German Empire was 14,025,820, the receipts 19,883,240 marks, making an average charge of 33 cents per telegram, or very slightly lower than that in the United States. In this connection it must also be remembered that the proportion of very long despatches is far greater in the United States than in Germany, so that there is every reason to believe that the charge per space unit was much cheaper here than there. Let it be further remembered that the density of population in Europe is so much greater than in the United States that a 33-cent charge in Europe represents worse economy than the 38-cent—not to say a 31-cent—charge in the United States. This is not wholly or chiefly a question of distance as affecting the telegraph economy, although distance has considerably more influence than Prof. Ely will allow in his argument. It is also due to the fact that with a large population per square mile telegraph service can be and ought to be so much better organized as to do a vastly greater amount of work with little additional expense.

Let us now look at the matter in another aspect, and not compare average receipts, but tariffs of charges. We find from the German telegraph rate-sheet of 1888 (we have not been able to obtain a copy of the present year, but have no reason to suppose that any considerable change has been made) the following results:

For telegrams in Germany (address and signature included in every case)	1½	cents a word
For Austria	2½	do
For France	3½	do
For Italy	5	do
For Spain and Russia	6	do

It is further to be noted that a minimum price of about 14 cents is placed on all telegrams. If we now allow for the address and signature, we find that the ten-word telegram becomes the fifteen or twenty-word telegram, and that that should be the unit of comparison with the United States. Under these circumstances, we find that the fifteen-word message rate within Germany is 22 cents, to Austria or Denmark it is 37 cents, to France 52 cents, to Italy 75 cents, and to Spain or Russia 90 cents. Prof. Ely may decry distance as a factor for telegraph rates as much as he pleases, but European telegraph rates are graded according to distance, even if (though nominally) controlled by international boundaries and questions of transit. To be sure, a 22-cent rate prevails, where we have here 25 and 30-cent rates; but the 37-cent rate operates on an average at shorter distances than our 40-cent rate, the 75-cent rate at shorter distances than our 60-cent rate, and the 90-cent rate at shorter distances than our 75-cent rate.

Still another point deserves most serious notice. Not merely are the rates substantially equal to-day, but the German rate has been rising while the American has been decidedly falling. We give comparative figures for the latest dates of April compared with those of ten years earlier:

	1876.	1885.
Germany:		
Messages	8,768,535	14,025,820
Receipts, R.M.	12,175,319	19,883,240
Receipts per Message, R.M.	1.39	1.42
United States:		
Messages	18,729,567	42,096,583
Receipts, $	10,034,986	17,706,834
Receipts per message, cts.	54	41

*We have before us no figures for a later date which separate telegraphic from postal receipts. For obvious reasons it is better to count the number of despatches sent rather than the whole number handled, which is often given in statistics. The figures do not include Bavaria and Wirtemberg, which have separate telegraph services.

To be sure, United States rates have fluctuated somewhat from year to year, and would be objected to by the State Socialist as unsteady, but for ourselves we prefer an unsteady improvement to a steady deterioration.

This article is not intended as a defence of the Western Union Telegraph Company. While we do not agree with all the attacks that have been made upon that company, we think that it might have done better by the public, and has made great mistakes of policy which it ought to have avoided. We simply wish to show that when matters are truthfully presented, Government management at its best can barely show as good results as corporation management at its worst, and that if proper allowance is made for difference of density of population, the boasted economy of Germany proves to be no economy at all.

CLERICAL CONSCIENCES.

THREE or four rather striking proofs of the growing despite put upon theological tests by those who submit to them formally have recently fallen under our notice. Prof. Briggs of this city, who has long been noted for his alarming habit of speaking out in meeting, in an article on the question of Presbyterian creed-revision in the *Presbyterian Review* for July, coolly alludes to the lost sense of obligation in subscribing to the Westminster Confession in terms which would be sure to be highly resented if an outsider were to use them. He says: "If the Presbyterian Church is to revise the standards to suit all these claimants who are at present in the ranks of her ministry, it is clear that more than half of our venerable documents will be revised away." Speaking of the difficulty which many young men feel in subscribing, he says of those already in the ministry: "They manage in some way to soothe their troubled consciences, or to toughen them by lax interpretation of the standards or the terms of subscription."

The question of theological tests has recently had a new airing in England, in connection with the proposal of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to abolish such tests in the Scottish universities, or rather in the "secular" chairs of those institutions, leaving it to a special committee to devise a form of test for the theological professors. The London *Spectator*, which paper has long been set for the defence of the faith, approves the change, on the ground that it will tend to diminish conscienceless subscription, saying, "We all know how willingly in our English universities men accept tests in a non-natural sense, and how much mischief that taking of false pledges—for false it is so to take them—has done." With this may properly be mentioned Prof. Sanday's article in the July *Contemporary* on the prospects of theology in England. He ostensibly is replying to Mrs. Humphry Ward's late description of the decadent and little original character of theological teaching and investigation in England, but he has to admit that a large part of what she said was true. He says that the leaders of English theological thought have no idea where they are coming out; they follow the Germans most reluctantly, yet perforce they must follow; and, in fact, their attitude, as he describes it, is like that of the Bishop in the story, who said to his clergy, speaking of the three-witnesses verse in the Epistle of John, "This text is probably spurious, but it must not be given up without a struggle." Prof. Sanday thinks that the British laity are willing patiently to wait until their accredited teachers find out what to believe, and hence that any dream of a "New Reformation" is wholly futile.

Such testimonies as these are significant as being the utterances of those who speak from the inside, and are worth dwelling upon because they show that the sense of obligation which has been so eaten into in the commercial and political world has not failed to undergo great deterioration even in those who still are unquestionably the most conscientious class in society—the clergy. They could not escape, in fact, when the infection is so widespread. The Church and the ministry are more peculiarly susceptible than ever before to social influences, and if society has come to look leniently upon trustees who are not trustworthy, directors who do not direct, and methods of business which cannot stand up before a sensitive conscience, it was inevitable that the fine sense of honor which has characterized those who stand in the most sacred of places should have suffered somewhat. The ministry is compelled, or feels itself compelled, to wink at so many questionable transactions of church members that it naturally comes at last to wink at its own intellectual dishonesty. President Harrison, standing up at Woodstock to laud the use of wealth made by a man whose gains were in a large part discreditable, fell, all unconsciously no doubt, into the unfortunate attitude which the representatives of the Church too often adopt in like circumstances, and it is an attitude which carries its own demoralization with it.

We know how rarely a question of theological tests presents itself to a man as a pure question of honor or infamy. When it comes in that fashion, we do not believe that there is a minister in the land who would not settle it in the right way. But it is usually enmeshed in casuistry. The issue seldom appears clear and simple, especially after the theological obligation has been assumed. In the case of students for the ministry the case is easier, and we have Prof. Briggs's word for it that they, in increasing numbers, are shrinking from the bonds they are expected to put on. The result is, the Professor says, "the Presbyterian Church has not been able for some years to supply a sufficient number of ministers to fill our ranks." And he adds, what was of course to be expected, "There is a feeling in some quarters that the average quality and standing of the ministry have already been lowered, and that the average is likely to become lower still."

The only way to abolish the dangers inherent in theological tests is to abolish the tests themselves, so far as possible. This is practically the policy advocated by Prof. Briggs. Let us leave the creed alone, he says, "as at once the measure of our orthodoxy and the measure of our departure from it," and make the terms of subscription as broad in ecclesiastical law as they now are in fact—so broad that a minister of any Christian denomination could honorably take them. It would be a good thing if there were any chance of this being done; but there is not. Revision will drag along for some years, resulting, possibly, at the end in some minor changes of phraseology, and that will leave the whole question really at the same place where it is now, while it will have had the bad effect of lulling troubled consciences, in the meanwhile, and getting more men into a position which they will feel to be false for them, and yet from which they will not know how to escape.

THE PARNELL COMMISSION.

LONDON, July 12, 1889.

THE Parnell Commission has now passed its hundredth day of sitting. Nearly 100 witnesses have been examined, and over 90,000 questions have been asked. The taking of testimony is expected to close during the coming week. The counsel on both sides will reserve their summing up until after the long vacation, that is, until October, and the judges will make their report about the time Parliament meets, that is, in February or March, 1890. I have seen no one in London, of either political party, who does not look on the whole proceeding as a terrible mistake. The Gladstonians treat it with ridicule, and the Conservatives talk of it as a blunder into which they were led by the cocksureness of the *Times*. "We," that is, Messrs. Walter, Macdonald, and Soames, were so sure of their game that they persuaded all their friends that they were going to settle the Irish question by completely discrediting the Irish members, and of course no greater boon could be bestowed on the Conservative party than such a settlement effected in such a way.

The object of the inquiry was to see whether the Irish members were directly connected with outrages—that is, whether certain persons named had a hand or part in setting on foot certain determinate attacks on person or property. But the act was so worded that the judges have felt bound to admit evidence showing the indirect connection of Irish members with crime—that is, showing that outrages had occurred in certain places after these members had made certain speeches in them; or that outrages had followed the establishment of branches of the Land League, of which League they were prominent or active managers; or that they had circulated newspapers containing instigation to crime; or that they had associated in a friendly way with persons subsequently discovered to be the perpetrators of criminal offences. Consequently, the inquiry before the judges has taken on the nature and proportions of an examination of a certain period of Irish history, including the conduct and motives of the principal actors in it; and the work of the judges has become in some sort that of historians. The opinions of all sorts of people about certain events have been taken very much as an historian would take them, and these opinions have run on all sorts of phenomena—religious, social, political, and economical. In fact, it would have been just as proper to examine Froude, or Lecky, or Gladstone, or Morley, as a great many of the witnesses who have been examined, and the judges are getting up the kind of work for

which the French Academy of Moral and Political Sciences occasionally offers a prize, and crowns when approved. The question before them is whether the social and economical revolution which we are witnessing in Ireland was justified by antecedent events, whether it has been effected by means of which the moralist can approve, and whether the chief actors in it can be handed down to posterity as good examples for youth. This is no doubt a useful inquiry to have made, but it is generally conceded that it was absurd to charge three judges with it.

In fact, people are saying now that worse agents for the work than judges could hardly have been selected. What judges are trained in is the art of applying the law to definite issues of fact, carefully made up for them by the bar and stripped of all extraneous matter. For the collection and arrangement of a vast body of heterogeneous information for the use of the statesman, they have no special training at all. The opinion of the Parnell Commission, therefore, on the evidence they have collected will be simply that of three highly respectable elderly gentlemen, from which everybody will feel at perfect liberty to differ. It will not be ridiculous for any layman to say he does not agree with them, as it would have been had they been passing on questions of law. In truth, the summing up of the case of the *Times* by Sir Charles Russell will probably have as much weight with the public as that of the whole case by the judges. Every one agrees that this is a marvellous piece of intellectual work. John Morley, who, although a politician, is one of the severest critics in intellectual matters, places it in the very highest rank of performances of this kind—that is, the marshalling and elucidation of a vast body of heterogeneous facts, some historical, some political, and some economical. The speech has been published in a handsome volume by Macmillan, is having a large sale, and is probably the only product of the Parnell Commission which will really live in history.

Another reason, and a very potent one, which many Americans will find it difficult to appreciate, why the opinion of the judges will not carry great weight, is that lawyers have by no means the standing, as lawyers, in politics in England that they have in America. The English political mind is by no means disposed to assume, as the American political mind is, that a successful advocate must be a good legislator. Successful lawyers here almost invariably make their way into politics, but they there encounter the competition, from which American lawyers are free, of another large class of educated men, who have given more attention to politics than is possible for most busy men at the bar, and many of whom are so placed as to look down on lawyers socially. Consequently the opinion of the greatest lawyer on a political question does not carry half the weight it does in America; but, on the other hand, his opinion on a legal one carries, I am inclined to think, twice as much. Moreover, there is in the Parnell Commission virtually only one judge, Sir James Hannen, and a better judge there could not be. He is learned and able, looks his part to perfection, is a model of patience and good temper, and has a vein of caustic humor to draw on which is invaluable for the repression of turbulence or conceit. The others seldom open their lips. Indeed, Justice Day is said to have spoken only once since the Commission opened, and what he then said was, "Nor I." The report, when it appears, therefore, will be, or be taken as, Sir James Hannen's to all intents and purposes. It might be short, passing categorically on the Pigott letters, and the direct complicity of the persons named in the *Times* pamphlet with actual crime, but I am inclined to think that it will be long, and will, therefore, be somewhat in the nature of an essay on the Irish question, in which each party will find quotations for use on the stump and in Parliament. Probably nobody looks forward to it with much interest except the *Times*, which is naturally extremely anxious for some excuse or justification, however slight, from an authoritative source, for the great boldness of its course.

I was present in court during Sir Charles Russell's examination of Davitt, which was in some respects interesting, as revealing the character of one of the chief actors in the drama. He is a rather small, thin-faced, black-bearded, one-armed man, of a distinctly Jewish cast of countenance, and, as some say (relying on the indication afforded by his name), of Jewish origin. He is the son of an evicted peasant, lost his arm when working in a factory as a child, and has passed ten or twelve years of his life in prison. His black eyes burn deep in their sockets, as the eyes of fanatics are apt to do, and he flames up now and then in a way that makes you glad that he does not feel it his duty to do anything unpleasant to you. Nevertheless, such as he is, absolutely self-taught, he made no mean appearance on the witness-stand, where, according to the cruel and absurd English custom, he was kept standing five or six hours a day while the Attorney-General, Sir Richard Webster, worried him about his whole past life from the age of twenty. His life until the Liberals took up the Irish cause was that of a conspirator. He made no concealment of anything, and sometimes visibly disconcerted the Attorney-General by the frankness of his avowals. I have noticed frequently that Englishmen who are nothing if not loyal to the Crown, are completely upset by the readiness of the Irish to avow themselves "traitors" and "rebels." With that deficiency of imagination which is a national characteristic, they find it difficult at first blush to conceive the state of mind of a man who, born under the Queen, avows openly his contempt for her authority. Then Sir Richard is a bad cross-examiner. He puts on the old bullying *nisi-prius* manner, which in the trial of a political case draws him into frequent scuffles with the witness, in which he is apt to get the worst of it. This occurred with Davitt on several occasions. Davitt got off the stand, on the whole, without damage, except through the production of one very damning letter, which he wrote when he was twenty years old to a brother Fenian who proposed to murder a man for communicating with the police. Not one word of reprobation of the crime does the letter contain. He simply advises the other man not to do it without some one else's permission, knowing, he now says, that the permission would not be given, and, as a matter of fact, the murder was not committed. But the tone of the letter was atrocious, and shocked the public. Probably the most dramatic scene in his testimony was where he avowed his hearty sympathy with the widow Walsh, who urged her innocent son to die on the gallows sooner than give up the actual perpetrator of the murder for which he, the son, had been convicted, and he did so die accordingly. Davitt's passionate adhesion to her view made quite a sensation in the court-room, and really was a flash of lurid light on the course of Irish history. It brought out more clearly than a whole volume of exposition could do the Irish peasant's hostility to the law as foreign law, and his extraordinary obedience to the code of custom which has grown up around the law and in defiance of it.

AN OBJECT-LESSON IN CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM

CANEA, Crete, June 25, 1889.

I HAVE just been studying the effect of the law of rotation in office put into effect by universal suffrage and developed to its logical conclusions. I think the readers of the *Nation* may be interested in the result.

Ten years ago—in 1878, to be precise—the Cretans received a constitution, the fruit of numerous and destructive insurrections of which the history is probably pretty well known to your readers. This Constitution provided a single chamber (the governor being appointed by the Sublime Porte), by the vote of a three-fourths majority of which the Constitution itself may be modified, the modifications as well as the enactments of the Assembly requiring the approval of the Sultan to be effective. By this instrument eighty deputies are elected by the *scrutin de liste*. The judges are elective, each district having a court, and there being no court of appeals. The presidents of the courts, the procureurs and the clerks of the same, are appointed by the Governor-General, together with the *Kaimakams*, or Lieutenant-Governors of the districts. The custom-houses are reserved by the Porte, half the total amount of the duties collected being given to the island treasury by a subsequent concession, and the total direct taxes, which are tithes, belonging to the island. There is a large force of gendarmes enlisted among the population of the island in the proportion of the two religions, Mussulman and Christian, the officers being appointed by the Governor. For a time the arrangement worked very well, the Cretans not having discovered that there was any profit in politics, and being divided by no questions of general policy which required the formation of parties. It was reserved for an astute Governor-General, Christian in politics, to discover the true use of them. The Governor (or *Vali*, as he is entitled), being the survival of the Turkish dominion, and remaining the sole obstacle to complete self-government available to attack, was made the object of all the discontents of all factions and of continual complaints to the Porte—complaints followed by demonstrations in the way of facts—which the Porte appeased by dismissing him.

Photiades Pasha, one of the most capable of that class of Turkish employees whom it is perhaps fitter to call uncircumcised Ottomans than Christians, succeeding to the Valiship, saw in the naturally litigious character of the Cretans the means to distract their attention from him and retain his post by applying the maxim *Divide et impera*. He set secret agents to stimulate quarrels between families, and raise contested claims between adjoining villages or districts. His administrative council, a sort of advisory board to the Vali, contained some of the most capable and unscrupulous intriguers in the island, and aided him to carry out his policy so well that he was appointed for the second term—an isolated case in the annals of constitutional Crete. In this time factions and feuds and fights developed rapidly, and in due course the factions coalesced, as factions will, into parties, on no principle whatever except that of the gravitation of small movable bodies towards each other; and finally two parties were evolved, whose distinctive principles I have not been able to discover, but whose

antagonisms have led, I am informed by a late official, to about six hundred political murders down to the present time, besides innumerable killings and mutilations of cattle, horses, asses, stealing and killing of sheep, cutting down of olive trees and vines—the number of olive trees alone cut down being estimated at 40,000 in the entire island. The progress of empire under Photiades was such that he had finally to be thrown to the lions, and the term of office of his successors has not averaged much over a year. Each in his turn espoused the side of one or the other party, and was sacrificed to appease the Opposition.

This state of things made it necessary for the perpetrators of the crimes to have friends at headquarters and in the tribunals, and the judges were of course bound to protect their friends, and the deputies were obliged to look after the workers, while the members of the minority had no justice except in retaliation. The elections were struggles at first to secure protection, and then, as the taste for office grew, to get appointments. Last year the Constitution was amended to confer universal suffrage, and a new, enlarged, and hungrier constituency was let loose for the quest of the privileges of freemen. Fifteen months ago, or just prior to the opening of the last session under the restricted constituency, the present Vali was appointed. The two parties into which the population was divided were nearly equally balanced in the Assembly, one calling itself the "Barefoots," and styling its opponents the "Haversacks"; the former comprising the poorer people generally, and the latter most of the well-to-do islanders. The Barefoots were in a majority of two or three in the full Assembly, and the Governor threw in his lot with this majority.

When the suffrage was made universal, the elections gave scope to more demagogy than had been possible before, and the number of workers who had to be rewarded for their votes and for their works was enormously increased. If it had been difficult to get justice from partisan judges before, it was now much more difficult. The management of the elections was improved, and the falsification of returns was much facilitated and increased, so that the mayors (every commune has its mayor) made no hesitation in giving the certificates of election to the man who had the smallest vote; and where the mayor was on the side of the minority, steps were taken to convert the vote. The procureur made charges of some kind or other against the known partisans of the minority, or Haversack party, on the strength of which they were thrown into prison till the election was over, and others of the same party, having the fear of the law before their eyes, voted straight; and when this was not enough, the Assembly simply rejected the mayor's certificate and invalidated the election of the Haversack candidate, seating their own. At last, and this was in the first week of my visit, some two weeks into the session, they proposed simply to turn the Opposition members out as nuisances, though they were no obstacle to legislation in any sense the majority might desire, for they were only 13 out of 80. Meanwhile, the offices in the gift of the Governor, of which a slight majority had previously been held by the Barefoots, were being rapidly converted, and at present they are held in the proportion of nine to one by the victors. The conversion was proceeding apace when I arrived, the substitutions being made with the very least regard to the efficiency or honesty of the substitutes. A much respected Christian, who had long occupied the position of President of a provincial tribunal, and who could read and write both Turkish and Greek, was dismissed as illiterate, and his place given to a man who could write neither of those languages.

Prior to this campaign the practice of rotation in office on the American plan had not been formally adopted as the rule of government; and the minority, which, oddly enough, and by the confession of both parties, really represents the majority of the population, seeing themselves proscribed and hunted out of all part in the government of the island, determined to rebel. The deputies of the minority joined in a protest, demanded annexation to Greece, and partly withdrew from the Assembly. The outrages all this time were increasing and the authority of the Government diminishing, until no process will run for any crime or suit, the gendarmes cannot effect an arrest, no one will pay his taxes, there is no money in the treasury, and the police have struck or resigned. In fact, there is no recognition of the island Government outside of the walled fortresses. Mass-meetings were held and telegrams were sent to the Sultan, but the Governor stopped them. The Governor and the consuls (who are a very important part of the government of the island) agreed to ignore the complaints and the anarchy and to minimize the importance of the whole matter. The Cretans in reply called meetings and decided to form an *Epitrope*, or general committee of the population. This is an extremely important step in the politics of Crete, and is only taken in view of a general insurrection. This Committee is now in session in the mountains, and, as I write, in negotiations with the Imperial Commissioner who has been sent by the Sultan to investigate the condition of the island. At least three-fourths of the Cretans have taken part in these elections, and the legal Assembly no longer represents the country, but only the office-seekers and the office-holders.

The revolution is overwhelming. The Epitrope has begun to assume the direction of affairs, collecting the taxes and organizing the police, and has really begun to restore order. I have now been here three weeks, and in that time the change in the condition of the island is evident even in our relations with the interior. But the chaos is only less; order is far from restored, and I do not see how it is to be established. The entire interior of the island is under the control of the Epitrope, but the crowding of the office-seekers is undiminished. The last steamer from Candia brought 130 applicants for offices, all of whom had been efficient workers in the last elections, and wanted to be paid. The consuls, in part at least, waking up to the probable consequences of a pressman in their midst, advised the Vali to stop the guillotine, which he did at last; and the Assembly, which had demanded the heads of four Kaimakams among those called for and refused, abolished the kaimakamliks. It then passed an amendment to the Constitution taking the election of the judges from the people and vesting it in the Assembly; and, without waiting for the Porte's sanction to the amendment, went on to appoint the judges under the new law, though not a single appointee could go to his post and the law was worthless till approved by the Sultan.

There is no color of an insurrection against the Sultan, for the demand for the union with Greece is only the usual formula of discontent; but the insurrection, for such it practically is, is against the office-seekers and the office-holders—a revolt against the anarchy resulting from rotten self-government. The demands of the insurgents are, in chief, two: the dismissal of the Vali, who has made himself the chief of a party instead of being the guardian of legality and the holder of the balance between the two parties; and then the amendment of the Constitution in a more conservative sense. That other demands will follow is more than probable, but these are all that have been formulated so far. But I fail to see how this is to restore order and uproot the seeds of anarchy which have been sowing themselves for the last ten years. The rage of parties is such that unless (which is barely possible) there is a healthy reaction established, so strong as to abolish temporarily party distinctions, there is no authority in the island which can remedy the confusion. Should the Porte send troops to enforce order (which is a police function), the whole island will take up arms against the troops; the same would be the case with a force of any other country except Greece, so that it is quite within the possibilities of the case that the Greeks may be called on to keep the peace, and in that case it is also possible that they may keep the island. I do not know how far the present Epitrope, which is the organ of the Opposition, would be able to control the island if it became the official majority. The same rancor of party would probably impel it to persecute the present majority, and so provoke a revolt in turn. The parties are, in normal conditions, in the proportion of two to three in favor of the Haversacks. It was the knowledge of this fact which gave such energy to the revolt; but the minority is still a strong party, and the factions will not fail to rekindle unless the majority are wise, which democratic majorities rarely are.

W. J. Stillman.

SIMON'S 'WILLIAM THE SECOND.'

Berlin, July 11, 1889.

The appearance on the Berlin book-stands of M. Édouard Simon's book, 'L'Empereur Guillaume II. et la Première Année de son Règne,' follows by about three weeks the first anniversary of the accession of the young sovereign. It is intended, as the author says in his preface, to close the series of studies conducted by himself on the contemporaneous history of Prussia and Germany. These studies have hitherto included, as the readers of your paper are aware, a history of the reign of the Emperor William I., a history of Prince Bismarck, and an account of the reign of the Emperor Frederick. In all of these works M. Simon has displayed a fairness of view and impartiality of judgment remarkable in any historian, and perhaps without a parallel in one taking as his subject the policies and men of a country which, within his own time, has humbled and then to a certain extent supplanted his own.

His last work will confirm its author's reputation for impartiality. It is so dreadfully impartial that it is almost uninteresting. If it had been written by the court historian, the brilliant Professor von Treitschke, it could not have been more correct, from the imperial standpoint, and it would have been much less dull. But court historians, I am told, never write—at least not history—and in the absence of any other serious work on this the opening year of what promises to be a long and important reign, let us take M. Simon's book and go over very hastily with him those events of the new reign that have served to mark a tendency by observing which a key to the future may be obtained.

M. Simon indulges in no criticism of a governmental system that makes it possible for a young sovereign of unknown character to throw his country and all Europe into war in order to gratify a personal ambition. With

the system he is not concerned, only with the application of it under the present ruler. The first half of his book is given up to a sketch of the life of William II. before he came to the throne, and to a brief review of the leading events in the reigns of William I. and Frederick III. as a necessary introduction to those of the present reign. In the field of foreign politics he designates the elder William and Frederick, in a general way, respectively as Russophil and Anglophil; but he does not lay great emphasis on this. The point he seems most anxious to make is, that the administration of Frederick, had he lived, might not have been so liberal as it has come to be supposed. While recognizing the difference of views held by Frederick and his father, he recalls the first year of the old Emperor's reign, when he tried to rule with a Liberal Ministry and failed, and the opinion of Bismarck, that whatever views a Crown Prince may hold, when he comes to the throne he will see that it is only possible for a German Emperor to rule in accordance with the principles of the Conservative party. The one act of Frederick's upon which, in Simon's opinion, the Liberals had a right to build hopes for their future accession to power was the dismissal of Puttkamer; on the other side, in regard to the army Frederick was as much opposed as the old Emperor himself to anything in the nature of parliamentary interference, and his relations to Prince Bismarck were personally and officially cordial in the extreme. As to the return of the conquered provinces to France, there is no reason to suppose that the Emperor entertained such an idea.

There is, perhaps, an historical probability that had the Emperor Frederick lived to grow old in the cares of office, his opinions would have changed in time to the Conservative side. But as against this general probability there is surely little reason to doubt that had he lived in full enjoyment of his health and faculties, he would have sought to apply in practice the liberal ideas which he was known as Crown Prince to have held. M. Simon, in taking into account only his acts as Emperor, when he was too ill to accomplish whatever he may have wished, does him in this matter injustice. Frederick's first public decree (not mentioned by M. Simon in this book), leaving the period of mourning for his father to be settled by the people themselves, instead of setting for it an official limit, showed, at least as clearly as the approval or disapproval of a bill involving complicated interests could have done, the liberal nature of its author. The whole speculation is, of course, a profitless one, and I have dwelt upon it only because it seemed to me to hang well together with a fancied aim of M. Simon's, more creditable to his patriotism than to his historical insight, to which I shall by and by have occasion to refer.

The advent of William II. was accompanied, as M. Simon truly observes, by symptoms of alarm both in and out of Germany; and the new monarch's first words, addressed to his army and navy, instead of, as in the case of both his father and grandfather, to his people, appeared to justify the fears that were felt. The Emperor's words were not warlike, but they were addressed to the war power, and showed that his first thoughts were for that. Three days later appeared the short address to the Prussian people, and not until the meeting of the Reichstag did the sovereign address himself to Germany at large. In this first speech to the Reichstag, as in all subsequent speeches, he assured the world of his intention of following in the footsteps of his grandfather, accepting as a legacy the policies already inaugurated in the reign of William I., among which the two most important—the preservation of peace, and Prince Bismarck's State-Socialistic system of compulsory insurance for the laboring classes—he singled out for his especial approbation. Addressing the Prussian Landtag, he disclaimed any desire to extend the prerogatives of the crown, and promised to protect the liberty of all religious sects. This last assurance, which in any other country except Russia could be considered only as a piece of empty declamation, has unfortunately a practical value in Germany, where a political party stands for the suppression of the Jews. These first manifestations of the new Emperor produced, as M. Simon says, a generally good impression.

About a month after the death of his father, the young Emperor started off on a series of visits to the various foreign and German courts, which he has not yet completed. The object of these visits, as he himself has given out in the course of his speeches, is to cement the peaceful relations existing between himself and their sovereigns, as well as to encourage commercial intercourse between their peoples and his own. The Emperor has thus far visited St. Petersburg, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Dresden, Carlsruhe, Stuttgart, Munich, Vienna, and Rome, and he has yet to visit England and Greece. His reception at each of these places was good, or at least polite. In Vienna the Crown Prince Rudolph was absent from the festivities, but the Emperor Francis Joseph made up for his son's neglect with the most pointed expressions of friendship. In Rome there was a *contretemps* in the form of a shower of red paper scraps bearing the words "Vive la France!" some of which fell into the Emperor's carriage; but the greetings of the populace were unmistakably friendly. The Emperor here showed much tact in his intercourse with King and Pope, and succeeded in getting away without becoming the occasion of any acute unpleasantness. The outcome of the visit to St. Petersburg alone does not seem to have been the desired one. Although William II. is the first German sovereign to speak Russian, this circumstance does not seem to have been sufficient to recommend him to the Czar's affections. The relations between the two countries at the present moment, if one can trust to newspaper expression of opinion on both sides, are decidedly strained; and although a year has now gone by since the Kaiser's visit, nothing definite is given out about the Czar's return of it.

Before the Emperor's departure for St. Petersburg, he accepted with great reluctance Von Moltke's resignation from his active post as head of the army, and found for the aged soldier a lighter task in the Presidency of the Council of National Defence. This led naturally to the retirement of other old soldiers and the advancement of younger officers to the first places in the army. That these changes were made from necessity and out of consideration for the comfort of the older officers, and not at all to introduce more warlike blood into the first rank of the service, M. Simon seems to be justified in informing his countrymen. The cordiality of the Emperor's feelings towards the first soldier of his army does not admit of a doubt.

As regards the great questions of parliamentary government and religious toleration, M. Simon interprets the Emperor's words to mean that he will prefer in both a middle way to extreme measures. At the dinner given by the Chancellor to the members of the Reichstag, the Emperor overturned all the traditions of the Prussian court by attending in person and entering into discussion upon political matters with the representatives of his people. "A new era has begun," he said then. "King as I am, I like to keep up relations with the representatives of the people. My grandfather always remained a stranger to them; but I, for my part, am a child of the new age." This, however, must be taken to mean only that he is fond of discussion. No Liberal, however well-disposed to the Emperor, would maintain that he has any wish to put any more power into the hands of the Reichstag, and M. Simon himself calls him, like his grandfather, a constitutionist and not a parliamentarian. He will try to govern, M. Simon thinks, with the Moderates of both Right and Left, leaving the Progressists and the Reactionaries to go their differing ways. This is, of course, in one sense, the middle way, but it is quite as much, in another, the way of the absolute Conservative, who would keep things just as they are, and only kindly consents not to go backwards.

In questions of the religious order, the anti-Semitic party has been supposed to possess the sympathies of the Emperor, if not his actual support. M. Simon thinks that this cannot be the case, and he quotes a remark of the Emperor's, apropos of this subject, in which he says that he recognizes only patriots and opponents of the national development; that no one will believe him capable of wishing to turn back the wheel of time; that all German legislation is dictated by humanitarian principles; and that whoever refuses to recognize this fact and seeks to stir up the feeling of one class against another, may count upon his disapproval. Yet, if all other indications were wanting, the fact that the royal playhouse in Berlin does not employ Jewish actors, would seem to show that the principle of discrimination against a sect had obtained a footing among State officials presumably not so far removed from the imperial influence. In Church politics, the Emperor's appointment of a man of liberal ideas to a vacant university theological professorship shows that he does not move at the bidding of the extreme and intolerant orthodox party. He is a theologian, perhaps, of the Dr. Bismarck order, and is content to remain by the cardinal doctrine, "We Germans fear God and nothing else in the world."

Towards one party in the State, the Emperor has determined that no one shall mistake the nature of his feelings. Whatever progress may mean, it is not to be construed as meaning anything advocated by the Social-Democrats. They are simply enemies of the State, to be classed in the same category with the French. This convenient classification is sometimes applied by Prince Bismarck to less radical sections of the Liberal party, but it is true that the Emperor would reserve it in the main for the Social-Democrats. His most recent use of the expression (*Reichsfeinde*, foes of the Empire) was in the month of May to the delegation sent to express their grievances by the striking miners of Westphalia. If they maintained themselves in calmness and strict conformity with the law, he told them, he would interest himself in their behalf; but if the strike should prove to be the result of Socialist agitations, he should not be able to examine their demands with patience, and would order a vigorous suppression of their excesses. On the day following he received a delegation of the proprietors of the mines, and read them a lecture on the duty they owed the State to care for the welfare of their laborers, and to prevent the recurrence of such troubles by a wise foresight and an endeavor to admit the workmen to their just share of the benefits. As a result of the Emperor's intervention, a compromise was agreed upon by the miners and their

employers, and the strike, for the time, came to an end. When M. Simon finished this part of his book, he had not heard of its renewal; but, as we know, the soothing effect of his Majesty's words was but temporary.

While, however, the Emperor has shown himself intolerant of anything like Socialism when carried on among the people themselves, he has been the zealous promoter of the Socialistic system having its origin in the iron power of the State. The passage of the law assuring to invalid and aged workmen an income proportional to the salary they received in the practice of their trade, is an event of importance enough to mark the first year of any reign. Opposed to the end by the representatives of the class for whose benefit it is intended, it was finally adopted, as M. Simon says, "after long hesitations, and on the pressing desire of the Emperor."

To go backwards from the events last mentioned, we must not forget to chronicle the Emperor's conflict with the Liberal press of Berlin. The best known incident of this conflict was the publication of a portion of the Emperor Frederick's diary. All the circumstances concerning this episode are so familiar that it is unnecessary to repeat them here, and it need only be recalled that all the efforts of the Government to have some one punished for the publication came to naught, the courts steadily deciding in favor of the defendants. But the somewhat hostile criticism of the Liberal journals during the first part of his reign, and especially their free speculation upon his former relations to his father and his present ones to his mother, irritated the young sovereign in the extreme, and led to a protest on his part to the Berlin officials when they came to present him with a fountain on his return from his southern visits. He spoke out his indignation very clearly, but, the Liberal journals pretending to misunderstand him, he named them explicitly as the offending members of the press. When this did not silence them completely, a bill was prepared for presentation in the Reichstag the effect of which, if enacted, would be to restore the censorship in its worst form. This bill has not yet been urged upon the Legislature, and whether it has been abandoned, or is being held in reserve for another session, I do not know. M. Simon has made no mention of it whatever.

Two other policies—the building up of a navy and the fostering of a new colonial system—mark the first year of the new Emperor's reign. The first of these has long been a favorite project of his, and he has lost no opportunity of expressing his desire that Germany may become a first-class marine Power. The colonial policy is perhaps a natural outcome of the other; but M. Simon is undoubtedly correct in saying that it originates not so much with the Government as in the sentiment of the people, which is just now under the fascination of the colonial idea. In this matter the Emperor would prefer, as M. Simon puts it, to keep behind rather than to anticipate public opinion.

Apart from Russia and the two members of the Triple Alliance, the two countries whose relations with the German Empire offer the most interest are England and France. More than once since the advent of William II., the grounds for a possible disagreement between the Governments of London and Berlin have been made visible. The disputes in the two closely connected royal families, and the treatment of Sir Robert Morier by Bismarck, have furnished such grounds. Yet the relations of the two Powers have remained friendly, and a compact has been made binding them to joint action in the war against the slave trade on the African coast. M. Simon with justice attributes the avoidance of any break in the relations to the habit of the British Foreign Office of keeping itself free of personal entanglements. In regard to the attitude assumed by the new Emperor to France, M. Simon believes it not to differ from that of his two predecessors. To quote from his book:

"For a long time," he says, "people have been saying that he [the Emperor] is badly disposed towards the French nation. It would, perhaps, be more exact to say that he feels mistrust—a feeling which he shares with his predecessors, and which finds its explanation in the relations created between France and Germany by the war of 1870 and the treaty of Frankfort in 1871."

M. Simon goes on to say that the question of Alsace-Lorraine keeps open a big ditch between the two countries, but that, that question aside, "their diplomatic relations, since the advent of William II., have not lost the correct and courteous character which they had under the two preceding reigns." M. Simon is careful to remind his countrymen, as has been mentioned above, that the intentions attributed to the Emperor Frederick of returning the conquered provinces never had any existence in the mind of that ruler, and that therefore he is not to be preferred on that ground to his son and successor. Whether he is to be preferred on the ground of a greater liberality of mind and general policy, M. Simon has been careful throughout the present volume to express his doubts. M. Simon does not make the pretension, as he informs us, of writing history, in the strict acceptation of the word, of events so close at hand; moreover, he could not write historically of mere matters of speculation. If, then, he seems to strive, in a work not strictly historical, to lay stress upon the doubts he has conceived upon the degree of liberalism that would have marked the reign of a monarch who achieved something like popularity in the land of his enemies, for his supposed liberal tendencies, is there anything unfair in supposing that M. Simon has been actuated in this by a natural and patriotic desire to bring about a less hostile feeling on the part of his countrymen towards an emperor who is not, after all, so different from the one they admired?

In writing of contemporaneous events, there are advantages in living at a distance from the scene of your story, but there are also disadvantages. If M. Simon lived in Berlin, he would notice, unless I am much mistaken, from the mere tone of ordinary conversation, the public consciousness of the changed spirit in the national administration. From Frederick to William was a change from progressive ideas to mere reverence of tradition. So far as a stranger can observe, the Germans do not regret the change, but they recognize it. German society of all classes adapts itself with peculiar readiness to the opinions in vogue at court, and it is from this easy to determine when these opinions have undergone a change. A friend related to me the other day an instance which illustrates the point, and at the same time shows the direction of the last change, in a field apart from politics. A certain gentleman here made his preparations, during the lifetime of the Emperor Frederick, to start a review of literature and belles-lettres (a department in which German periodical journalism is singularly weak). On the Emperor's death, he gave up his intention, giving as his reason that, without the interest he had counted upon in the court, he did not believe that he could make the venture a success.

A little incident, now going the round of the newspapers, shows as well as anything how the Government of William is careful, even in small things, to distinguish itself from that of Frederick. The last-mentioned Emperor changed the name of the palace at Potsdam where he was born from "Neues Palais" to "Friedrichskron," directing that it should always be known by the latter name. As soon as he was in his grave, the old name began to be revived, and it is now given out that the building is to be known again as the "Neues Palais," the order, of course, coming from the Emperor, as without his permission the change of name would be illegal.

M. Simon's summing up is highly favorable to the young Emperor, whose first year of sovereignty he has been reviewing. One year, as he admits, is a short period to judge by, and no final judgment can be passed until he has been seen in the face of trial, which he has not yet had to encounter. But what one can say at present is, that in this first year of office he has avoided the mistakes which many expected to see him commit, and justified the hopes that others felt of his capacity for government.

"This year of début," so M. Simon begins his concluding remarks, "truth compels us to recognize, has not corresponded to the fears to which at first it gave rise; it has rather confirmed the prophecies of those placed within the environment of the future heir to an imperial crown, who augured well of his qualities as a ruler. . . . These fears [that he might disturb the peace of Europe] have happily shown themselves up to the present time to have been without foundation, and nothing gives cause for apprehension that they may be near a realization."

This is true, and the influence the young Emperor has exerted for peace indicates a conquest of himself which is thus far his best title to renown. His reign, which in so many other respects seems likely to be a repetition of that of his grandfather, bids fair to resemble it too in the conscientious regard for duty; he will set, we may hope, and, I think, believe, his duty to Germany above any ambition he may feel to win his laurels on a field of battle.

J. K. P.

FROM NIFFER TO TELLO.—II.

DRESDEN, July 2, 1889.

BOTH Layard and Loftus, in their travels and explorations in Assyria and Babylonia, were possessed with the laudable desire of finding whatever could confirm the historical accuracy of Bible statements, and the latter, I think, was curiously biassed by this desire in his observations about the Bene Rechab, or Sons of Rechab, to whom he devotes the better part of a chapter in his valuable and fascinating work on Chaldea and Susiana. It will be remembered that there was among the Jews at the time of the siege of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar a nomadic tribe, the Rechabites, dwelling in tents and abstaining from the use of wine, by the command of Jonadab, the son of Rechab, their father, and that, in consequence of their adherence to this ancestral commandment, Jeremiah used them as the text of a sermon to the Jews, ending with the words (Jer. xxxv. 19): "Therefore thus saith Jehovah Sabaoth, the God of Israel: Jonadab ben-Rechab shall not want a man to stand before me for ever." Loftus at once reached the conclusion that the Bene Rechab whom he found along the Shatt-el-Haï were the Rechabites of the Bible. He speaks of them as a very numerous and independent tribe, allied with the great Montefik nation, but governed by an Amir holding a peculiar, almost sacred position. He also lays great stress on the markedly Jewish type of face which distinguishes them even among Semites, and which was the great argument for his identification. In answer to all

my questions I was assured that they were only one of the largest sub-tribes of the Montefik nation, and no one knew anything of the existence past or present of an Amir as their head.

It is so difficult to obtain information among the Arabs of conditions, events, or men of a past generation, that I should, nevertheless, be inclined to accept Loftus's statements regarding the status of the tribe in his day, and suppose a change of conditions since that time; but in regard to the matter of Jewish type I am afraid that he was the victim of mental bias. The Jews have always played an important part in Irak or Babylonia, and they even formed, shortly before the Mohammedan conquest, an independent kingdom in the marshes of that region. There would, therefore, be nothing surprising in the existence of a tribe or tribes with Jewish blood in their veins. But to me (and I found my opinion confirmed by at least one other unprejudiced observer) the Bene Rechab, together with all the Montefik whom I observed, are not only not Jewish in type, but, in marked contrast with the pure Semitic type of the Affek, they present a non-Semitic, or at the least mixed, type. Their faces were generally broader and rounder, the eyes neither so dark nor so liquid, and their noses of no particular shape, and as much or more inclined to turn up than down. In many cases one might suppose that Mongol blood ran in their veins. I may add that similar divergences of type seemed to me to prevail in the towns along the Euphrates. So the Arabs of 'Anah and Hillah present a pure Semitic type, those of the intervening towns, and especially of Hit (ancient Issos), a non-Semitic or mixed type. Similarly, the Armenians present at least two, and I think three, types, one of which is very pronounced in its Semitic character, so that it is frequently impossible to distinguish Armenians from Jews, although the former claim Aryan descent; while another broad, flat-nosed type might even be Tatar.

To return from this ethnological digression, leaving our horses at the camp of the Bene Rechab, and taking the chief with us as guard and guide, we descended the Shatt-el-Haï by boat the very night of our arrival, reaching M. de Sarzec's camp among the 'Atab Montefik at midnight. After our own rough settlement on the barren summit of the Niffer mounds, M. de Sarzec's little village on the shore of the Shatt seemed like a quiet summer retreat, the more especially as his wife, a ten-year-old son, and a French maid accompany him. Tello itself is three or four miles from the camp. Excavations were not in progress on the day of our visit, on account of M. de Sarzec's indisposition, and for the same reason he did not accompany us to the diggings. Outwardly considered, the mounds are very uninteresting, low, and so gradual in outline that it is difficult to determine their real extent. The excavations are neither large nor deep, and from all that I could learn I do not think that any part of the mounds has been thoroughly explored, so that much may still be expected from this site. The antiquities excavated here, as is well known, are the most valuable yet found in Babylonia, and M. de Sarzec has justly acquired his renown as a successful excavator. The determination of this site for excavations was the result not of its identification with a well-known ancient city, for even yet we scarcely know what city stood there, but of the finding by Arabs at this point of fragments of an inscribed statue, and up to the present moment excavations in Babylonia have resembled a game of chance, the ruins of the most famous cities yielding comparatively little to the spade, while this unknown site has yielded treasures of the first importance for the history of civilization.

Our visit to M. de Sarzec was almost enlivened by an Arab war, resulting from the cutting of an irrigation canal, and the village nearest to M. de Sarzec's camp was actually marching to the fray when the gendarmes interfered and sent the combatants home. The peaceful and subdued condition of the tribes along the Shatt-el-Haï, due to a severe chastisement inflicted upon them by the soldiers a few years since, was well illustrated by this incident. Having witnessed a war in the morning, we had a specimen of Arab love-making in the afternoon, on our return voyage up the Shatt-el-Haï. Two Arabs towed our boat by means of a rope attached to the top of the mast. It proved to be an exciting if not perilous mode of locomotion. Sometimes they would stop to clap their hands and dance and sing, and then, when the boat had come to rest and the rope was slack, whether from a sense of neglected duty or of mischief, they would start off again at full speed, almost oversetting us. One of them was in love with a maiden named Chorla, a native of one of the villages which we passed. The sight of this village inspired him to dance and sing, clap his hands and stamp his feet with double diligence, chanting Chorla's praises and proclaiming his own devotion. Arab music is tolerant of almost any words, however unrhythmical, and the laws of composition appear to admit of indefinite repetition, so that while he sang a long time, the words were little more than variations of the one theme: "Chorla, how I love thee! I cannot live without thee!" and an emphatic statement of her worth. Shortly we met Chorla herself walking on the bank, but the coy maiden disappeared within her garments, demurely ignoring both us and her lover. The final act of such a courtship would be the agreement with the parents on the price to be paid for the bride's purchase, although a maiden occasionally elopes without waiting to be bought. Indeed, during our absence from Niffer the daughter of our guide, a maiden of fifteen, who had been offered me for a wife, created much scandal by a runaway match. A self-respecting maiden should prefer to be purchased, and for a high price, as the amount paid is some criterion of her value.

On our way the Bene Rechab chief told of a mound named Jokhah or Yokhah, which he declared to abound in antiquities. According to his account, walls are visible there, and fragments of stone statues and other objects of worked stone abound. As no stone exists in the country, remains of this sort are a favorable indication of the importance of a site. I expressed my desire to visit the site in question, to investigate the truth of this story, but the Bene Rechab refused me an escort, declaring that it was unsafe, being in the territory of the Ez-Zefih, the same tribe which had robbed the Bene Temim a few days before. The offer of double and even treble payment had no effect. I then proposed to go without escort, and offered to give a large backsheesh to any one who would accompany me alone on a swift horse to guide me; but this also was in vain, and I went to bed with an uncomfortable sense of failure. The next day, however, we found our opportunity. On our return journey, near the Mejidieh marshes, we came to a very large camp of Sa'adun Montefik, whose chief, Hamud-el-Bender, pressed us to spend the night with him. I accepted the invitation, on condition that he would give me a guide and an escort to visit Yokhah that afternoon. He did so, and we visited it without accident, although on the return there was an alarm of Ez-Zefih, and most of our escort left us, brandishing their spears and riding in war curves, to chase the supposed enemy, whom I did not see, if they existed. Among these Beduin Montefik, by the way, I saw no firearms, while the Affek, on the contrary, all go armed with the very long-barrelled, old-fashioned Turkish guns of the last century, or somewhat more modern double-barrelled muzzle-loading fowling-pieces.

Yokhah proved to be an extensive mound, but low and partly covered with sand. It lies among the sand-hills, or at least did so at the time of my visit, and a high wind whirled the sand over us in such quantities that we could see but a short distance, and I was unable to make out the general shape of the mounds. There were no fragments of glass or glazed pottery on the surface. We found a couple of brick walls cropping out, the bricks of which looked ancient, but were uninscribed. There were also great quantities of stone fragments, some of them showing worked surfaces; and one larger piece we found, the worked faces of which had been intentionally destroyed, as though to efface something. I found also a number of small fragments of copper. My guides could give me no information about the place, nor of antiquities which had been found there. The surface indications seemed to me rather favorable, but it would be difficult to excavate here at present on account of the distance from water, and also on account of the unsettled state of the country. The same is true of the large mound of Umm-el-Akarib (pronounced Ajarib), a few miles to the southeast, so favorably mentioned by Dr. Ward in the report of the Wolfe expedition; and of El-Hammam, which is about the same distance to the southwest. The latter place is comparatively well known on account of its conspicuous tower of unburned brick, the remains of a *ziggurat*, or stage pyramid, connected with some great temple.

Several important cities of the very earliest period must be sought, it is supposed, in this region, and among others Nisin, a sort of sister city of Nipur, where we have been excavating. Hommel has suggested the identification of Nisin with El-Hammam, but such suggestions in the present condition of our knowledge are almost without value. Tentative excavations at several of these sites would probably settle the question of identity, by bringing to light some inscribed fragments containing the name of the city. Until such excavations can be made, there seems to be little chance of determining what cities lie under the *tels* of Yokhah, Umm-el-Akarib, and El-Hammam. I have already noticed the important fact that, after passing Bismya, the Shatt-en-Nil is said to lose itself in the sand hills by these three mounds.

We spent that night as the guests of Hamud-el-Bender, as we had promised, and were entertained with princely hospitality. He and his tribe belonged to the Sunnite or orthodox Mussulmans, while all the other Arabs whom I had met in Irak were Shiites, or adherents of the Persian schism. The latter are more fanatical, and cannot eat with Christian infidels, or even drink from the same jug from which they have drunk. The Sunnites have no such prejudices, and are perfectly willing to dip their hands in the same dish with Christians. Our host appeared to be a very rich and powerful chief. His camp had more tents than any I have ever seen, and his camels and sheep were beyond number. At the time of our visit wool-peddlers were there buying for Baghdad and Bassorah merchants. The price paid for each

sheep was said to be four piastres, or sixteen cents, ten sheep out of every hundred being given for nothing. I was also informed that the annual Government tax on each sheep was four piastres, on each camel ten piastres, or forty cents, and on the land, which is claimed as public domain, 50 per cent.

Our return route after leaving Hamud-el-Bender's hospitable tents was for the most part over ground already traversed. The only other mound of very large size which we saw was Tuweyhis, almost due east from Niffer, about in the place assigned on Kiepert's map to Serasoubli. This mound was said by our guide to be larger than Bismya; it should, therefore, be a mound of the first importance. I was unable, however, to check his statements by personal observation, as large canals full of water intervened, and I could not spare the extra day needed to visit it. We reached Niffer Friday, April 5, after an absence of six days.

JOHN P. PETERS.

Correspondence.

THE MARBLE FAUN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The mistake of your correspondent who writes in the *Nation* of July 11 and 18 concerning 'The Marble Faun,' to my thinking, lies in a misapprehension of the book as a whole, and is indicated whenever it is called a "novel." That is exactly what it is *not:* Hawthorne himself, on the title-page, calls it a Romance, and the distinction must be borne in mind; it was never intended as a delineation of actual life in any country, or at any time, and must not be judged from that point of view. The Italy of tradition and poetry, the Italy of those who have never visited it, is a land of dreams and memories, whose long past is ever present, and whose brief present is insignificant. There is abundant evidence that Hawthorne carried with him during his Italian travels this atmosphere of unreality. In the preface to the very book in question he says, "Italy was chiefly valuable to him [the author] as affording a sort of poetic or fairy precinct, where actualities would not be so terribly insisted upon as they are, and needs must be, in America"; and elsewhere in the same preface he says, "The author proposed to himself merely to write a fanciful story, evolving a thoughtful moral, and did not purpose attempting a portraiture of Italian manners and character." Again, he expresses surprise that so much of description should have crept into his story, and explains it by the strong hold of one's mind that artistic and imaginative Italy always takes.

But Hawthorne is too subjective to be held rigidly to local color: in his own way, and of objects that appealed to his peculiar sensibility, he was a keen observer; but of the actual, every-day life of the people around him, he knew less than most men. He does not belong to the modern school of story-writers, and must not be judged by their canons. Had Donatello been an Italian, the criticism that his characteristics are incompatible might be correct—to the Italian of Donatello's nature before his sin, a "New England conscience" is an impossibility; but the answer to all such criticism is, that he was not an Italian, and the mistake lies in seeking an actual prototype for a fanciful character. In the story he is spoken of as belonging to Italy in much the same way that the merchants in the 'Arabian Nights' are assigned to Bagdad: some local habitation is a necessary part of the stage setting, and Italy does better than any other country.

Donatello is not a portrait of any one man, or any dozen men; he is an ideal creation, the embodiment of Hawthorne's speculations as to the purpose of evil. The philosophical motive of the book, in my estimation, is the development of the human mind through the arousing of conscience; it is the use of sin as an educational force. In Donatello the whole drama is portrayed; the other characters of the romance furnish the side-lights. Since the literary form chosen is that of a story, the philosophical ideas must be clothed in human attributes; but that the development of the philosophy may not be hindered by the demands of probability, Donatello is portrayed as just that slightly unreal, faun-like creature, who is human enough to be the hero of a story, and fanciful enough to be untrammelled by the laws of logical development. That he has also the possibility of the Puritanic horror of sin is simply a part of the premise of the argument, and not itself open to discussion. The question of probability Hawthorne has waived by slightly removing his hero from the race of men, by leaving his pointed ears a matter of doubt, by dwelling upon his communion with the birds and the innocent animal life around him; and by so doing he has purposely placed him beyond the reach of our tape-line, and the book of 'The Marble Faun' must be judged as a whole, not as a congregation of characters.

That fanciful blending of the actual and visible world with the unreal, personified images of the imagination is precisely Hawthorne's distinctive gift. To attempt to explain it to one who does not appreciate its charm without an explanation, is as futile as to undertake to elucidate a witticism. There is nothing that I know of in literature, outside the realm of fairy tales, with which to compare 'The Marble Faun'; and perhaps, after all, it is an exquisite kind of fairy-tale adapted to grown-up children, and clothing in fanciful forms the deepest philosophical speculations. Some one has said that Hawthorne never escaped from his inherited Puritanic consciousness of sin: he only succeeded in giving it literary expression; but in no other one of his books is it so vital a part of the work—nowhere else has he treated it so completely or so profoundly.

G. P. D.

CHICAGO, July 21, 1889.

THE DESCENT OF ANNE HATHAWAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the late Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps had regained comparative health, he had promised me to devote more time to the question of the descent of Anne Hathaway. When I began to correspond with him, he was positive that she did not belong to Shottery, and I agreed with him. Since that time I have wholly changed my opinion, and he modified his before he published the seventh edition of the 'Outlines.'

We have two clues to Anne's history, and, so far as I know, only two. The first is, the will of Richard Hathaway of Shottery, dated 1581, which mentions no daughter *Anne*, only a daughter Agnes. Mr. Phillipps tells us that the names Agnes and Anne were interchangeable. Why? Because, under the Norman pronunciation, the *g* was a silent letter, and we find the same person mentioned as Agnes, Annes, or Annis, and often in one instrument. The change from Annes to Anne was very easy, and very likely to be made if there were two of the same name in contiguity. In Richard's will mention is made of a daughter Agnes and a son Thomas, and he then leaves to Agnes and Elizabeth Hathaway "a sheepe apeace of theme." "Daughters of Thomas Hathaway" he calls these, and this could not have been his son Thomas, not yet twenty years of age. Of his own children, only two were grown, namely, Agnes and Bartholomew. This Anne and Elizabeth, daughters of Thomas, seem to have been older, since no condition is attached to his bequest of a "sheepe apeace." May they not have been wards or children of a brother for whom the son was named?

Of this will Fulke Sandells was one of the executors and John Richardson one of the witnesses. The names of these two persons, resident at Shottery, soon appear as Shakespeare's bondsmen in the marriage bond executed November 28, 1582. What more natural, if Anne were really under the care of Richard Hathaway? Two seals were used upon this bond, but only one was lettered. Under the circumstances, may not the R. H. upon this seal be supposed to stand for the Richard Hathaway whose executor Fulke Sandells was at the moment? But why, when Fulke Sandells is named as Fulke Sandells of *Shottery*, is "Anne" called Anne Hathaway of *Stratford?* Is it not possible that, although in some way under the care of Richard Hathaway, she was and had been for some time in the employ of John Shakspere at Henly Street?

There is still another clue to Anne Shakespeare in this will. Richard Hathaway desires that a debt of four pounds, six shillings and eight-pence be paid to his shepherd, Thomas Whittington. Ten years after, in April, 1601, this same shepherd of the Shottery farm died and left in his will to the poor people of Stratford forty shillings "that were in the hande of Anne Shaxspere, wife to Mr. William Shaxspere." So Anne at least had not then lost sight of Shottery.

Now for Lady Barnard's will. In January, 1570, she leaves handsome legacies to the daughters of her "kinsman Thomas Hathaway," a joiner, then living at Stratford. Of the five Hathaways mentioned, two are named Elisabeth and Joan. Joan was the name of Richard's wife at Shottery, and he had a daughter Elisabeth. A third is named Rose, and the Register of Burials at Stratford enters "Rose, daughter to Thomas Hathaway, buried November 1, 1582." Not too creditable a person, this Rose, to judge by other entries. Lady Barnard applies the word "kinsman" to the Hartts as well as to this Thomas Hathaway. The Hartts were the grandchildren of her grandfather's sister. Why may not Hathaway have been the grandson of her grandmother's brother, all of them being cousins to herself "twice removed"?

Mr. Phillipps thinks there was no connection between the Thomas mentioned in Richard's will and Richard's own family. He gives no reason, and it seems to me an arbitrary decision. No one of the above suggestions would have any value of itself, but, taken together, they seem to me to have weight.

CAROLINE HEALEY DALL.

WILLIAMSTOWN, MASS., July 20, 1889.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT DELPHI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just seen the letter of Dr. Waldstein in reply to mine on the excavations at Delphi. I have no intention to enter into a controversy on the subject, but will simply say that I showed my letter in the *Nation* to M. Foucart and to the French Minister at Athens, M. Montholon, and they both declared it to be absolutely exact. It was, indeed, written on the information of the former gentleman, and

did not pretend to go further than the statement of the French side of the question, and for this there was no need to go to Dr. Tarbell or even Dr. Waldstein.

Dr. Waldstein seems to have accepted the assurances of the Greek Government with a naïveté which, to those who know it, is amusing, but he was distinctly informed that the French School and Government had not withdrawn, and did not mean to withdraw, their claims to the concession of the excavation of Delphi. Moreover, the Greek Government has granted the concession to the French School on condition of the conclusion of a treaty of commerce, which condition was accepted by the French Government; and though the present Chamber of Deputies has refused the law, it remains only in abeyance until another Chamber is elected, which will be before long. It is nonsense, then, to talk of the French being excluded. The French Minister has made the interference of Mr. Fearn, our Minister, the subject of a formal representation to his own Government, requesting it to ascertain from the Government at Washington if it has the intention of entering into the competition for the work at Delphi against the French School.

As to the terms, I can state another fact, which Dr. Waldstein seems to be ignorant of, which is that, when the concession was offered to the French School, it was with the condition that the Greek Government was to pay for the expropriation up to a certain amount, but that when Mr. Fearn came in to ask for the concession the Greek Government informed Foucart that they had now a better offer, and that if the French wanted it, they must pay also the expropriation, and must, moreover, purchase the entire village (of which a part, being founded on rock, was not required for the excavations), and, when the excavation was finished, must make over the site to the Greek Government besides the entire product. That part of the site which it is known contains the temple is worth, according to the estimate of Foucart, about the sum I stated. The condition that the French Government should acquire the entire village, with compensation for all the improvements which the inhabitants have been rushing up since they heard that the American millions were coming into the affair, is the result of the American intervention, and shows that the Greek Government has a good eye to business; but I am much mistaken if the flagrant dishonesty of the proceeding will meet American ideas of fair dealing or finance.

The only reason why "these excavations ought to be undertaken soon" is that the Greeks are trying to make as much as they can out of them by additional constructions on the site, which they expect the Americans or the French will have to pay for in addition to what was there when the negotiations commenced. It is now many years since the French began to urge the work, and they have always been ready to undertake it on terms which would have been considered most liberal by any people which had not been accustomed to consider its archæology as a matter for speculation and money-making. The Archæological Society of Athens, which comprises all there is in Greece of real devotion to the archæology of the country, has always opposed the concession of Delphi to anybody but itself, and it has always made its views prevail. If, in the interest of science, it is necessary that the excavation of Delphi should be done at once, the best course would be to intrust the funds for it to that Society, which will do the work for the half of what it would cost the American School, and do it without any heartburnings, while the concession to the American School, even if there were a chance of its being so given, would involve our being implicated in what I must consider the disgraceful conduct of the Greek Government towards the French School, which has merited the gratitude of Greece by its disinterested labors on the archæology of Greece for many years, and to a greater extent than all other agencies combined, except, perhaps, the Archæological Society.

If Dr. Waldstein, before writing his letter to the *Nation*, had gone to M. Foucart and ascertained the position of the French School in the matter, he would, I think, have been spared the letter, for he would have found that the Greek Government had concealed the true state of the matter, and that it would not have been possible for our school to accept the concession without a violation of international courtesy. It was of M. Foucart, as head of the French School, and M. Montholon, as the representative of the French Government, that he was bound to ascertain the position of the French claim, and not of the Greek Government, which was simply using the Americans to extort better terms from the French. In proof of this I could state facts which would not be as pleasant as those I have stated, and which would show that the American School has really no chance of getting the concession under circumstances which would permit us in common decency to accept it, if at all. Scientific morality absolutely forbids us to move any further in this matter until the French are out of the way.

I could say more, but I think that ought to be enough. I was perfectly aware of all the facts that Dr. Waldstein thinks I ought to know, and some that he evidently does not.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Venice, July 12, 1889.

THE GRAND RAPIDS POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Unintentionally, no doubt, the Civil-Service Commission, and you, following, hardly with your usual care, the report of the Commission, in your comments on "charges of violation of the Civil-Service Law in the Post-office at Grand Rapids, Mich.," in your issue of July 25, do the Postmaster here, Mr. James Blair, a great injustice. No fault certainly can be found with the action of the Commission in regard to the case of F. A. Hudson, Chief Clerk of the Railway Mail Service for this district of the Ninth Division of that service. It was certainly impartial, and all that the Commission, with its too limited powers, could do. But the report of the Commission leaves the impression on the average reader that the case is quite directly and necessarily connected with the management of the Post-office here, and that Postmaster Blair is therefore responsible for it. In the published report of the Commission it says:

"The only affidavit affecting Mr. Blair is that of McConville, which asserts that Mr. Blair was present in the Government building at Grand Rapids one day in October, 1888, and assisted Clerk Hudson in attempting to extort from him (McConville) a contribution of money for political purposes. On this point his affidavit is unsupported by any others, while it is explicitly contradicted by the affidavits of both Mr. Blair and Mr. Hudson, and the Commissioners do not consider that it is in itself sufficient to warrant their asking action to be taken thereon."

Even if this part of the report of the Commission had stated that Mr. Blair in his affidavit declared that he did not know McConville even by sight, had never met him or seen him, and never had such a conversation with Mr. Hudson as McConville swore to, in the presence of McConville or any one else, the paragraph would still carry to the mind of the reader the idea that it was the Grand Rapids Post-office and Mr. Blair that were being investigated. And in your comments on the case you not only speak of "charges of violation of the Civil-Service Law in the Post-office at Grand Rapids, Mich., under the present Democratic Postmaster," but you add, "Half-a-dozen clerks in the office have made affidavit that F. A. Hudson, the Chief Clerk during the campaign of 1888, demanded contributions to the Democratic campaign fund."

This is said clearly under a total misapprehension of the case. The facts briefly are these: The Grand Rapids Post-office was not, until after the recent visit of the Civil Service Commission, at which time a local examining board was appointed, in any way under the control of the Civil-Service Commission. The Commission therefore made no pretence of examining the management of the office. The Railway Mail Service is under the control of the Commission, and the charges against Mr. Hudson, Chief Clerk of the Railway Mail Service, were investigated, as they should have been. Mr. Hudson, as Chief Clerk of the Railway Mail Service, is in no sense an attaché of the Grand Rapids Post-office, and the Postmaster here has no more to do with his official acts, good or bad, with his performance or violation of duties or rules or laws, than the Postmaster at Kalamazoo or Detroit has. The two branches of the service are entirely distinct. None of the "clerks in the office" made affidavits regarding the case. The affidavits were made by postal clerks and ex-postal clerks in the Railway Mail Service, who are in no way connected with the Post-office here. It seems to me that the Commission, in its report, should have made this fact clear, instead of leaving it to be inferred that the civil-service laws had been violated in the management of the Grand Rapids Post-office.

That this error should have been made, I think, is to be especially regretted because Mr. Blair, since he became Postmaster in November, 1885, has scrupulously followed the letter and spirit of our civil-service laws, as an appointee of ex-President Cleveland, although there is no such public feeling here or anywhere in the West regarding the importance of the civil-service laws as there is in the East. That this is so is shown by the fact that of the thirty-six employees in the office when Mr. Blair became Postmaster, eighteen are still in the employ of the office. Changes have only been made to fill vacancies caused by resignations or removals for cause. Not a single change has been made in the personnel of the office for political reasons. I do not believe any post-office in the country can give a better record, from a civil-service-reform standpoint, than can the Grand Rapids Post-office under the management of Mr. Blair, and I regret very much that the Commission, in making a report upon alleged violations of law in the Railway Mail Service, should have made it appear, unintentionally, no doubt, but to the great delight of some local Republicans who are anxious to have a change made at once in the Postmastership, that there has been something wrong or questionable in the management of the Grand Rapids Post-office, when such is not the case. And of this fact the Commissioners themselves were, I have good reason to believe, fully satisfied from what they learned during their visit here. Very truly yours, F. W. Ball.

Grand Rapids, Mich., July 26.

THE NEW ENGLAND BURNINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "J. C. N.," in his interesting letter on witch-burning in the *Nation* of July 25, commenting upon the negro-burnings cited by you in your note on the same subject in the *Nation* of July 11, says that "those old Puritans showed a ghastly gallantry, sending the women to the flames, the men to the gallows." This was a gallantry, however, by no means peculiar to our Puritans. It was a part of the English law which they brought to this country with them. "In treasons of every kind," says Blackstone in his 'Commentaries' (vol. iv., p. 93), "the punishment of women is the same, and different from that of men. For as the decency due to the sex forbids the exposing and publicly mangling their bodies, their sentence (which is to the full as terrible to sensation as the other) is to be drawn to the gallows and there to be burned alive." And he might have remarked in this connection quite as well as in any other, "So great a favourite is the female sex of the laws of England."

The last of the two negro-burnings which you mentioned, namely, that at Cambridge, Mass., on September 18, 1755, was clearly for the crime of petit treason, committed when a servant kills his master (25 Edw. III., c. 2). Of the punishment for this crime Blackstone again says (vol. iv, p. 204): "The punishment of petit treason in a man is to be drawn and hanged, and in a woman to be drawn and burned, the idea of which latter punishment seems to have been handed down to us by the laws of the antient Druids, which condemned a woman to be burned for murdering her husband [another form of petit treason], and it is now the usual punishment for all sorts of treasons committed by those of the female sex." It was not till 30 Geo. III. c. 48 that mercy tempered the delicate but cruel justice of the old law, and the punishment of women in all cases of high and petit treason was changed to simple drawing and hanging.

In regard to the case of the two negroes executed for arson September 22, 1681, it may be that the life destroyed by the woman was her master's, in which case her crime would have amounted to petit treason, and burning would have been the appropriate punishment according to the rule above stated. If, as "G. L. B." suggests, it was "a rude attempt to suit the penalty to the crime," it is difficult to see why a distinction should have been made in favor of the male negro. Burning was equally well suited to his crime. Perhaps, by some confusion of ideas, the rule prescribing different punishments for the sexes in cases of high and petit treason was extended to these two cases of arson.

But even if this burning was only a rude attempt to suit the punishment to the crime, it would not stand without precedent and authority. To quote from Blackstone a third time (vol. iv., p. 222): "The punishment of arson was death by our antient Saxon laws, and in the reign of Edward the First this sentence was executed by a kind of *lex talionis;* for the incendiaries were burned to death; as they were also by the Gothic constitutions."

It would seem that the aspersions which have been cast on the Puritans for their burnings ought rather to fall on the laws of England.

R. D. Weston-Smith.

Boston, July 27, 1889.

SHORT TERMS OF OFFICE DANGEROUS TO PRIVATE RIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under the above heading you published an article from Mr. C. C. Binney which, as a criticism upon the opinion of Judge Holt of the Court of Appeals of Kentucky, in City of Covington vs. Hoadley, 83 Ky. 444, "misses the ford," as we say in the State. The action was to recover taxes erroneously assessed and collected, and, as the charter of the city of Covington contained a clause limiting the time in which such an action could be brought to six months, the court simply held, Judge Holt delivering the opinion, that the Legislature could constitutionally enact such a statute.

Mr. Binney seems to think that a claim based upon a contract *or tort* can be asserted within five years in this State; yet this is not true, as all actions for injury to the person, malicious prosecution, libel, slander, etc., must be brought within one year. This same clause of our statute of limitations prescribes the same time as that within which an action for killing stock by railroads shall be moved; yet, by a provision of the charter of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad Company, for such killing the limitation as to that company is six months, and this has been upheld as a proper and constitutional exercise of legislative power, with probably a fairer field of criticism than that chosen by Mr. Binney.

Mr. Binney says, contrasting the different times prescribed as against a private person and the city of Covington: "A valid claim against an individual or corporation cannot stand upon any really higher ground than one against a municipality; yet *Judge Holt would apply* a wholly different rule in the two cases." This is not true. It was not Judge Holt's province to make the law; that belonged to the Legislature. He simply decided upon the power of the Legislature to make such a law or not. He may be in error as to the reasons moving the Legislature to act. More likely his error, if any, consists in guessing out only a part of those reasons. But he may be pardoned if he failed to give the whole of them, since there are many acts of the various Legislatures—and some of them touching the very question of limitations of actions—to find any reason for which one ought to be considered fortunate. William L. Dulaney.

Bowling Green, Ky., July 22, 1889.

WORKS ON HUMAN ANATOMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the review of Prof. Leidy's 'Anatomy' in the *Nation* of last week, while full justice is done to that work and its author, there occurs an oversight in regard to his predecessors, when it is said that his first edition, appearing twenty-eight years ago, "then formed the only original American compendium of human anatomy."

The library of the Pennsylvania Hospital contains, as shown by its catalogue, the following works: 'A System of Anatomy,' 2 vols., by Caspar Wistar, M.D., three editions, 1811, 1814, and 1825; 'A Treatise on Special and General Anatomy,' 2 vols., by William E. Horner, M.D., 1826; 'An Illustrated System of Human Anatomy, Special, General, and Microscopic,' by Samuel George Morton, M.D., 1849.

Caspar Wistar, M.D., was Professor of Anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania from 1809 to 1818. Dr. William E. Horner followed him in the same chair, though not immediately, occupying it from 1831 to 1853. Dr. Samuel G. Morton was Professor of Anatomy in the Pennsylvania Medical College from 1839 to 1843. Wistar contributed at least one original observation to anatomical science, that of the before undescribed triangular processes on the posterior part of the ethmoid bone of the head, sometimes called, after him, the pyramids of Wistar. Horner discovered the *tensor tarsi* muscle of the eye, which facilitates the flow of tears from the eye to the nose. Wistar's most important work was his elaborately illustrated 'Crania Americana,' a very valuable contribution to American ethnology.

Respectfully, H. Hartshorne.

Philadelphia, July 23, 1889.

[The works named should certainly not have been ignored, although, perhaps, even that of Morton had become somewhat out of date at the time Dr. Leidy's treatise was published.—Ed. Nation.]

RUINOUS FREE TRADE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read in *Engineering* (London), for July 12, p. 46, col. 2, as follows:

"The wages of the northern steelworkers have been advanced another 2½ per cent., in accordance with the report of the accountants for the past three months. This will make 7½ per cent. above what is called the standard rate, and will remain in force, as the price to be paid, during July, August, and September.

"In the Midlands the price of iron has still an upward tendency, the prices having been advanced 10s. per ton during the past week. This advance in price will affect the wages of the work-people, who, like the steelworkers, will reap some advantage from the rise in the market price of iron."

In your issue of July 18, 1889, I find that Carnegie's men have had *their* wages *reduced* 20 per cent. I leave you to make the comments. Low-Tariff Democrat.

Washington, D. C., July 26, 1889.

Notes.

In enumerating, last week, the works of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston, it seems we did not exhaust the list. Henry Holt & Co. announce that he left in their hands, ready for the press, a second 'History of the United States,' written on a plan somewhat similar to that of his text-book bearing the same title, "but suited to a shorter course, and perhaps to less mature minds."

D. C. Heath & Co. will shortly publish 'Modern Facts and Ancient Fancies in Geography, a Handbook for Teachers,' by Jacques W. Redway; and 'Topics in Geography,' in seven grades, by W. F. Nichols.

Ginn & Co. publish in August a 'General History,' by P. V. N. Myers, President of Belmont College—a condensation into 700 pages of his well-known 'Ancient History' and 'Mediæval and Modern History.'

A compilation of articles by Susan Coolidge, Arlo Bates, and other writers will form a handsome volume, called 'The Coast of Maine,' to be published by Henry G. Peabody, Boston. It will be illustrated by fifty photogravures of scenery.

A special product of the Maine coast comes to us in the 'Annual Index to Periodicals for 1888 [brought down to July, 1889]' (Bangor: W. M. Griswold). It is the seventh of the compact "Cumulative Indexes," subsidiary to Poole, invented by Mr. Griswold, and embraces thirty-four periodicals, mostly American.

The London *Publishers' Circular* states that of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' the first English edition of 2,500 copies is nearly exhausted, and that 10,000 copies of the American edition have been sold in this country. "We understand," it adds, "that a second and revised

edition of the book may be looked for in the early autumn."

The New England Historic-Genealogical Society have just reissued separately Mr. Henry F. Waters's more recent 'Genealogical Gleanings in England,' as part 3 of vol. i. Miss Susan B. Kidder has equipped it with indices of persons and of places, thus perfecting the usefulness and heightening the fascination of the 'Gleanings' for whoever is interested in this kind of research, or, we will add, in the friendly drawing together of Englishmen and Americans which it promotes. Mr. Waters is now, by reason of his brilliant discoveries in the case of John Harvard, Roger Williams, and Washington, conspicuous as the very wizard of genealogical divination; but one who runs through the pages before us must be struck with the ever-broadening base of solid induction which he builds incidentally, for the future elucidation of much humbler pedigrees. The fund for the support of Mr. Waters's arduous explorations still needs to be fed by public-spirited contributions, and these may be made through the Society.

A fourth edition of J. J. Bond's standard 'Handy Book of Rules and Tables for Verifying Dates with the Christian Era' has recently been added to Bohn's Reference Series (New York: Scribner & Welford).

We learn from the *Athenæum* that a small collection of memorial records of the late Prof. Sheldon Amos has been privately printed for circulation among his friends.

'A Dictionary of American Politics, Comprising Accounts of Political Parties, Measures and Men, etc.,' by Everit Brown and Albert Strauss (New York: A. L. Burt), deserves mention, even if long delayed, for the good faith of the undertaking; but the compilers were in no sense qualified for selection, definition, or accurate statement. The very first page (Abolitionists) is full of error and misleading suggestion. In one paragraph on page 233 four out of six dates are wrongly given. The faults of the scheme are many. The book is perhaps not worthless, but it is absolutely untrustworthy.

The preface to Prof. A. N. Van Daell's 'Pages Choisies des Mémoires du Duc de Saint-Simon' (Ginn & Co.) will conciliate many readers. He addresses it not only to teachers of French, but to "others also, who, as principals or in any different capacity, have something to do with the choice of text-books." "The study of a foreign language," he says, "ought to bring students in contact with the master-minds of foreign nations. Students ought to grasp ideas and feelings with which the writers of their own nationality cannot make them acquainted. Unless this result is obtained, it seems to me that the time given to French or German is wasted." He thinks the French and English literatures "particularly well-fitted to balance each other." The annotations are in French.

A monograph on the Cathedral of Milan and the designs for the façade ('Il Duomo di Milano, e i Disegni per la sua Facciata') has been prepared by Camillo Boito, with an extensive pictorial accompaniment in lithography and photogravure, and a trial bibliography by F. Salveraglio (Milan: L. De Marchi). Boito argues for the amalgamation of foreign and Italian design in the building, rejecting its derivation from Lombard architecture.

"English Culture in Virginia" is the attractive title of a double number in the seventh series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The writer, Prof. W. P. Trent, does not awaken curiosity for nothing. He has to tell of the founding of the University of Virginia by Jefferson, and of the efforts to procure professors from abroad. The particular sources are the letters and papers of Francis Walker Gilmer, Jefferson's emissary for this purpose. Prof. Trent notices with amusement the outcry raised against the unpatriotic neglect of home talent. The Boston *Courier* applauded the proper remark of the *Connecticut Journal*, that no American could read of it without indignation. The Philadelphia *Gazette* was of the same mind, and thought "this sending of a Commission to Europe to engage professors for a new university is, we think, one of the greatest insults the American people have received." We manage this thing much better nowadays, under the joint rule of Protection and Labor: we keep these interlopers from landing by law, or send them back if they are detected.

The *Library* for June gives an interesting account of the library of Ralph Thoresby, the topographer; and an article on "American Books with English Title-pages" criticises severely the common custom of importing books printed and published in America, and issuing them with title-pages which bear only the London imprint and the name of an English publisher. The writer thinks it strange that, in this protest against a sham, he should have to arraign, as one of the earliest offenders, that arch-antagonist of shams, Thomas Carlyle, who writes to Emerson in 1838, with reference to the 'Miscellanies' of the latter, "Why not have 200 or 300 of the American edition struck off, with 'London: Saunders & Ottley,' on the title-page, and sent over hither in sheets?" This reprehensible custom, however, is not confined to English publishers, for American firms are also in the habit of importing English books and issuing them with only an American imprint on the title-page. In the July number of the *Library* the most important paper by far is Mr. Blades's article on "Paper and Paper-marks," which should be read and digested by every bibliographer. Mr. Pollard calls the attention of English librarians to Miss Hapgood's entertaining account of her experiences in the St. Petersburg Library, narrated in the *Nation*, No. 1238, and gives a long extract from her description of Russian library methods. In the notes the editors remark that they have received more than one plaintive letter from young librarians, appealing for help in the shape of papers on methods of work, and wonder why American librarians should have almost a monopoly of that kind of writing.

The greater portion of the June and July numbers of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* is taken up by the continuation of Schultze's paper on the influence of the Scotch-Irish monks on mediæval culture, and the first two instalments of Ortroy's Belgian military bibliography for the year 1887. In the June number, however, Dr. Falk gives some interesting facts concerning Ivo Wittig, and declares that there is no foundation for Hessels's confident assertion that Wittig was a relative of Gutenberg, which was put forth as a reason for discrediting his testimony in favor of Gutenberg. Those librarians who are fortunate enough to possess a copy of the catalogue of MSS. on vellum from the Hamilton Palace collection, described in the *Nation* No. 1242, will be glad to know that the July number of the *Centralblatt* contains a complete list of the purchasers and the prices obtained at the recent sale of the collection in London. The ninety-one lots brought a little over $75,000, Quaritch carrying off the lion's share. He purchased twenty-seven manuscripts at a cost of over $33,000; of the four lots which ran up to $5,000, or above that, he secured three, one of them being the famous Anglo-Saxon MS. of the Gospels, on purple vellum, for which he paid $7,500 and now asks $12,500. Karl Trübner of Strassburg appears as the purchaser of a number of valuable specimens, and Dr. Goldschmidt of Frankfort carried off six at a cost of about $15,000, among them the beautiful MS. of Boccaccio's 'Les Illustres Malheureux,' for which he paid $8,500. The Royal Library of Berlin made an effort to secure 'Der Wälsche Gast' of Thomasin von Zirclaria, but was outbid by Quaritch, who gave $1,700 for it.

The extraordinary engineering of the new toothed railway up Mt. Pilatus is described, with effective cuts, in the latest number of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (*Heft* 11, 1888-89) we have received from F. W. Christern. Its maximum gradient (25° 39') is alleged to be the steepest yet attempted with this sort of road. The ascent takes an hour and twenty minutes, and involves the passage of several tunnels and one arched viaduct over a frightful gorge between two tunnels. The cost of constructing the nearly three miles amounted to some $380,000.

—*Scribner's* for August presents two portraits of Tennyson and also a brief and discreet account of the poet's first venture, in company with his brother Charles, into the world of letters. Prof. Lounsbury concludes these Tennysoniana by a criticism, or rather comparison, of the two "Locksley Halls," in which he sustains those who think that the last of these is a poem quite the peer of the earlier verses, though necessarily inferior to it in public interest. Prof. Lounsbury, in our judgment, might well have said more than he ventured on in praise of the art, the dignity, the power, and especially of the wiser temper and doctrine of the last utterance of the poet upon his times. The remainder of the magazine contains two prominent sporting articles, one upon lawn-tennis and one upon tarpon-fishing in Florida, each of which has its especial readers. The paper upon electric lighting, with its multiplicity of illustrations, is also prominent and useful to a wider circle. The rest of the number is occupied with fiction, in which Mr. Stevenson holds his own, and Mr. Brander Matthews gives a romance on a common motive, and artistically frames the Rome of a young man's first love in the setting of a Dakota blizzard on Christmas, with its necessity to go search for the lost "kids" as a finale to the soldier lover's buried life. "A Pagan Incantation," by Boyesen, is too uncanny, and, being mere fancy—almost a ghost story—racks the reader's sensibilities in an utterly merciless manner. The other stories sink into commonplace.

—The midsummer *Century* is adorned, as is usual, with a large number of woodcuts, but the most beautiful of them are those which seem to be given as a sort of challenge by the group of "painter-engravers" who, in a series of short articles—"Originality in Wood-Engraving," by Kingsley; "Painter-Engraving," by Closson, and "The New School of Engraving," by J. P. Davis—plead for the rights of wood-engraving as an art for its own sake, and not merely for reproduction and commercial purposes. These papers, with their evidence of enjoyment in the artist's life, show plainly enough the sensibilities of the artistic temperament; and if wood-engraving is to be employed in the way indicated, it could not have better friends than men so strongly endowed with feeling and with technical skill as are these masters of the art. The success which they have obtained is sufficient proof of what they can do to accomplish their ambition, and the effects are marvels; but if we read rightly

what they say, it is to the proof upon Japan paper that they specially point in claiming wood-engraving as a painter-art. Their contention has, in so far, more relation to the arts of luxury than to that popular art which wood-engraving is commonly engrossed with; but even if the best results are thus limited to the few, comparatively speaking, those which can be rendered on the magazine page are also delightful to the eye. These landscapes and the fine portraits of French's preceding article, together with the three engravings after Fra Angelico by Cole, and the portrait of Tennyson by Johnson, taken together, represent the art at its best, and illustrate its excellence in whatever way it turns its graver. We have left space only to mention the text. The papers upon the poison of serpents, the Biblical element in Tennyson, Mr. Kennan's distressing account of the Kara prison, relieved by a tribute to one humane and heroic Russian official; "Artist Wanderings among the Cheyennes," with some unfavorable comment upon the present mode of educating a few boys to relapse into savagery, and also a word in favor of placing the Indians under the War Department, are the most noticeable in a number of unusual interest.

—*Harper's* continues its Russian articles with an elaborately illustrated account of the Kremlin, in which the cuts usefully exhibit objects of Russian art to the eye; and Abbey and Parsons make up a second picture-article in their marked style, to which some well-timed verses by Austin Dobson are attached. The remainder of the number affords a variety of commonplace of the usual sort, in which the most interesting piece of information is the brief description of Mexican lustred pottery, and the hope held out that the lost art of the Italian workers of the sixteenth century, and their brothers, the Saracens, may be recovered. The secret of this lustre has been sought for without success by the moderns. Mr. Warner, however, found by chance something resembling the old art in a shop in Mexico, and a friend whom he put upon the scent discovered the village and the kiln whence it came, and learned the nature of the process from the Indians who were at work upon it. The writer attributes this success in winning the confidence of the shy and secretive native potters to their mistaking her for a nun. The process, at all events, affords hints for European experiment. The other prominent papers are a panorama of court-day in Kentucky, the history of the Fan, and a labored analysis of the movement of religious thought in Germany, with special attention to the present state of theology, church parties, and materialism and the empire. Photography also receives attention in two papers, and gives occasion for an admirable centennial portrait of Daguerre, as authentic as any in existence, being from a daguerreotype.

—Mr. Lowell opens the August *Atlantic* with a long philosophical poem, in which he makes the memory of his sister's gold-fishes in his boyhood an occasion for drawing a pleasing analogy between the world outside their watery horizon as it appears to them, and that beyond our senses as we sometimes fancy it appears to us. The conceit is sketched out partly in a thoughtful, partly in a reminiscential vein, and no other poetry is allowed to mar the effect. The classical papers to which we have so often had the pleasure of calling attention are continued by an admirable account of the localities which make the background of Virgil in the landings of Æneas on Italian soil and in the Latin War—an article so entertaining in itself, and marked by such refined sensibility to the qualities of Virgil, as to renew in our minds for the hundredth time the wonder why the secret of this poet is so seldom disclosed until after school and college days are over. The common lack of appreciation of Virgil is the capital instance of the sterilizing power of pedagogy, and a lamentable one it is too. Mrs. Wyman, in "From Generation to Generation," gives an interior view of the home-life of a Garrisonian Quaker family, which is remarkable for its success, not only in detailing little incidents, but especially in giving the atmosphere and tone—that impalpable, pervasive, and constant element in an humble family life which can be caught and rendered only by rare good-fortune. She writes her story as an illustration of changes in New England life, not egoistically, and as such it has historical value. The remainder of the magazine offers a critical and appreciative account of the Canadian poet, Louis Honoré Fréchette; a careful paper upon the theory of sovereignty in our Constitution, and legal decisions and public opinion under it, and instalments of Bynner's and James's serials.

—The opening notice in the eighteenth volume of Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is a good instance of the readability of this work. James Esdaile (1808-1859) was a Scotch physician who went to Hooghly, India, for hospital work, and there practised mesmerism in painful operations with a success which led to Government's placing him in charge of a small hospital for further experiment, and finally promoting him. The appearance of ether and chloroform on the scene in 1848 put an end to the more laborious method of producing anæsthesia, and, for the rest, he found the process too exhausting when applied to the less susceptible Scotchmen at home. A few pages further on, in the notice of John Bishop Estlin, an eminent surgeon of Bristol, uncle by marriage to the economist Walter Bagehot, we read of his 'Remarks on Mesmerism' in 1845, "a lucid exposition of the scientific method of investigating phenomena said to be due to hidden forces of nature." Such glimpses of past opinion abound in this admirable work. Faraday is most honored by allotted space in this volume, having twelve pages from the hand of Tyndall, whose skill is striking. Mr. Stephen himself returns to familiar themes in writing on Fielding in upwards of seven pages, and in condensing his Life of Fawcett into four and a half. Guy Fawkes seems liberally supplied with three. In the nineteenth volume, which ends with Forman, the astronomer Flamsteed gets seven pages, John Fletcher a little more, and Flaxman five. At the other extreme, there is a brief account of Margarie Fleming, with a suggestion that her life was probably the shortest of any commemorated in this Dictionary; and Fleta is inserted, for the sake of saying that it is the name of a book and not of a person. Under Mrs. Fitzherbert we are told that the Messrs. Coutts have a strong-box confided to them in 1833, containing her certificate of marriage to the Prince of Wales (George IV.), and other interesting documents which the public may not yet view. We miss under Capt. Robert Fitzroy a citation of Darwin's very condensed character of this able officer and scientist (in the Autobiography)—all the more because it furnishes the key to his failure as an administrator in New Zealand. Fitzroy, by the way, was the first who devised storm-signals and put them in practice. Matthew Flinders, another naval captain, was perhaps the first to investigate the error of compasses caused by iron in the ship. Ralph Fitch, a contemporary of Shakspere, was the first Englishman known to have made the overland journey to India by the Euphrates. The first line of the narrative of his voyage in Hakluyt is so closely echoed in "Macbeth" (Act 1, 3) that it is clear Shakspere must have used Hakluyt. Among pioneers we remark, finally, Lieut.-Col. Patrick Ferguson, inventor of the first breechloaders used in the British army. He tried them with effect on the American rebels at Brandywine, but Sir William Howe broke up his rifle corps, and made them exchange their arms for the old muzzle-loaders.

—The French have always been a home-keeping race, partly from their national or parochial belief that France is the true celestial empire, of which Paris is the New Jerusalem, and partly also, perhaps, from a dislike of the sea or of water. A census of Frenchmen living abroad was taken in 1861, and the number reported was only 316,000. This number was almost certainly less than the true one, for the census was roughly and imperfectly taken. In consequence, French consuls all over the world were instructed to report again upon the subject, and the result of their inquiries and their estimates has just been published. This shows that of Frenchmen abroad there were in 1886: in Europe, 200,000; Africa, 30,000; Asia, 15,000; North America, 120,000; South America, 40,000; Oceania, 3,000—in all 408,000. Of those in Europe 54,000 are in Switzerland, 51,000 in Belgium, 26,000 in England, 17,000 in Spain, and 10,000 in Italy. Scarcely any of these emigrants came from central France. Flanders, the Pyrenees, and the Midi furnish most of them. A large number belong to the priesthood, or to the religious orders of men and women.

LODGE'S WASHINGTON.—I.

George Washington. By Henry Cabot Lodge. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 2 vols.

THE serious fact surviving our centennial celebrations is that, though the plaudits were for the traditional Washington, it is with a new Washington that historians must now deal. Research has transformed the most conventionalized of figures into a singularly fresh subject of study, interest in which increases with the perception that, in recovering "the real Washington," the nation is exhuming and deciphering lost or neglected facts and factors of its own history. The valuable work of Dr. Hale; the new data published in the centennial numbers of the magazines and journals; above all, the surprises contained in Mr. Worthington Ford's first two volumes of Washington's writings, have confirmed a growing conviction that, notwithstanding the library of works concerning him, a critical Life of Washington is the desideratum of American history. It would have been unreasonable to expect in Mr. Lodge's work a satisfaction of this need. The subject is too new, too large, the data too incomplete—perhaps, we should add, the popular sentiment too tenacious of traditions—for the appearance of such full and critical treatment in any near future. The most that could be fairly expected from a writer of even Mr. Lodge's ability and opportunities was a large contribution in the direction pointed by historical studies; and by this utilitarian standard his success is to be measured.

It is unfortunate for Mr. Lodge's reputation with students of the period that his task was not limited to Washington's military and political career. Or, if he could have devised a novel method by which history should begin with the later and end with the earlier events,

the task of criticising him would be less embarrassing. We must adopt that method so far as to enter a caveat against any assumption that the whole book is to be judged by its treatment of Washington's early life and the persons and places related thereto. In old Virginia Mr. Lodge is helplessly out of his habitat. What knowledge of the Northern Neck he could obtain by running old Parson Weems to earth, and returning in triumph with his brush, is nearly all that can be conceded our author. He appears ready to accept almost any story—provided it is not in Weems—or any statement found in a book, without attempting verification. The errors in this part of the work are small, so far as the character of Washington is concerned, but they are grave by reason of the mistrust raised that our new guide is ready to leave us now and then in the hands of other guides, whose superannuation or incompetency are the *raison d'être* of his enterprise.

When he writes historic names wrong—Ashley's for Ashby's (Gap), Carey for Cary, Grimes for Grymes—one would gladly conclude that he is some proof-reader's victim; but it is too plain that he is following Washington Irving's mistakes. He repeatedly falls into the Custis and Lossing ruts. Concerning the Westmoreland birthplace we are told, "Three years after George Washington's birth it was burned, and the family removed to another estate in Stafford County" (I, pp. 37, 38). The estate referred to, now in Stafford, was in King George County; the fire is a tradition unknown to Dr. McGuire (in 1836), who says "the change of residence was probably induced by considerations of health" ('Religious Opinions and Character of Washington,' Introduction, p. xv). The same writer, who married Washington's grandniece, dates the removal to the farm near Fredericksburg "about the year 1739." We are further told by Mr. Lodge that "the 'Lowland Beauty,' Mary Bland, married Henry Lee, and became the mother of 'Legion Harry,' a favorite officer and friend of Washington, and the grandmother of Robert E. Lee, the great soldier of the Southern Confederacy" (I, p. 93). The wife and grandmother referred to was Lucy Grymes—who, by the way, was not "of Westmoreland," as is stated on the previous page. We are happy in finding that Mr. Lodge's familiarity with the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* saved him from following the traditional pedigree of Washington, which Colonel Chester "broke beyond repair" in that publication (vol. xxi, p. 25); but apparently he learned this too late to alter his pages, which proceed on the assumption that Washington was by birth an aristocrat, and connected with the disproved family. When Mr. Lodge assumes an "identity of arms" between the immigrants and the Sulgrave family (I, p. 31) we again find ourselves delivered to the modern traditionalist. So far as is known, Washington himself was the first to adopt those arms.

Poor Parson Weems is poetically avenged by the facility with which Mr. Lodge is misled by later Weemses. The "Rules of Civility," written in Washington's youngest handwriting, which have long puzzled historians, are approached by Mr. Lodge with a rhetorical "Eureka":

> "It has always been supposed that these rules were copied, but it was reserved apparently for the storms of a mighty civil war to lay bare the original source. At that time a little volume was found in Virginia bearing the name of George Washington in a boyish hand on the flyleaf. The book was entitled 'The Young Man's Companion.' It was an English work . . . by W. Mather, . . . and at the end it contained the rules for behavior found in manuscript among Washington's papers" (I, pp. 49, 50).

"An account of this volume," it is added in a footnote, "was given in the New York *Tribune* in 1866, and also in the *Historical Magazine* (X, 47). It is stated that the book was presented to Gen. Grant, and, if so, it has now passed into the keeping of the Government."

These apparently separate authorities are one, the magazine having copied from the newspaper. The "account" is vague enough, and the point interesting enough, to merit some inquiry. Had this latest biographer of Washington considered that even the New York *Tribune* may occasionally be fallible—had he given due weight to Dr. Toner's edition of the "Rules," in which that well-informed editor states, twenty-two years after the *Tribune's* "account," that he has searched in vain to find these rules in print—he would at least have examined Mather's well-known book and saved himself the mortification, and his readers the disappointment, of discovering that it contains nothing of the kind.

We should be glad to add, were it possible, that the inattentiveness to details and inexactness, of which we have given some examples, are confined to matters of local and antiquarian interest. But the many brilliant qualities of this book, its certainty of popularity, render it the more necessary to warn its readers that, even when in our author's own hands instead of those of his misleaders, and in grave matters, they must not feel perfectly secure. This spirited, fluent, always interesting book is at the same time subtly theoretical. In most instances Mr. Lodge gives us the facts on which he generalizes, but we note one instance in which the substitution of a version for a quotation is unfortunate. In early life, Washington, writing to his brother concerning his first skirmish, says: "I heard the bullets whistle, and, believe me, there is something charming in the sound." Mr. Lodge says Washington wrote "that he loved to hear the bullets whistle" (I, p. 75). The connotations of the sentences are different. Washington's words may have meant only to reassure his brother as to his courage under fire, or no more than the melodious note made by a bullet; but the airy phrase substituted compels the letter to support Mr. Lodge's theory that "Washington had the fierce, fighting temper of the Northmen. He loved battle and danger, and he never ceased to love them and to give way to their excitement," etc. This is said of a man who wrote: "I am led to reflect how much more delightful to an undebauched mind is the task of making improvements on earth, than all the vain glory which can be acquired from ravaging it by the most uninterrupted career of conquests." In the same vein Mr. Lodge writes, "In this Second Congress he appeared habitually on the floor in his blue-and-buff uniform of a Virginia colonel. It was his way of saying that the hour for action had come," etc. If our author has grounds for believing that Washington wore a dress different from what he had been accustomed to wear as a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses (which John Adams, in mentioning the dress, does not suggest), those grounds should surely have been given. Readers not enamoured of the "fierce fighting temper" may draw from such an individual dress-parade conclusions unfavorable to the modesty and moderation generally supposed to be characteristic of Washington.

Erroneous as Mr. Lodge's theory of Washington's temper appears to us, we probably owe to it the admirable summary of Washington's career in the Revolution to which two-thirds of his first volume are devoted. We would almost advise a reader to begin the first volume on page 131, where the incomprehensible Virginian disappears and the American General comes into view. The very style becomes more free, and at times is even felicitous; the marshalling of facts is skilful, and interest distributed in fair proportion between the military and political aspects of the Revolution. The relation between these aspects, and the governmental evolution which proceeded *pari passu* with the Revolution, are lucidly set forth, and the field of constitutional study somewhat extended.

Mr. Lodge's brain is a fine loom: give it the threads, it will weave them bravely and substantially; but, for selecting or proving the threads, no adequate apparatus is provided him. The wrong thread, or the rotten, is thus sometimes visible in the woof. Mr. Lodge tells the significant story of the General's refusing to open Lord Howe's letter addressed to "George Washington Esq., etc., etc.," as follows: "The bearer was courteously received, but the letter was declined. 'The etc., etc., may mean anything,' said the Englishman. 'It may also mean nothing,' Washington replied." What the messenger said was, "The etc., etc., implies everything." "And anything," said Washington.

A more serious fault appears in Mr. Lodge's scroll where he undertakes to relate the Asgill affair. Capt. Huddy having been hanged by a party of Tories, headed by the British Capt. Lippencott (not Lippincott, as Mr. Lodge spells the name), Washington and his generals determined on retaliation. From among his prisoners Washington caused one to be selected by lot to suffer death unless Lippencott should be delivered up.

> "The fatal lot," says Mr. Lodge, "had fallen upon a mere boy, Capt. Asgill, who was both amiable and popular, and Washington was beset with appeals in his behalf, for Lady Asgill moved heaven and earth to save her son. She interested the French court, and Vergennes made a special request that Asgill should be released. Even Washington's own officers, notably Hamilton, sought to influence him, and begged him to recede. In these difficult circumstances he hesitated, and asked instructions from Congress. . . . It was difficult to refuse Vergennes, and Congress, glad of the excuse and anxious to oblige their allies, ordered the release of Asgill."

Mr. Lodge speaks of this as a "petty" incident, and such it is in his page; but the pivot of the whole affair is omitted. Asgill had been among the officers surrendered with Cornwallis under terms which excluded him from liability to be used as a hostage in any subsequent reprisals. This fact has, indeed, been omitted by Washington's biographers, and we must suppose that the papers relating to it have escaped their attention. We have before us the copy of a correspondence now in possession of a descendant of Gen. Lincoln which shows the incident to have been by no means petty in the eyes of Washington. The officer with the British prisoners, Maj. Gordon, under date of May 27, 1782, writes to Washington, calling his attention to the Fourteenth Article of the Cornwallis capitulation, which "expressly says that no articles of capitulation are to be infringed on pretext of reprisals," etc. Washington, in a letter marked "Private," writes to the Secretary of War (Lincoln) as follows:

> "5th June, 1782.
>
> "My Dear Sir,—Col. Hazen's sending me an officer under the capitulation of Yorktown for the purpose of retaliation has distressed me exceedingly. Be so good as to give me your opinion of the propriety of doing this upon Captain Asgill, if we should be driven to it for want of an unconditional prisoner. Presuming

that this matter has been a subject of much conversation, pray with your own let me know the opinions of the most sensible of those with whom you have conversed. Congress by their resolve has unanimously approved of my determination to retaliate. The army have advised it, and the country look for it. But how far is it justifiable upon an officer under the faith of a capitulation, if none other can be had, is the question? Hazen's sending Capt'n Asgill on for this purpose makes the matter more distressing, as the whole business will have the appearance of a farce, if some person is not sacraficed to the mains [*sic*] of poor Huddy; which will be the case if an unconditional prisoner cannot be found, and Asgill escapes. I write you in exceeding great haste; but beg your sentiments may be transmitted as soon as possible (by express), as I may be forced to a decision in the course of a few days.—I am most sincerely and affectionately, D'r Sir, yr obed't, G. WASHINGTON."

Birds through an Opera-Glass. By Florence A. Merriam. [No. 3. The Riverside Library for Young People.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

IT is undoubtedly true that in this country anything approaching an accurate knowledge of birds and their ways is confined to the few, and these chiefly professional naturalists and writers. Even the farmers, whose lives are spent among birds, and whose interests are much concerned with their habits, know little about them. When asked by inquiring city cousins to name their feathered friends, the list is a short one, and usually comprises only the most common, as the robin, bluebird, meadow-lark, high-hole, chewink, barn-swallow, and "chippy," by which latter term they usually know, or rather fail to know, all the brown-colored sparrows. The chicken-hawk closes the list, and under that name the farmer's boy is taught to exterminate ruthlessly all the birds of prey, regardless of the fact that nearly all of them perform useful service to agriculture, while but one or two are destructive to poultry.

It is difficult to say how far this general ignorance of the most beautiful and useful part of animated creation is to be attributed to the rather unattractive form which ornithological treatises are wont to assume, to their technical descriptions and repellent names. It is certain that writers like John Burroughs, Bradford Torrey, and others address a larger circle of readers than do professional ornithologists, and that they, and not the professional ornithologists, are the successful educators of the masses. A new writer now steps to the front and gives us the little book called 'Birds through an Opera-Glass.' Its title sufficiently reveals its purpose, which is to invite laymen, and laywomen as well, to the woods and pastures, where, glass in hand, they are to seek an introduction to the birds, study their habits, and by so doing gain at once a knowledge of bird life which books cannot supply, and reap the sure rewards which Nature always confers on her votaries.

The plan of the book is happily conceived. It is intended to be suggestive, as the preface frankly tells us, nothing more. Evidently the writer thinks that they who require to be told all they want to know of Nature and her doings are not worth troubling herself about. The circle she addresses includes those who are willing to take a little pains to acquire the information they desire, and able to find pleasure in the task. She takes her readers into her confidence, invites them to a stroll in the woods, glass and notebook in hand, and presses her eyes and methods into their service. The object of the excursion is to discover just how the birds appear as they busy themselves about their daily avocations, and what they say in response to kindly questionings. For her the dried skin, the table of measurements, and the technical description have no existence, as, indeed, why should they? All know the robin, and, by taking it as the unit of measure, other birds are easily subjected to a comparative diagnosis, while the colors and habits of each species are pleasantly described and made to reveal its identity.

The author has a happy knack of seizing upon the salient peculiarities most likely to strike the average untrained observer. Now the locality is pointed out where such and such birds are most likely to be met with; now it is the method of capturing its prey, a characteristic attitude or a peculiar jerking of the tail, or what not, that is depended upon to lead the inquirer in the right direction. As she herself says: "It was my good fortune when in college to be able to study the perplexities of nearly forty young observers, and this book is virtually the result of what I learned of their wants and the best way to supply them." Besides the acquaintance with the needs of her audience, gained in the way described, the author brings to her task far more important qualifications. She has good eyes, and especially a stock of patience which, when associated and added to a true love of nature, never fails to make a good observer.

The bits of philosophy she weaves into her stories, and the likeness to human actions and human nature which she discerns in her bird friends, are very pleasantly told. The poets are frequently taxed to contribute their share to the bird stories, and the quotations are apt and well selected. The space devoted to the several species is, as a rule, when the intent of the book is considered, judiciously apportioned, though such birds as the cuckoo, meadow-lark, whippoorwill, and some others are perhaps dismissed with scantier mention than their interest and merits deserve. In addition to the descriptive matter in the text under each species, the author has added an appendix which the tyro will find of decided advantage. The family characteristics of the birds treated are given in untechnical language, and the birds are then classified according to the localities they most frequent, their size as compared with the robin, their colors, their songs, shape of bill, nesting habits, etc.

Altogether, we have in 'Birds through an Opera-Glass' a book wisely planned, well written, and sure to please its readers, even if it should not accomplish all its author intended in taking them out of doors as observers and as readers of the book of nature wherein the author has found her own inspiration. It is to be hoped that the reception given to the present volume will accord with its merits, and so encourage the production of others like it.

Memorial of Sarah Pugh: A Tribute of Respect from her Cousins. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

THIS little volume is in the nature of an autobiography, being mainly composed of extracts from Miss Pugh's diaries and letters. It should have had a portrait of her in default of any clear intimation of her personal appearance, which had all the charm of the best type of Quakeress, joined to a breadth and liberality and strength of mind not always discernible in the physiognomy of Friends; a dignity of carriage that caused her diminutive figure to be forgotten; and an immaculate gentility of attire. Miss Pugh was born on the slave-cursed soil of Virginia in 1800, but was taken to Pennsylvania before she was old enough to retain any impressions of her surroundings, and found her life-work and ended her days in Philadelphia. She had outgrown the trammels of her sect when George Thompson came to this country on his first anti-slavery mission in 1834, and his eloquence drew her at once into the ranks of the working abolitionists. In 1840 she was one of the local delegates to the London World's Anti-Slavery Convention, and shared the fate of all her colleagues of her own sex in being excluded from membership in that body, which was under the control of Orthodox Friends of a very bigoted stripe. She made a protracted European tour in 1851-'53, being in Paris during the Coup d'État, though she appears to have seen nothing of the street conflict, or any disorder approaching that of which she had been a witness in her own city at the burning of Pennsylvania Hall in 1838, or the Rynders mob in this city in 1850.

These are the salient features of Miss Pugh's experience as revealed in the Memorial, which might have been made much more valuable if the editor had been conversant with the history of the anti-slavery struggle. The 'Life of Garrison' alone, so far as published, would have guided him in his selections from the diaries, and enabled him to elucidate passages now left obscure. The account, on p. 18, of the causes of the schism among the abolitionists in 1836-1840 is anachronistic and wholly inadequate. On p. 19 "the [Clerical] Appeal" of 1837 is referred to by Miss Pugh, and needs explanation. And we ought to have had the allusion, on p. 39, to Miss Bremer's deviation from anti-slavery fidelity cleared up. On p. 31, C. *K.* Whipple is misprinted C. *H.* On the whole, we are left with the feeling that the diaries contain a great deal more that deserved to see the light than the Quaker cousins have detected.

A few personal glimpses are noteworthy, as of Lord John Russell and George Cruikshank speaking together at a Mechanics' Institute (p. 68), the caricaturist not failing to bear his temperance testimony. Miss Pugh also attended an anti-slavery reception by the Duchess of Sutherland at Stafford House (p. 73); and in London—

"I met by appointment a Miss Evans, translator of Strauss, at present assistant editor of the *Westminster Review*, and tried to interest her in our anti-slavery movement, as she is a clear thinker, and may have much in her power. . . . The evening was spent at Mrs. [Eliza Lee] Follen's. George Thompson, Mr. [Victor] Schoelcher, Miss Evans, and Miss Murray. There was some anti-slavery talk, but the evening was principally occupied with the rappings" (p. 53).

Miss Pugh afterwards visited Miss Martineau, but of this meeting we are given no details. Of Miss Martineau's most intimate friend and biographer Miss Pugh cites this characteristic bon-mot: "M. W. Chapman used to say in anti-slavery days, 'Of course we want all the virtues on board, but Prudence is the one we can best spare'" (p. 128). The subject of this memoir lived to the ripe old age of eighty-four. At fifty-two she was conversing with a venerable English lady regarding the talk about the poor showing made by the Americans at the World's Fair of 1851. By way of apology—

"I said, 'You must remember that America is young—that I, a woman now living, remember when we used to ask for *the return of a pin* that had been borrowed, and one of our school mottoes was,

'To see a pin and let it lie,
You'll come to want before you die.'"

Zwei Jahrzehnte deutscher Politik, und die gegenwärtige Weltlage. Von Eduard von Hartmann. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich.

FEW writers could venture to reprint newspaper and magazine articles, fifteen or twenty years old, more particularly when the articles

in question treat of politics and are written in German. The author of the 'Philosophy of the Unconscious' is perhaps the only living German writer whose style possesses enough intrinsic attraction to make almost any subject readable. The essays he has collected in this volume originally appeared in the *Gegenwart*, *Grenzboten*, *Im Neuen Reich*, and other periodicals. Next to the wonderful flexibility and grace of its language, the most striking feature of the book is found in the remarkable perversions of logic and morals imposed upon one who endeavors, on high philosophic grounds, to justify the ways of Bismarck to Germany, and to defend his protectionist and socialistic vagaries. Even when not concerned as a champion of the German Chancellor, Hartmann seems impelled, by innate "cussedness," to proclaim doctrines that run directly counter to the generally received principles of justice and honor. Thus, he sets up as an historic law, that written treaties are valid only as long as the circumstances under which they were made have not changed—in other words, that no nation is bound to abide by its own solemn obligations except when it cannot help itself. As an actual fact, it is no doubt true that the path of history is strewn with the fragments of broken treaties; but nations and statesmen, however ruthlessly they have trampled upon their troth, have always sedulously cultivated at least the appearance of good faith, and have endeavored, by special pleading, to show in each instance that it was not they, but the other party, that broke the engagement. It was reserved for a German ideologue of the nineteenth century to formulate the convenient doctrine that "the logic of historical development forces the rising party to a formal breaking of the written law, in order to afford validity to the higher law of the actual historical facts."

But the author goes to the most surprising lengths in his chapters on protection and free trade. He sets out with the apparently candid admission that "no protectionist of any intellectual significance will deny that free trade is an ideal whose realization must be aimed at, as soon as the conditions of its possibility are given; that all protectionist theories claim only provisional validity. The ideal condition of commerce is, of course, that in which every country exchanges the products in which it has an advantage for the peculiar products of other countries without hindrance." This frank avowal promises well and has a familiar sound; but to American protectionists, who have now abandoned the ground they used to take, it will seem a weak concession to the enemy. Hartmann, however, goes on to say that all commerce depends on reciprocity, that each country must not only receive, but also give, and that this condition can only be satisfied permanently when both countries stand on an approximately equal level of economic development.

"Even when an industrial state," he says, "exchanges its manufactures for the cereals of an agricultural state, this relation can only end in exhausting the soil of the latter and impoverishing it, unless it employs the money received for its products, at least in part, in establishing manufactures of its own before its soil is utterly drained."

This peculiar sentence has the true protectionist ring, and nobody but a throroughbred protectionist could evolve it. One is at a loss whether most to admire the idea that a farmer who has sold his grain to a foreign country is to invest the proceeds in building cotton and woollen mills, or the other equally original idea that the agricultural country will go on selling its grain until its soil is exhausted and the people are starving. Further on we also meet that old friend of ours, the theory that the doctrine of free trade is only a cunning device of England for draining other countries of their wealth. We are informed that, in contradistinction to this false kind of free trade, there is a genuine kind, based on reciprocity, and to be established by a gradual extension of the German Zollverein, which shall ultimately embrace all the European states except England; but what the untrained intellect of a free-trader cannot understand is, how or why there should be any commerce at all between nations all of which have reached the same level of economic development, and all of which are consequently capable of producing all the commodities which their citizens require. Such is the heaven that protectionists dream of, and its most perfect realization will have been attained when every village is entirely self-sufficing and independent of every other.

"All other civilized states," says our author, "surround themselves with protective tariffs out of aversion to free trade, but Germany does it out of love for free trade, and for the purpose of promoting it; just as France, Russia, and Italy maintain great armies from an inclination for war and from a lust for the gains to be hoped from offensive wars, while Germany maintains its immense army from a love of peace, and to hold in check the warlike desires of its neighbors."

Although this sounds like one of Artemus Ward's pleasantries, it is intended quite seriously, and there is much other equally edifying matter in this book. The only work in the English language that can match it for consistent wrongheadedness and perverted ingenuity is Henry C. Carey's 'Letters on International Copyright,' first published in 1852, and of which a second edition appeared in 1868. Whether a mental affinity between these two able writers has landed them both in the protectionist camp, or whether their devotion to the doctrine of protection has in both cases produced the same mental warp, may be open to discussion; probably the latter supposition is the correct one, for it is more than likely that if Bismarck's necessities had impelled him in the direction of free trade, Hartmann would have displayed his brilliant dialectics on that side of the controversy. It is difficult to be greatly moved by the eloquence of a lawyer who would have been equally eloquent on the other side if the other side had retained him.

Tier- und Pflanzenbilder auf Münzen und Gemmen des Klassischen Altertums. Von Imhoof-Blumer und Otto Keller. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 1889.

Two years ago we spoke of Prof. Keller's book entitled 'Thiere des Classischen Alterthums.' This was a work in a field not often traversed, and its purpose was to point out the parts played by animals in all the various scenes of ancient civilization. Under the bear, for instance, were discussed the localities in Europe, Asia, and Egypt in which he was found, his position in mythology and religion, how he was hunted, baited in the amphitheatre, or tamed, and how his skin, fat, and meat were used. There were also collected the speculations of the ancient writers on his nature, together with the names of different species, representations of them in art, and, finally, remarks on his apotheosis, as it were, into a constellation. About thirty animals and birds were treated in this fashion, and the whole was conceived in the scholarly style familiar to those acquainted with the author's work in the domain of Horatian criticism.

In the course of this book Prof. Keller remarked that the place of animals in the civilization of antiquity would probably be best understood and illustrated after a study of contemporary coins and gems. The new work before us bears out fully the truth of that observation, and is an indispensable supplement to its predecessor. A series of twenty-six plates, containing phototypes of over thirteen hundred coins and gems, certainly affords an unique opportunity for the study of this particular branch of philology. In the place of the thirty animals and birds above mentioned, we have noted here nearly three hundred, including mammals, birds, amphibia, reptiles, fishes, insects, and crustacea, together with many of those products of the Greek fancy—creatures that never were on sea or land. To these must be added a large collection of plants and trees, interesting from the point of view of agriculture, religion, or in other connections.

The plates are preceded by a full description of every coin and gem, together with an excellent quintuple index. The intention is to present not a complete illustrated catalogue of all the varying types of the different plants and animals, but merely the best and most interesting examples of each. The more important variations from the normal type are briefly mentioned, however, and, in the case of the rarest, all the examples known to the authors are either pictured or mentioned.

The selection and description of the coins has fallen to the share of Prof. Imhoof-Blumer, whose work in Greek numismatics is well known. Nearly all the coins chosen are of the period of Greek independence; those of a later date, as well as Roman coinage, are used only when the earlier sources were deficient. The gems, arranged by Prof. Keller, are not mere repetitions of those found in our common handbooks. Most of them have not hitherto been published in a trustworthy form, and not a few are real *inedita*. They are gathered from all the principal collections of Europe. Both gems and coins are reproduced in natural size, except those on one plate, which, for a special reason, have been one-and-a-half times enlarged. The phototypes are finely executed, and in only a few instances have we been obliged to use a magnifying glass.

Given a collection of animals varying in size from the elephant to the parasitic crab found on the thunny fish, the scholar will be difficult indeed who does not find something to excite his interest and attention, while the reviewer may well be at a loss what to select for particular commendation. Even Mr. Sandys might find here additional material for his already richly illustrated edition of the 'Bacchæ.' The coins and gems offer many Dionysiac scenes, one of the most beautiful being a large coin of Ephesus, bearing on the obverse a snake issuing from the half-open *cista mystica*, the whole enclosed in an ivy wreath. A rhinoceros driven by a man with a goad, on a Berlin gem, might have been the one exhibited by Augustus in the Septa. A dekadrachmon of Syracuse presents what might be called a lovely picture of the little ivory chariot and horses with which Nero used to amuse himself, while even Domitian's fly finds its appropriate representation. When we are so generously treated, it is perhaps invidious to speak of omissions; but among the pictures of the Sphinx we miss the scene of her killing by Œdipus. This is represented in Lippert (Dact. 1, 2, 79), and we have seen it also on a carnelian scarab, one of a collection belonging to Mr. J. R. Lowell. In the same collection is another, interesting for its antiquity, as shown by the marks of the drill, and for the reason that it probably represents Heracles returning from the Erymanthian hunt.

He leans on a staff, and staggers under the burden of the boar, slung over his shoulder. We have not seen this published, either in the present work or elsewhere.

By the way, this book is dedicated—rather an unusual thing in a German book—to two Americans, Dr. George M. Lane of Cambridge and Mr. Stephen Salisbury of Worcester. We learn from the preface that Prof. Keller has received a call to the new Clark University.

Eli and Sibyl Jones: Their Life and Work. By Rufus M. Jones. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

ELI JONES is still living, or was when this book was written. Sibyl, his wife, died in 1873. Together they presented an aspect somewhat unusual in our time. They were missionary Friends. They felt themselves "called by the spirit" to go hither and thither and proclaim what to them were tidings of great joy. Except for this reliance on the spirit, which was as simple and sincere as it was with George Fox or any of the early Friends, their modes of thought and speech and life are more suggestive of Methodism or some other form of sentimental evangelical piety than of Quakerism. While looking to the spirit for direction as to the missionary journeys they should make, and while holding very distinctly to the original doctrine of the spirit as a supernatural voice, their dependence on the written Word and the personal Jesus was quite other than that of the early Friends, and perfectly in keeping with the average orthodoxy of the present time.

Eli Jones was the first of eleven children born to his parents in the course of twenty-one years. Children were then regarded as a blessing from the Lord, and the blessing was frequently invoked. The boy's earliest and life-long home was in China, Maine, a recent settlement at the time of his birth in 1807. Sibyl, a Jones before marriage, was presumably a relative of her husband; in what degree we are not told. Eli claimed descent from the Jones who steered the *Mayflower;* on his mother's side from Robinson of Leyden. Eli and Sibyl were married in 1833. Their first missionary excursion was to Canada in 1840. This was followed by others to the South and West. In 1851 it was "laid upon them" that they should go to Liberia. There is a suggestion here, and there are others elsewhere, that, while anti-slavery, as all Friends were supposed to be, as such, they were more in sympathy with the Colonizationists than with the Abolitionists. We find Eli at a Colonization meeting and consorting with Colonization leaders, but never in any Abolition meeting. In general, the religion of this worthy couple was of the other-worldly kind, though the interests of temperance and peace were dear to them. All of their missionary effort was singularly touch-and-go. Their sense of moral exigency was satisfied by making in one place an address, generally brief, setting forth the most familiar doctrines of a conventional orthodoxy, and then passing to another place to do the same.

After all their trouble in getting to Liberia in a sailing vessel, with rough passengers and a rougher crew, they remained only a few weeks, and the advantages claimed for their activity by their biographer are not easily made out. After their return, they soon set out again, and went to England, Ireland, Norway, Switzerland, and Southern France. An account, by Elihu Burritt, of their speaking in London gives us almost our only impression of their peculiar power. Eli's voice is set down as dreadfully nasal, even for an American. Sibyl's was low and sweet and clear, and it is evident that her lips were touched with persuasion. John Bright was much delighted with her speaking. It is a very serious defect of this biography that we nowhere have the substance of their message. With almost algebraic conciseness, we are told of their speaking here and there, and of the deep impression they made, but what they said is hidden from us, probably because of its extemporaneous character. It would appear that they spoke English only, and had recourse to an interpreter everywhere upon the European continent and in Syria, whither they went in 1867 and again in 1869. This must have been a serious limitation. Twice after his wife's death Eli Jones returned to Syria, where something more was done in the way of organized work than elsewhere. The unearthing of a Quaker community in Southern France was the most interesting episode of the travels of the two in that region.

The only speech we have of Eli Jones's was not delivered *in partibus infidelium*, unless the Maine Legislature comes under that designation. He was elected to the Legislature, and it was thought a good joke by his fellow-legislators to elect him, a Quaker and peace man, Major-General of Militia. But he was entirely equal to the situation, and told them frankly how he should proceed in case he took command. It was probably another joke that made him, an ardent temperance man and total abstainer, salesman of liquors in his native town. For the year of his service the Maine Law was strictly enforced.

Eli and Sibyl Jones had many noble friends. Whittier sang them away to Palestine, and in his poem, "The Meeting," Sibyl is easily descried. The ungodly may suggest that a passion for extensive travel may have had something to do with their missionary zeal, but a very simple and sufficient answer is at hand: Sibyl Jones was so much of an invalid that travel was to her generally a painful exercise. The wisdom of their methods may be subject to some doubt; but to read their biography is to be certain of the simplicity and goodness of their hearts.

On Parliamentary Government in England, its Origin, Development, and Practical Operation. By Alpheus Todd, LL.D., C.M.G., Librarian of the Canadian Parliament, etc. Second edition by his son. Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols. 8vo.

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Taken in connection with Mr. Todd's other work, 'Parliamentary Government in the Colonies,' these volumes give us the complete organization and business working of the British Empire, in a way which leaves little to desire.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. The Tents of Shem. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Argyll, Duke of. What is Truth? A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 25 cents.
Griswold, W. M. Annual Index to Periodicals for 1888. Bangor: W. M. Griswold.
Haggard, H. R. Cleopatra. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Hargreaves, J. G. Literary Workers; or, Pilgrims to the Temple of Honor. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Hooper, G. Wellington. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Irving, Henry, and Marshall, F. A. Shakspere's Works. Vol. 6. Othello, Antony, Coriolanus, King Lear. Scribner & Welford. $3.
Lathrop, G. P. Two Sides of a Story. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Littell's Living Age. April—June, 1889. Vol. clxxxi. Boston: Littell & Co.
Mathews, Fannie A. To-night at Eight. Belford, Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
McCarroll, J. Madeline, and Other Poems. Belford, Clarke & Co.
McCarthy, Mrs. E. W. Assemblyman John; or, His Wife's Ambition. Belford, Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Meadowcroft, W. H. The A B C of Electricity. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Pennell, J. & E. Our Journey to the Hebrides. Harper & Bros.
Pierson, E. De L. The Merry Muse: Society Verse by American Writers. New ed. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Taft, J. S. The Terror of Greenholm. New York.

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Schools.

[*Continued from first page.*]

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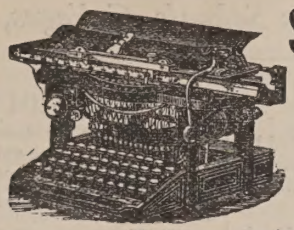

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888		1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums		$5,253,404 39
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Losses paid during the same period	$1,998,897 36	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$687,287 98	
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Cash in Bank		252,812 02
Amount		$12,167,986 34

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 8, 1889.

The Week.

THE reply of Postmaster-General Wanamaker to the President of the Western Union Telegraph Co. begins with a statement of what he considers the special services rendered by the Government to that company as justifying a reduction of the rate of tolls from one cent to one mill per word. The only such service mentioned is the granting of the right of way to the company for the erection and operation of its lines on all post-roads of the United States. By way of emphasis, Mr. Wanamaker mentions a decision of the Supreme Court in the Pensacola case, in which it was held that the Western Union Telegraph Company had rights under this act which not even the sovereign State of Florida could annul. The inference might be drawn from this presentation of the case that the Government had conferred some exclusive right or franchise on the Western Union Telegraph Company, for which compensation in some form might be fairly claimed. But such is not the fact. The act of 1866, cited by the Postmaster-General, grants this right of way to "any telegraph company now organized, or which may hereafter be organized, under the laws of any State." It opened the way to the Bankers' and Merchants' Telegraph Company, the National, the Atlantic and Pacific, the Mutual, the United Lines, the Rapid, the Postal, the Baltimore and Ohio, and a score of other companies in the past. Most of these have been absorbed by the Western Union, but one of them, at least, is still an independent and competing line. The door is open, however, to any other company to enter the field, from this time onward.

This right of way, so far from securing any special advantages to the Western Union Company, took away what it had acquired before by reason of first occupancy and its superior capital and plant. This was the very object of the act. As originally reported by Senator Sherman, it was a bill to incorporate the National Telegraph Company, and to give to that particular company the right of way on all post-roads of the United States, in order that it might compete successfully with the Western Union Company. On motion of Senator Grimes of Iowa, the bill was amended so as to confer this power on "any telegraph company" (*Congressional Globe*, 1st session 39th Congress, vol. iv, p. 3427). The whole debate shows that this was the purpose of the measure. Therefore this part of Mr. Wanamaker's argument falls to the ground, so far as it seeks to erect a claim on the Western Union Company for special gratitude and consideration.

Mr. Wanamaker next says that the law has at least imposed upon the Postmaster-General the duty of fixing the rate for Government telegraphing and maintaining it "until in a court of inquiry the rate has been shown to be unjust." The only courts of inquiry known to the law are military or naval. The act of Congress says that "telegrams between the several departments of the Government . . . shall have priority over all other business at such rates as the Postmaster-General shall annually fix." The Postmaster-General is himself the only court of inquiry in this case. The court has already acted, and now asks the defendant to furnish reasons or excuses for reopening the decree. This is better than adhering to an untenable position, but the affair has served to take the measure of Mr. Wanamaker for high office, as he has often taken other folks' measure for clothing. He advances the theory that this is the right way to transact public business, namely, to do a certain thing to-day, and then ask the persons affected by his action to show why it should not be done, so that he, or "a court of inquiry," may do something different. A person who would avoid making himself ridiculous would hold his court of inquiry beforehand.

The arrival of the Canadian sealing vessel *Black Diamond* at Victoria, in charge of her own officers and crew, after her capture by our revenue cutter *Rush*, shows pretty conclusively that the commander of the *Rush* did not intend to bring her into an American port for adjudication. He put one sailor on board of her and then sent her off. He might, if he had been so disposed, have taken all of her crew on his own ship and put an equal number of his own men on the *Black Diamond*, in which case she would have been sailed into the port of Sitka and placed in charge of the customs officers at that place, and proceedings for condemnation would have followed. It is a very queer proceeding from every point of view.

Secretary Blaine was seen last week at Bangor by a newspaper reporter, and, although he refused to be interviewed, he took occasion to say that "everything done on the fur-seal question since March 4 last was in literal compliance with the directions contained in the act of Congress which was approved by President Cleveland on the last day of his term." This statement is characteristically misleading. The act of Congress referred to is in these words:

"No person shall kill any otter, mink, marten, sable or fur-seal, or other fur-bearing animal *within the limit of Alaska Territory or in the waters thereof;* and every person guilty thereof shall, for each offence, be fined not less than $200 or more than $1,000, or imprisoned not more than six months, or both; and all vessels, their tackle, apparel, furniture, and cargo, found engaged in violation of this section, shall be forfeited; but the Secretary of the Treasury shall have power to authorize the killing of any such mink, marten, sable, or other fur-bearing animals, except fur-seals, under such regulations as he may prescribe. It shall be the duty of the Secretary to prevent the killing of any fur-seal, and to provide for the execution of the provisions of this section until it is otherwise provided by law, nor shall he grant any special privileges under this section."

The act does not help anybody to decide what are the waters of Alaska Territory. The powers and duties of the Executive of the United States as regards the capture of seals in Behring Sea are exactly what they were before the act was passed. The waters of Alaska Territory, unless that Territory differs from other countries more or less civilized, are the space of three miles next adjoining any of the land, plus any land-locked water surrounded entirely by said Territory, with channels of communication so narrow that they may be commanded by guns on the shore. The Gulf of St. Lawrence *is* entirely surrounded by British territory. Behring Sea is *not* entirely surrounded by our territory. The channel between the southwestern corner of Newfoundland and Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, is only 50 miles wide, as against one of 183 miles between our westernmost Aleutian island and the nearest Russian territory. We have always insisted on our right under international law to sail through and into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and to fish in said gulf at any place more than three miles from the land, and this right we now enjoy. We have even claimed the right to pass through the Gut of Canso, which is only half-a-mile wide, for fishing purposes. Mr. Blaine will have to explain himself more fully before long.

The President appears to have decided to restore life to the old Louisiana Carpet-Bag Ring. He has offered the appointment of Collector of the Port of New Orleans to ex-Gov. Warmoth, and the mission to the Argentine Republic to ex-Marshal J. R. C. Pitkin. It is a long time since these names have occupied much attention in the public mind, but ten or fifteen years ago there was scarcely a day in which they did not figure in some new form of political rascality in Louisiana. Of Warmoth's appointment, possibly the worst thing that can be said of it is that ex-Senator Kellogg of Louisiana thinks it a "good one." The Republican newspapers, including the *Tribune*, are silent about both appointments, but the time has been when the *Tribune* was able to speak its mind freely about both men. Its views of Warmoth were especially unfavorable, and will be found in great profusion in its files during the years of that eminent carpet-bag Governor's career. Of Pitkin it was rather contemptuous than otherwise, as in a leading article entitled, "The Too-Frequent Pitkin," published on July 12, 1877. Now will the *Tribune* tell us what it thinks of the political wisdom — we waive all higher views of the matter as not germane—of the President's attempt to breathe fresh life into the "Louisiana gang" who, a dozen years ago, were "brought into prominence by the fact that they were charged with being great rascals"?

Under the reforming hand of Mr. Manning the Cleveland Administration, so says the Hartford *Times*, reduced the incidental consular fees at London, Bradford, and other places, and cut down Gov. Waller's fees at London, as compared with the previous fees, at the rate of $14,000 a year; but now Mr. Harrison's Administration has restored the fees, "so that Mr. New at London, Col. Tibbits at Bradford, and others can get the old fat rates." The strain of the situation thus produced by "the old fat rates" is in the diplomatic misunderstanding thus created, which has been formally brought to the attention of the British House of Commons. Mr. Manning could not, during his brief term of office, accomplish all the reforms in taxation that he began, to say nothing of the others that he meditated. His wish and purpose were, as is clearly to be seen in the reports that he sent to Congress, to cut out this notarial scandal by the roots; but so great was the resistance encountered in the Special Agents' Bureau of his own Department, and in the Consular Bureau of the State Department, that in a year he could only bring about so much of that reform as is described by the Hartford *Times*.

What the country now needs is to be told the whole truth about consular salaries, tips, perquisites, and "incidental fees," and in that behalf Gov. Waller can render a most valuable service if he will. Having recently been Consul-General at London, he knows the inside of the business, not only at London, but elsewhere in what was his consular jurisdiction. If his "incidental fees" were by Mr. Manning's efforts made $14,000 a year less than those of his predecessor, how did it come about? We all know what the salaries are of our consuls in Great Britain, but Gov. Waller can tell us the annual sum of legitimate consular fees received for notarial work not prescribed by Congress, and then can describe the notarial fees for oaths on invoices, and tell how much of the total sum not reported to the Treasury enriches the consular officer. What was the source of the $14,000 a year of which he was deprived? What are the figures of "the old fat fees" for Bradford and other English consulates, and can it be that a former American consul in England sued, or threatened otherwise, to compel a British notary to make a "square divide" of these notarial fees according to the terms of his selection to be the consular notary? If an American consular officer compels a shipper to appear before a designated British notary, cannot he, if so minded, exact an unreasonable fee unless restrained by the Consul, and is the intervention of the latter likely to be exerted on the side of the notary or of the shipper if the Consul shares the swag?

The process of "whitewashing" Tanner has begun. A preliminary statement has been sent out through the Associated Press, obviously prepared by the Committee which is conducting its investigation in secret, in which the valuable information is imparted to the public that Tanner has done very little more rerating than his predecessor did in the same period of time. This information, the statement says, "is learned from parties believed to have a knowledge of the work of the Committee," which is a very clumsy and insufficient disguise of the obvious fact that the statement is furnished by the Committee itself, for it contains exact figures and other data which nobody else would be able to supply. The statement closes with the following forecast of the final report: "The investigation, so far as it has gone, is believed to have convinced the Committee that there has been a gradual increase in the number of pensions rerated since late in the summer or early fall of last year. It is confidently asserted that the Committee has discovered nothing whatever of a sensational character either in the number of reratings or the amount of money involved." Can it be possible that Secretary Noble and the President believe that a report like that from a committee which has done its work in secret will have the slightest influence upon anybody? As the Philadelphia *Inquirer* has remarked, "an attempt to vindicate any official by such process would be manifestly incomplete and unsatisfactory," and "will not answer the public demand."

Wade's Fibre and Fabric, a protectionist organ of note, is out for free wool. At all events, that is the way we read an article of some length in its latest issue. Perhaps it has been assisted to this conclusion by the failure, now generally acknowledged, of the recent worsted decision of the Treasury Department to improve the worsted industry. The worsted-mills have not reaped a penny of advantage from the decision. In fact, the down-hill course of that industry has not been checked by it. Some people are very angry because the importers of worsted coatings and suitings have not advanced their prices. It seems that these importers have so much confidence that the courts will upset the decision and pay back the excess of duties, together with interest at a higher rate than they have to pay for borrowed money, that they have continued selling their goods at the old prices. There are but two ways out of this dilemma for the worsted-manufacturers. One is to have the importers sent to prison, and the other is to get wool on as good terms as foreign manufacturers get it. The latter seems to be the more feasible undertaking.

Henry George has returned from a triumphal tour in Europe to find his single-tax Anti-Poverty party in this country divided as nearly in the middle as was possible without rending one of the "leaders" in twain. There are three "leaders" in one faction and four in the other. It is not easy to say precisely what has caused the split, but the chief source of trouble appears to have been that there was not enough notoriety in the business to go around. A formal banquet had been arranged to welcome Mr. George on his return, and the trouble came to a head in arranging the list of speakers for this. The faction of three, in whom the single-tax idea is suspected of overshadowing the anti-poverty idea, objected to having a speech from the Reverend Pentecost, who had left his pulpit and renounced all orthodox preaching in order to expound anti-poverty. In order to prevent a scene at the banquet, Mr. Pentecost and his three fellow-leaders withdrew his name from the list. He attended the banquet, but sat silent while the complete single-tax faction of three occupied the floor for an almost unlimited period of time. This was naturally a hardship for a man of Mr. Pentecost's "gifts," and he is going to relieve himself by setting forth his case in a paper which he has started in opposition to the regular George paper. The other faction will reply, and there will be war. As publishing a newspaper with no visible means of support is an expensive business, the work of abolishing poverty from the world, together with that of reforming existing methods of taxation, will have to wait awhile.

Not only was Mr. Pentecost refused the privilege of making a speech at the recent banquet, but he has since been formally repudiated by Mr. George, who has written a letter saying it would have been "extremely disagreeable" to him to have had to listen to a speech by a man who had been "giving currency to misrepresentations." Thus Pentecost follows McGlynn out of the George party, and henceforth the organization will have to go ahead without the benefit of any of the clergy which it ever had. It is somewhat heartless in Mr. George to throw over the two clergymen who were persuaded by his doctrine to leave their pulpits and devote their lives henceforth to his cause. They have been on the cold world from the moment they took this step, depending mainly upon the collections which they were able to take up at the meetings in which they undertook to drive poverty from the face of the earth by means of talk. Dr. McGlynn succeeded in driving away his personal poverty in this way, but the Reverend Pentecost was not even so successful as that. There was evidently not enough in the cause to give a comfortable living to more than one man.

The high-license and local-option principle has been adopted by the Rhode Island Legislature as the basis of the law just passed to take the place of the discarded prohibition system. A vote may be taken each spring on the question of granting licenses in cities and town, so that, if there are any places where public sentiment will sustain local prohibition, those places may prohibit the liquor traffic entirely. Wholesale license fees are not to be less than $500 nor more than $1,000, while retail licenses are to be $400 in Providence, $350 in the other cities, and from $200 to $300 in the smaller towns. There is no distinction as to kinds of liquors, so that a man must pay at least $200 to open a beer saloon.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia, which considers New York the most unsuitable of

all the greater cities in the Union as a place for the world's fair of 1892, and Philadelphia the most suitable, claims in another article, or rather in three articles in the same issue, that Philadelphia has the most abominable water supply in the world and the worst city government, and that the bad water is a consequence of the bad government. Competitive examination in bad streets is also challenged. Chicago, on the other hand, claims that she has the worst sewerage system on the continent. Her claims to bad government are not equal to Philadelphia's, but in the matter of bad streets she is not behind any city. Now, can we conceive of any two things more requisite and indispensable for a world's fair than a good water supply and a good sewerage system? New York has both. Her present water supply is excellent as to quality, and long before 1892 the quantity will be trebled. Her sewerage system is by far better than the average of American or European cities of the same class. It is not likely that either Philadelphia or Chicago will accomplish the great engineering reforms that are conceded to be necessary before the summer of 1892. In fact, no plans have been adopted in either case. In Philadelphia the manufacturers' organ tells us that although the people are drinking sewage diluted with Schuylkill water on one side and Delaware River water on the other, and are getting typhoid fever in consequence, the badness of the city government forbids any hope of improvement. "We shall never," it says, "have good water, or good streets, or good government until the people make up their mind to dethrone their bosses." It will take three years, at the least calculation, to perform this job—that is, to get ready to begin work on the new water system.

The Rev. J. Francis Robinson, a Baptist preacher of good character, has been visiting in the city of Auburn, N. Y. The day after his arrival he wished to get shaved, and went to a barber-shop, but was refused attention. He went in succession to several other barber-shops, but received the same treatment at each. The Rev. F. D. Penny, pastor of the Second Baptist Church in Auburn, accompanied the Rev. Mr. Robinson to a number of shops, and offered the proprietors a dollar to shave his friend, but his cooperation was of no use. The trouble was that the Rev. Mr. Robinson has a black skin, and, as one of the barbers said, "I refused to shave him because it is against the rules of the trade to shave a colored man." Auburn last fall gave Harrison 3,122 votes to 2,214 for Cleveland, and doubtless the Republicans of Auburn have often been filled with indignation at the idea that negroes do not enjoy equal rights with white people in the South.

A radical change in the law regarding the investment of trust funds is in progress in England, having already passed the House of Commons. Under former practice a trustee holding funds for investment—for instance, the executor of a decedent estate—could invest only in bond and mortgage within the United Kingdom, or in British consols. If he invested in other things, he was personally responsible for any loss. The same law prevails in the State of New York, except that there is liberty of investment in the bonds of both State and national Governments. The bill now pending in the House of Lords extends the list of statutory trust investments to stock of the Bank of England and the Bank of Ireland, to India stocks issued under authority of Parliament, to any securities guaranteed by Parliament, to stocks of the Metropolitan Board of Works, or of the London County Council, to the debentures and preference and guaranteed stocks of any railway in the United Kingdom which has paid not less than 3 per cent. dividends on its ordinary stock for ten years consecutively, to the securities of any railway in India guaranteed by the Government of India, to the stock and bonds of water commissioners and of water-supply companies incorporated by Parliament which have paid 5 per cent. dividends for ten consecutive years, and to the stock of any municipal borough of not less than 50,000 inhabitants, if such stock has been issued under authority of Parliament. Colonial securities not authorized by Parliament are not included in the list of lawful trust investments.

A curious political comedy has just been enacted in Norway. The pseudo-Liberal Sverdrup Ministry has been overthrown by tactics which the Premier was himself instrumental in devising. Mr. Sverdrup had pledged himself to introduce trial by jury in criminal cases, and an improved system of popular education; but his Conservative allies, without whose aid he could not remain in power, demanded of him a "masterly inactivity" in regard to these and other reforms which stand foremost on the programme of the Left. For more than two years, accordingly, Mr. Sverdrup has played the double part of reformer and frustrater of reform; but he was evidently beginning to tire of it, and there were signs, of late, that he meant to carry the jury law (which was passed a year ago) into effect. The members of the Right, taking alarm at this, promptly deserted him, and on July 2 their leader, Mr. Stang, moved in the Storthing a resolution expressing want of confidence in the Government. Although it was a foregone conclusion that this motion would be lost, Mr. Sverdrup surprised the Storthing by tendering the resignation of the entire Ministry. The Liberal press regarded this as a clever manœuvre for getting rid of the troublesome Conservative alliance, and took it for granted that Sverdrup would retain the Premiership, throwing overboard those of his colleagues who were commonly believed to be disguised Conservatives. That this was really his intention, there can be no doubt; but he reckoned without his host. He failed to take into account the disgust which his double-dealing had aroused in his party. The two factions of the Left are apparently united in nothing except their distrust of the man who split their party and converted a large majority into two hostile minorities.

When Sverdrup began his negotiations for the formation of a new government, he, therefore, encountered unforeseen obstacles. The leaders of the Pure Left, without whose coöperation no Liberal Ministry could be possible, were unconciliatory. They declared that it was the spirit of compromise which had wrecked the party, and now they would have none of it. In order to secure a government truly representative of Norse Liberalism, they demanded the admission to the Cabinet of the two ablest and most prominent chieftains of the Pure Left, Wullert Konow and Rector Steen. But the admission of these men would have meant the practical extinction of Sverdrup; and as regards Steen, his attitude during the impeachment trial of the Selmer Ministry had made him personally distasteful to the King, who still has the constitutional right of appointing as well as rejecting a Minister. It was thus obvious that the leaders of the Left who made these demands meant to have the negotiations fail. After a good deal of futile intrigue, Sverdrup found himself unable to form a government. It would have been quite feasible for the King to delegate the task to some eminent Liberal, but Oscar II. solved the difficulty, or rather complicated it further, by summoning Mr. Stang, the leader of the Right. The Cabinet which the latter has succeeded in forming consists largely of bureaucratic officials, who are without sympathy with or understanding of the needs and aspirations of the Norwegian people. Being, moreover, a minority government, and reactionary in its tendencies, the Stang Ministry is scarcely destined for a long or brilliant career.

Gen. Grenfell's victory has disposed of the third Mahdi, but, in spite of its completeness and the great slaughter of the dervishes, there is no likelihood that it will pacify the Sudan as long as Khartum remains in the hands of the Arabs. It is the capital of the Upper Nile region, and its possession is a sign of power and independence. Moreover, there is no reason for supposing that another Mahdi will not speedily appear. It is even truer of Mohammedans than of Christians that the blood of the martyrs is the seed of the church. There is probably not the smallest doubt among the Sudanese that the late Mahdi has joined the other two in heaven, and all over the desert there are hundreds of dervishes, any one of whom may any day announce himself as the latest prophet and be accepted as such. But Grenfell's victories have the immense value of showing that the native troops—that is, the "blacks" or Nubians—are fully a match for the Arabs. When it was found that the old Egyptian army, composed mainly of Fellahs, would not stand up against the Arabs, and it began to be feared that Egypt would have to be held against the Mahdi by European troops, it produced a veritable panic in English military and financial circles. The discovery of the fighting qualities of the Nubians, therefore, puts Grenfell on a still higher pedestal than Lord Wolseley.

THE REPUBLICAN PARTY AND THE TRUSTS.

THE attack of the *American*, the protectionist weekly of Philadelphia, on the protected Trusts, is a serious menace to that class of monopolies, since the writer of the article (Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson, we suppose) does not hesitate to say, that the tariff duties behind which these combines are marshalled must be repealed as soon as Congress can reach them. It holds that the Trusts are enemies of the protective system, since they are destroying internal competition, without which the whole fabric of protection falls to the ground. "It would be intolerable," it says, "to set up a barrier against foreign-made goods and then to foster monopoly inside the barrier."

We might ask the *American* a number of questions—for example, whether the Trusts do not keep the money in the country that would otherwise be spent for foreign goods, and whether they do not bolster up wages, and whether they are not, in the words of Mr. Blaine, "largely private affairs." But these and similar queries will, no doubt, be put by the official organ of the Protective Tariff League as soon as it recovers its breath. What we are most curious to know is, how the Republican party will go to work to punish a large number of men who put up their money to elect Harrison and Morton in the last campaign. There are thirty or forty Trusts marshalled behind the tariff, and new ones are coming along every day. They represent a campaign fund of millions, actual or potential. Could the Republican party have carried the last election without the money contributed by men who are now holders of Trust certificates?

We think not. We think that the party workers, such as Quay, Dudley, and Clarkson, if taken into a private room and asked this question behind closed doors (as they will be whenever the *American's* programme is developed in Congress), will say decidedly, No. We think that when these gentlemen are taken into council, they will say: "We cannot afford to throw the Trusts over, unless we know who is to foot the bills next time. Pass as many resolutions as you please against Trusts in the abstract, denounce them to your heart's content, hold them up to scorn and contempt; but if you cut off their revenue, you will run short of money very soon." Some such programme we find in the Philadelphia *Press*, a near neighbor of the *American*, which urges the next Republican State Convention to pass a resolution like this, viz.:

> "Resolved, That we are resolutely opposed to all Trusts or combinations which seek to promote monopolies, suppress competition, limit and control production, and enhance prices; that we condemn and denounce them as antagonistic to the interests of the people, and repugnant to the principles, the aims, and the achievements of the American protective policy; and that we invoke and demand the exercise of the legitimate powers of the nation and the State for the inhibition and suppression of such Trusts."

We find here no word implying that the tariff duties on refined sugar, lead, salt, cotton bagging, binding twine, linseed oil, castor oil, or any other monopolized article, are to be repealed or reduced. It may possibly be inferred that a repeal of duties is included in "the legitimate powers of the nation and the State," but if so the timidity of the *Press* symbolizes the embarrassment of the party in dealing with the protected Trusts.

Where are you to draw the line when the repealing begins? Who is to be spared when the word goes forth to slaughter the Trusts? The *American* seeks to draw a line by limiting the havoc to the Trusts proper—the industries that have formally turned over the control of production to a "head centre" and taken certificates in Trusts. "We draw a line," it says, "between agreement among producers to avoid cutthroat competition and the organization of permanent Trusts." Such a discrimination would spare the great copper combine, which holds now and has for many years held the domestic price of copper at the figure at which their own product can be reimported from abroad with duty added. The people will not be able to draw so fine a distinction. They will look rather to results than to processes, and when Prof. Thompson says, "We want free lead because there is a Lead Trust, but we don't want free copper, since there is only a temporary copper combine," they will be apt to answer, "Since you have shown us the way to freedom, we want free everything that is monopolized or can be monopolized." Why make two bites of a cherry?

It will naturally be asked, also, what are we to do with the national Republican platform? Is it to be burned in the public square by the common hangman? Are not the duties on white lead, sheet lead, refined sugar, cotton bagging, etc., *some* part of "our protective system," and did not the platform pledge the party to resist the repeal of *any* part of said system? Can the platform be burned by the common hangman without producing a great shock among the faithful? We shall be glad to see the experiment made, but we do not expect to see it in a hurry. The Trusts are not likely to sit idle while preparations are making to put them to the torture. They are active and muscular. They know where they stand and where the party stands. It is easy to talk of cutting off the dog's tail close behind his ears, but the dog has teeth to defend his tail with, and he will not fail to use them when the time comes. We wish every success to the *American* and those who agree with it, but we cannot consider the Republican party an available instrument to deliver the country from the tariff-protected Trusts. Its efforts in this direction will be much like those of the Democratic party to figure as a war party during the rebellion. The Democrats were for war provided you did not mean to abolish slavery, or employ colored troops, or destroy State rights, or shut people up in Fort Lafayette, or procure soldiers by draft, or grant negro suffrage. The people agreed with Mr. Lincoln that every question should be subordinate to the saving of the Union, and they gave their support to the party which held this doctrine, and was not at cross purposes with itself on that question. The Republican party is at cross purposes with itself on the question of tariff-protected Trusts, and therefore is not likely to be chosen as the fittest instrument to uproot them.

UTILIZING THE POWER OF NIAGARA.

A RECENT despatch from Buffalo states that an association of that city some time since made an offer of $100,000 for any device which should utilize the Niagara torrent, and adds that one Palmer, a practical mechanic, had entered a claim for the prize. The alleged device is too silly to merit attention, amounting to little more than a Keely motor shorn of its mystery; but the fact that such an offer should have been made is of interest, as showing how ill the conditions of the problem are understood.

The question of utilizing Niagara is one for the skill of the engineer and not for the ingenuity of the inventor. A "device" for attaining the end is no more possible than a device for building a city in a place very difficult of access. It is true that, after the engineer has decided upon his system, an inventor may assist him in the details of his machinery, the sewing of his belts, and the shape of his cogs. But his own system will necessarily come first of all. We have an immense volume of water falling through a height of 160 feet, or of 200 feet and more, if we reckon from a point a short distance above the falls. At present, this fall takes place over the rocks or through the air, and all the power it generates is wasted in pounding the rocks. The problem is to so make the water act upon machinery, either during the act of falling or while it still embodies the power generated by its fall, that the power now wasted shall be spent in turning dynamos and thus generating electricity. There are only two possible systems of doing this. We must either make the falling water act upon the blades or buckets of water-wheels, or we must establish what engineers call a "head."

The first system is the simplest in conception, and so most easily disposed of. It might be easy to try it on a small scale at several points on the American side of the river, especially near the inclined railway. But the first conclusion an engineer would reach—we might probably say the conclusion which a hundred engineers have already reached—is, that a water-wheel so placed, if it could be made to work at all, would have no advantage over an ordinary one, and would be subject to many disadvantages. In view of the inaccessibility of the bottom of the Horseshoe Falls, the problem of erecting the works necessary to utilize their power in this way would be one before which even a De Lesseps would shrink; and even if such works could be constructed, the cost of using the power would probably exceed its value.

The second system is therefore the only practicable one. It requires a communication between the water above the falls and that below them through a tunnel below the ground or through pipes on or near the surface. Here again we reach a question of which the difficulty inheres, not in its conception, but in its details. If the tunnel be adopted, the engineer must determine

the cost of erecting a crib in the rapids above the falls, and then boring a tunnel first vertically and then horizontally to some point below the falls where the necessary machinery could be erected. The cost of a ten-foot tunnel would probably be a million, possibly several million dollars. Then at the outlet of the tunnel we need a complex system of conduits for controlling the enormous volume of water and distributing it to the wheels. The works necessary at this point might cost another million, but they would have to be devised before their cost could be determined; and the work of devising them would involve primarily the careful calculations of the experienced mechanical engineer.

Then, granting that the works are completed, what power should we get out of them? This must be known approximately before we can decide whether the enterprise would pay; and happily the calculation is not beyond the skill of the hydraulic engineer. Granting a head of 200 feet, the conclusion would probably be that all the water that could practically be passed through a ten-foot tunnel a mile in length would not yield more than 20,000, or perhaps 30,000 horse-power when utilized in the best way. When conveyed to a considerable distance by electricity, one-half the power would be wasted. If we are correct in our rough estimates, the whole amount of power finally utilized would not be likely to exceed that of the engines of the *Etruria* and *Umbria* combined. Would the project pay?

The plan of securing the head of water by surface pipes has the advantage that the experiment could be tried on a small scale and at little expense. An expert may see difficulties which we do not; but the idea of carrying an iron pipe two or three feet in diameter from the bottom of the river bed above the American falls to the ground at their base seems quite feasible to the eye of the layman. Still, after the work was done, we could hardly expect to utilize, finally, more than 1,000 horse-power. Whether it would pay to spend a few hundred thousand dollars to do this, is a question for the financier.

The three plans we have described exhaust the possibilities of the case. The great question each of them involves is whether it will pay. Nor must we be surprised if this question has to be answered in the negative until the interest on invested capital falls much below its present rate, or the price of coal rises far above what it now is. That the problem of utilizing the power of Niagara fills so large a place in the public mind must be attributed to the impressive form in which it is presented rather than to its intrinsic importance. The cataract comes far short of affording the best example of wasted power. On every clear day the power wasted by the sun's rays upon the streets, roofs, and lands of New York city is many fold greater than that of Niagara. Whenever the sun shines upon an ocean steamship, it radiates upon her deck and sides heat enough to drive her at rates varying from five to ten knots an hour, could it only be applied to that purpose. It is but a few years since the late Capt. Ericsson devised a little engine to be run by the heat of the sun; but the rays which cost nothing in the air cost more than coal when they were collected and applied. In all these questions of utilizing wasted power the practical difficulty does not consist in any want of devices or difficulty of invention, but in the cost of the best device that could be conceived.

THE POLITICS OF ENGLISHWOMEN.

The discussion over woman suffrage in England, which has been going on in the shape of protest and counter protest between women of the highest standing in the social and intellectual world, has excited a good deal of interest among the friends of the movement here, as an illustration of the stronger hold on the public mind which the question possesses in that country. They argue that the agitation must be a deep and serious one which brings into the political arena such women as have recently appeared, pro and con, in the columns of the *Nineteenth Century* and *Fortnightly Review*. The corresponding class of women in the United States, for the most part, let the subject severely alone, or manifest but a very languid interest in it, and leave it to be debated at conventions or before the Legislatures chiefly by women who, if not professional agitators, are at least already well known as agitators.

Various reasons have been assigned for the cause of this difference, among them the higher place in social life occupied in America by women as women, and their resulting indifference to legislative attempts to improve their condition or increase their influence. Some of the difference may, perhaps, be accounted for in this way, but by far the greater part of it is undoubtedly due to the fact that the women of the upper (or what may be called the educated) class in England, are in far closer contact with practical politics than the women of the corresponding social grade in this country. As a general rule the fathers, husbands, and brothers of such women in England carry on the Government, sit in the House of Commons, and manage elections. As a general rule the fathers, husbands, and brothers of such women in this country have nothing to do with politics beyond casting their votes on election day. One of the most striking phenomena of English social life, to an American, is the extent to which he comes into contact with practical politicians at dinner-tables, and country-houses, and other resorts of the well-to-do and cultivated classes. Every one knows what a rare bird the "gentleman in politics," or the "scholar in politics," is in this country, and how precarious his footing is among politicians, and how sternly he is required to keep his gentility and his culture in the background.

The result is, that in England women of the upper class are far more familiar than ours with the political work of the day, with the influences which govern the political world, and with the probable outcome of political struggles. They are in daily social intercourse with the leaders of every degree. They know what such men are thinking, saying, and planning, and have serious opinions, and can make them tell. That a very powerful part of the opposition to Home Rule is at this moment the social part and comes from women, few question. A concrete illustration of this is to be found in the current belief of London society that it is to "the duchesses" that Mr. Chamberlain's conversion from Radicalism to Toryism is to be ascribed. The same thing is said of a great many other Liberal Unionists. This being so, it is not surprising that a great body, if not by far the larger proportion, of women of high social and intellectual standing are ready to publish their hostility or indifference to any extension of the suffrage to their own sex. They do not see what they should gain by it, and do see plainly enough that, with every extension of the suffrage, their individual influence would decline. As matters stand today, they are in close communion with the political managers. A further extension of the suffrage would, by making management more difficult, end in putting it into the hands of men who, whatever their merits as managers might be, would certainly cease to be persons such as "one meets in society." In other words, management would probably pass, as it has passed here, to men who consider a college graduate a species of nincompoop, and a "literary fellow" the last person to intrust with the conduct of a campaign. To such men, the opinions of American women like Lady Stanley, Mrs. Mundella, Mrs. Huxley, and Mrs. Humphry Ward, would count, as they do count, for very little. In England they still count among practical men for a good deal.

HOT-WEATHER OPERA.

It is beginning to attract the notice of lovers of the fine arts that, coincidently with the warm summer weather in New York, there has arisen a new kind of entertainment. Buckle long ago attempted to trace the connection between climate and the arts, but the great historian never had the advantage of seeing New York, or even the United States, and his speculations were confined to arts brought to their perfection under the influence of the isothermal lines of Europe. It is obvious that his speculations were narrow, and that for the latitude and longitude of New York it is necessary to examine closely what we are actually doing in the way of musical or other art before we make any generalizations as to the influence of our climate in producing it. Without assuming at the outset that there is any causal connection between it and the heat, we beg to call our readers' attention to a particular branch of art which, for want of a better term, we may call hot-weather opera, inasmuch as it comes to its highest maturity and perfection in the summer.

Fashionable people think that the winter is the season of opera in New York, but in this, as in so many other things, fashionable people only show their extreme folly. Wagnerian opera or Italian opera there may

be in the winter, or comic opera, or even opéra-bouffe; but it is only when the thermometer is at 90 and humidity at 101, when all the fashionable people have gone away, and in the "close season" of the theatre, that opera really becomes popular, and the true characteristics of a genuinely local school of opera make themselves felt.

Hot-weather opera has now been for a long time in full blast at three theatres. At one "The Brigands" is given, at another "Clover," and at a third the "Oolah"—all tremendously successful. The "Oolah" we will refrain from criticising, not so much because we have not seen it—for the published accounts of it, and our familiarity with the histrionic method of the principal personage in it, would amply justify us in analyzing it without ever going near the theatre—but because the other two are quite enough. In them the hot-weather school is seen in perfection.

The original feature in hot-weather opera does not consist in the opera itself. This is, generally speaking, a foreign product, or, to be more accurate, there is a foreign product which is used as the basis of hot-weather opera. In the case of "The Brigands," the basis or substratum of the performance is an opera the music of which was written a good many years ago by a composer named Offenbach, and, if we are to believe the programme, the words of the English libretto are by Gilbert. It was in French one of the funniest of *opéras bouffes*. A band of brigands get possession of the clothes of the marriage escort of a princess, substitute the daughter of their chief for the princess, and then undertake to secure the latter's dowry. It is, however, a case of Greek meeting Greek, as the dowry has already been dissipated by the official having charge of the revenues. The music is pretty and abounds in good songs, such as the

"C'est le son de les bottes, de les bottes, de les bottes, de les bottes du premier Carabanier,"

and the very amusing ballad in which the finance minister describes how his unfortunate character has compelled him to steal all the money in the Treasury. But Offenbach is not funny enough for hot-weather opera. In its hot-weather English form, there is, in fact, about as much resemblance between the humor of "The Brigands" and that of his "Brigands" as there is between the wit of the horse-opera of Barnum and Bailey and that of a Wagner trilogy. The music and the libretto are both subordinated to antics and buffoonery which are really not those of the stage, but of the circus. To anybody who expected to see simply an English version of Offenbach's opera this is, at first, a little distracting. Instead of a song, we have a series of grins and grimaces; instead of the dialogue of the original, we have an abundance of what is so appropriately termed "gag"; instead of opéra-bouffe, we have an enormous amount of contortion and tumbling business. In fact, we very soon get the impression that the interest expected to be aroused is physical rather than dramatic.

"Clover" is perhaps more perfect in its way than "The Brigands." The original was written by Suppé, and, if produced a few years since, would have been given, like "Fatinitza" or "Boccaccio," as nearly like the original as possible. But, as produced now, it is as a vehicle for Mr. De Wolf Hopper, one of the best-trained clowns of the hot-weather stage. The opera is full of pretty music, but the centre of interest as it is now put on the stage is not the music, but Mr. Hopper, whose antics beggar description. Mr. Hopper can jump higher, fall flatter, roll faster, grin broader, and whoop and shriek louder than any leading operatic performer in the world; and the applause and laughter of the audience show that he knows what he is about. There are long scenes in "Clover" where Mr. Hopper absorbs the attention intended by Suppé to be divided among half-a-dozen different performers. One of his marked accomplishments is that of the old clown in the pantomime—he can be beaten and bruised to a jelly without injury. He is undoubtedly well padded—he could not sing in this species of opera if he were not. He is a strong and athletic man, or he could not perform such feats on the stage as he does. He literally fills the stage. It must be admitted that what we see and hear is not Suppé, but Hopper.

It is not our intention to complain of hot-weather opera at all. The audience likes it, and, however trying, it apparently agrees with the performers. There are a good many curious points for speculation concerning it. One is, why some of the other characters of the old pantomime are not introduced—Harlequin, for instance, and Columbine. Why should we only have the clown? Another is, why so many of the characters attempt to sing; another, why they do not introduce the old mirth-provoking appliances of the pantomime—the door that lets the pursued through, and suddenly turns into a brick wall in the pursuer's face; the mysterious and elusive luncheon-basket, the ubiquitous trap? Are not these full of wit too? Again, to recur to the first question of all, what is the connection between the "heated term" and this kind of opera? Perhaps it is that, at the season when physical exertion is most difficult, violent horse-play on the stage is most appreciated. Anybody can sing, even though the weather be warm. But there are only a few persons so endowed by nature that, after padding their bodies all over with thick cotton for safety of life and limb, they can make active gymnasts of themselves for three hours and keep their fellow-men laughing all the time. The audience appreciates the difficulty of playing the fool, and feels that it is more difficult, and therefore more honorable and laughable, to be a hot-weather fool than a winter fool.

Hot-weather opera is an established institution, and bids fair to drive out every other form of summer entertainment. The public likes it, and, what the public likes, it always will have. It is not a beautiful form of art, but it is our own, and as different from anything Offenbach or Suppé ever dreamt of as it is possible to be. It is just as Anglo-Saxon as grinning through horse-collars in Queen Elizabeth's time was; and a genuine New York hot-weather comedian could give "points" to any Elizabethan humorist that ever grinned.

LAND AND SOCIETY IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 23.

THE land panic in England—that is, the fear that English agriculture was definitively ruined by foreign competition—has greatly abated. The weather has been extremely fine this summer, so that the hay crop has not only been very great, but has been saved in perfect condition; and although wheat has been virtually given up as an English product, other things have done very well. The dairy farmers, in fact, have suffered very little if at all, in spite of the outcry raised a few years ago about the ruin wrought by American cheese. In counties like Cheshire, where I passed a few days, the effect of this competition, I was told, had been to improve greatly the process of manufacture by introducing creameries, to which the farmers contributed their milk to a common stock, and had the cheese made wholesale by the latest methods. The culture of fruit, too, has everywhere within easy reach of the great cities much increased, and the cheap sugar which has been the result of free trade, intensified by the ridiculous bounties paid by Continental governments to domestic refiners, has enormously stimulated the popular consumption of what the English call "jam," and we preserves. The gain of this for the poor in the towns, as far as enjoyment is concerned, whatever be the effect on their health, has been very great. Tens of thousands now are able to sweeten their heavy bread with marmalade, that most beloved of English delicacies, who never got a chance at it before. Curiously enough, too, the wide diffusion of oleomargarine has not only given the poor for the first time a really savory and wholesome substitute for butter, but has greatly improved the butter of the well-to-do. There used to be a good market for poorly made and even rancid butter, among people who had to have cheap butter or none at all; but oleomargarine has destroyed or greatly diminished it, and the producers have consequently been driven into making good butter, or, at all events, greatly improved butter, in order to find any market whatever.

These things, combined with considerable improvement in business among the manufacturers and miners, have done a good deal to revive the hopes of the agriculturists, but I cannot learn that there had been much more than a revival of hopefulness. Absolute improvement I could not hear of. The price of land has not risen except in the pretty region to the south of London, within fifty to one hundred miles of the city, where it is being largely held for what may be called building lots—that is, for villas with five to fifty acres of ground for ornamental purposes. Everywhere else it is either unsalable or only salable at an immense sacrifice. Rents have been reduced on the average 25 per cent., but this does not prevent a large number of farms being thrown on the landlord's hands. The English farmer, unlike his Irish brother, does not cling to the soil or wait to be evicted when he finds rents too high; he leaves incontinently. This difference, however, is partly to be accounted for by the fact that he puts nothing into permanent improvements on the farm. The English landlord, as a rule, does the fencing and draining, and keeps the buildings in repair, very much as the landlord of a city house does; while the Irish landlord, as a rule, does nothing at all but fix the rent and get it, if he can. But I am told that since the bad times began, a class of

farmers has grown up in England who approach more nearly to the Irish type—that is, who take or keep farms without capital and without much expectation of employing any labor on them except that of themselves and their families, and who will, therefore, probably cling to them as long as they can make a bare living out of them.

The exceptionally high price of land for villa residences in the neighborhood of London is an indirect result of the decline in the value of agricultural land, or, in other words, of the great fall of rents. The number of people who can afford to keep open house on a large place in the country and have large parties of friends staying with them during the shooting season, has greatly fallen off. But the love of country life among the English (and it is nowhere anything like so great as in England) has not fallen off, and the country place to which he cannot ask people freely to visit him is something to which an Englishman only reconciles himself under the pressure of stern necessity. The small place near London at which no shooting is expected, and to which people can be got to come from London for a day or two, generally "from Saturday to Monday," has come into the field as a very welcome compromise. It is possible at any time, by asking them long enough ahead, for a man who has a pleasant house within fifty miles of London to fill it for two nights at least with agreeable people, who will amuse each other and find enjoyment in the open air and the scenery, without taxing the host to find pleasures for them. Consequently, this sort of place is in great demand, particularly along the southern coast. In fact, great places are now what every lover of the picturesque must consider lamentably cheap; for being cheap and unsalable means that they are not lived in or cared for, and are destined in a large number of cases to go the way of so many old manor houses of an earlier date, and become the tumble-down and somewhat squalid abodes of hard-working farmers. People will not live in the country any longer without society, and society as it is enjoyed in great country houses is a terribly expensive thing.

That the county councils will in the long run probably affect the value of land, through making country life either more or less attractive, there is little doubt. Formerly the magistrates of the county who were able to put "J. P." to their names, governed the county as well as administered its smaller justice. This left the management of local affairs wholly in the hands of the local gentry, or "county families," as they are called, and they liked the work, and took a good deal of pride in it, and did it well, and it added to their local consideration. Now they have lost their administrative powers entirely, and retain only the prerogative of administering petty criminal justice. What will be the effect on their position? Sanguine people say that the traditional respect of the English people for the country gentleman is so strong that they will be sure to elect country gentlemen to the county councils whenever they can be got to serve, and that they will exercise in the councils a predominating influence, and will continue, therefore, to like being country gentleman as much as ever. But people who are not sanguine, and see the way universal suffrage is organized and managed in America, say that this is not true; that the "local manager" will begin to show himself in English county politics in due course of time without doubt, and that he will not be by any means a "nice man" in England any more than in America, and that he will make it his business to disgust the country gentleman with politics and get him out of it, as soon as he can; and that the country gentleman, when he finds himself completely excluded from the management of local affairs, will care less and less for land and live more and more in the city, or, in other words, become more and more like the Italian and French gentry, to whom the country is a social waste. If this should prove all true, of course land would soon everywhere get down to its purely agricultural value, to what it would rent for, or to what a man who worked it could make out of it.

But, even if true, it is still a good way off. A fine place in the country which can be crowded with guests, and which can possibly supply them with plenty of game, is still what nine Englishmen out of ten in professional or commercial life are striving for. It is the great sign in this country of having "arrived," as the French say; and as long as this lasts, hundreds of thousands of pounds of new money will every year go into land. I cannot, in fact, see what is to stop this process except the disappearance of beauty from the English landscape, or of good household servants from the English labor markets. It is the want of the latter which will probably always prevent any real reproduction of English country life on a great scale in America, no matter how numerous our great fortunes may be. No Englishman or Englishwoman would encounter the cares of a great country house if so many of them devolved as directly on the master or mistress as they would in America. In fact, English social life, with its matchless comforts, if not its matchless splendor, depends for its perpetuation to an extraordinary degree on the excellence of its servant class.

PHYSICAL EXERCISE IN FRENCH EDUCATION.

PARIS, July 17, 1889.

THE idea of introducing athletic sports into education is of quite recent growth in France. Yet scarcely had the "Committee for the Propagation of Physical Exercise in Education" taken the initiative a year ago, when another society, under the title of "National League of Physical Education," followed on its heels. They differ widely in theory, however. The National League proposes to introduce physical exercise *officially* into all the schools, colleges, and *lycées;* the Committee propose nothing short of remodelling, through the medium of *voluntary* athletic exercises, the system of French education. The former sees in physical exercise but a physical result; the latter, a means of emancipating the school-boy.

The emancipation of the French school-boy may seem innocent enough to those who inhabit countries where the pedagogic system is based on liberty and independence. In France the motto is authority and respect: authority on the part of the masters in enforcing discipline; on the part of the pupil, respect for the never-to-be questioned rules. And this motto does not apply alone to the education received in religious establishments, but to that imparted in the *lycées* of the University. A foreigner cannot form an idea of the typical old French scholastic life—of its *ennui*, its monotony, its austerity. No idea of it can be given in words. One needs to have experienced it, upheld by the thought that it had a limit, to know what it means. Tasks that would stupefy an adult brain, meals eaten in silence, recreation spent in vague wanderings through the yard, hours of study and respite, were governed alike by a rigid discipline partaking of the cloister and the prison. And this life lasted for years, with a week's holiday at Easter and two months after August. Then, when the full programme of the baccalaureate had been crammed into the young student, his education was declared complete, and he received his diploma from the University. Who considered that, during all those years of preparation which had brought him to man's estate, he had not been allowed to assert his individuality or to act for himself in a single instance?

Since Napoleon I. this régime of education has been going on *sostenuto* up to the present time, when the model scholastic system is publicly suspected of not being quite what it should be. Mothers—they play a great part in French education—were the first to remark that boys were overworked. Even their hot-house-plant appearance was alarming; a remedy was imperative. Then gymnastics were imposed a little more energetically than in the preceding generations, when twice a week pupils were called to order by some bullying ex-fireman to flourish dumb-bells in measure and to jump methodically from a spring-board.

In this awakened interest in favor of physical exercise with classic tuition, the chief recommendation that made it at the outset acceptable was that it would serve as a continued preparation for military service, which every Frenchman must bear in mind. It would make him stronger and more accustomed to discipline. The National League, official intermediary of the movement in question, bases its campaign on this consideration. Doing away in a measure with gymnastics, recognized as almost useless as now practised in schools, it advocates, like its predecessor, coöperative diversion. Only, the prescribed games are enforced in a Spartan-like spirit: the boy is reminded that care of his physique is necessary to the worthy fulfilment of his duty to his country. If he has more opportunity to offset the fatigue of mental training than before, he is also more *enrégimenté* than ever. So far as his moral education is benefited, he might as well be in the *Bataillon Scholaire*, playing soldier with a reduced copy of the regulation gun. It was remarked by several independent spectators who were present at the athletic festival given by the National League in the Tuileries Garden this summer, that the character of the sports was too official to pass as a manifestation from a generation that has turned over a new leaf. The performance of the boys seemed much more that of some *fête de la raison*, with Biceps as the occult deity, than a summer day's recreation to celebrate a step made towards idyllic vigor and manliness. One forgives the somewhat biting sarcasms of the English when, on such occasions, they declare that, apart from military exercises, the French are unfit for the sports which have made the English what they boast of being.

It is, however, by the imitation of this part of English school life that the Committee for the Propagation of Physical Exercise intend to begin the metamorphosis of French education. The introduction of English games, with all their freedom, understood in a broad and liberal spirit, is the starting-point of the reformation. It must be accomplished little by little; the edifice cannot be demolished all at once. It is not only a matter of emancipating pupils, but their masters as well. Until the former collaborate with the latter, and until the relations of the higher authorities with professors cease to be mandatory, a great deal has to be done. For it is well to repeat that the religious educational establishments, so often pointed out as suffering from what is called centralization, are not a whit more cramped by it than the

University itself. Will the religious establishments ever consent to accept the educational motto of M. Jules Simon, President of the Committee—"*Dieu, Liberté, Patrie*"? My opinion is that they will have recourse to many shifts to disguise from themselves the ugliness of the middle word. The University will reject one, and that will not be the second word of the motto; for already, judging by a speech I heard M. Jules Simon make the other day, liberty would not be so objectionable to the University if routine had not put it out of the question.

As this speech was delivered in the amphitheatre of the Sorbonne, the effect was impressive. The occasion was a distribution of prizes and medals awarded to pupils of schools, Parisian, provincial, and colonial, who had taken part in the first athletic competition instituted by the Committee for the Propagation of Physical Exercises. Instead of a Platonic development of the theorem "Mens sana in corpore sano," the smilingly subversive orator, despite the presence of the rector of the Academy by his side, passed in review the old French scholastic life, offered it as prey to the laughter of his auditors, even made light of the baccalaureate, likened the candidate to a horse performing a long and tedious journey, upon whose back a fresh burden is placed at every mile-stone, and who no sooner reaches the goal than he shakes off the load, rolls himself in the sand, and, with a neigh of relief, forgets all about it. Neither did the young athletes receive their Sèvres cup or their silver medal with simple words of commendation for having acquitted themselves well in the new programme. The President did not mince matters; he told the boys that the physical debility remarked in schools was nothing compared to their negativeness of character, and that henceforth, instead of being simple catalogues of mixed lore, they would be on the road to become responsible beings.

As might be supposed, none but an independent lay school could have taken the lead in the move projected by the Committee for the Propagation of Physical Exercise in Education. M. Pierre de Coubertin, who is chief instigator of it, and who spent several months in England studying the school system, found in the principal of the École Monge—noted for innovations in teaching—an able ally. M. Godart had the courage to undertake what other superintendents had not the courage to listen to. He proceeded with practical discretion; one point only of English education was adopted at first—games and exercises as practised across the Channel. These, he considered, created the wanted enthusiasm, and laid the foundations of that social hierarchy peculiar to English schools. The fact that the École Monge is situated in Paris and not surrounded by green fields, was not to be a hindrance to the experiments. So, during the past year, the boys have been taken twice a week to the playgrounds, riding-school, or river for boating, choosing themselves what the sport shall be for the day. Out of the nine hundred pupils of the school, not more than three hundred prefer to remain at work rather than enjoy the opportunities thus offered them. So far, the experiments towards freedom have proved successful. Already in several forms the *maître d'étude*, or usher, is replaced by a delegate or monitor elected by the boys. In the field, the captains, if not yet armed with the absolute authority they are to have, are respectfully listened to, and frequently consulted by their schoolmates gathered under them. It is noticeable that the intriguing spirit of the French school-boy, so apparent in his behavior towards the ushers, quite ceases to exist when having to account to a companion whose own merit has raised him to a superior. He understands that hierarchy is indispensable where liberty exists, just as his principal conceded that sport cannot exist if the boy is held too tight. The École Monge, with its younger sister, the École Alsatienne (founded after the war for children of Alsatian families who adopted France as their country), are the two pillars of the reform.

Some dissatisfied minds have made the discovery that the plan of reform in education applies only to the favored classes. Not at all. It begins, it is true, with a superior public—if one may so express it; but the revolution could not well have begun otherwise. In a work where example is all-important, it is good to convert first those who are to set it. In course of time each class is expected to feel in its measure the influence of what to-day is inoculated in those who are favorably disposed. There is another great obstacle to the initiation being general at the outset—namely, the label of the imported example. The term English education does not please everybody, spite of apparent Anglomania in France. Certainly in the spheres of high life nothing will be said against it, but in the middle classes the spirit of cosmopolitan tolerance has not extended to England. An innovation coming thence will be received with resentment. In the reasoning of these people, English games will have the objectionable appearance of a fashion stinging to their national pride. Not fully grasping the mechanism of the reform in view, they will not understand why cricket or foot-ball should take the place of prisoner's base. Needless to answer them that they cannot challenge a foreign team to play against them prisoner's base; the label is English, and that is sufficient. On the other hand, coming from America, it is quite another thing. The borrowed institution will pass under a recommendation of scientific practicality. That will make the French quite overlook the fact that it is not indigenous to the soil. I may be betraying a secret (if so, let it bear testimony to the ever-increasing sympathy of France for America), but I am told that when the moment comes, the inspirers of the movement, excellent augurs that they are, will announce to the recalcitrant neophytes: "We are going to play as they play in America!"

Preparatory to the Congress for the Propagation of Physical Exercises in Education, held last month, the Committee addressed a circular letter containing a series of questions to the principals of colleges and institutes in the United States, Canada, England, and her colonies. Ninety schools, colleges, and universities of the Union sent in their quota of information. Two principals only were of the opinion that athletic games were unfavorable, though they did not assign reasons for such a belief. It would have been interesting to know if it was based on a consideration that has seldom been broached in America—whether a high measure of physical activity tends to postpone the period of mental maturity. In France the athletic problem has been viewed in this light, but as the subjects on whom experiments are to be made generally show an exaggerated precociousness instead of a tardy development, and as the uproar raised over what was considered an undue forcing of the youthful mind is still very recent, general opinion does not seem very apprehensive of boys becoming boys once more, and of a risk being incurred that the coming generation will turn out overgrown children of twenty as the penalty of too well cultivated muscle. A period of exaggeration is frequently followed by an exaggerated reaction, and we need not be surprised if, after the long neglect of the physical in education during a period in which the only aim was to stock minds after a university conception, the pursuit of physical development should be run into the ground. Nothing can be better if physical development is left optional and all form of militarism in its manifestations religiously avoided. The key to emancipation will then be in the hands of youth itself. "I defy any one to prevent a boy who is physically active and sound from having ideas of his own," said M. Jules Simon. And such is the desideratum: a little more personal judgment and individual initiative. If the "atrophy of will" in this generation has been pointed out, it was not meant to imply that patriotic feeling is lukewarm, or the spirit of duty rarer, but, what is very unflattering to a generation that prides itself on being *dans le mouvement*, that there is a lack of ambition for action.

The system of education is held responsible for this passiveness; yet, how could it be otherwise when all the anticipations of the [illegible] that follows school days are compassed by generic titles—the army, the law, the administration? Add to this the habitual desire of parents, as some one so well expressed it, to push their sons from one harness into another, and it is clear how the young man chooses his career with a degree of passiveness that looks like fatalistic resignation. But it is just to say that in many instances education is not solely responsible for this apathy. In France as in several other countries of Europe, the creeds of caste exert a strong pressure. Progressivism has not yet taught "the family" that careers are no longer to be classed as noble and non-noble.

When new principles of liberty and hierarchy shall have been introduced, through the medium of games, in the life of pupils, and when there shall be established a closer and more intimate relation between these and their masters, then there will have been created a social atmosphere hitherto unknown in French colleges. The boy will learn to measure his own level, and to decide for himself what he is best fitted for in life. Then the "atrophy of will" will tend to disappear. Of the young men of wealth, more will choose a path where less is expected of convenient opportunities. In other branches, if the army of Government officials does not grow less, less numerous will be the dissatisfied abstainers whose grievance is that the Government is not to their liking. On the other hand, if we do not presume to say that debating societies—a complement of the school reform—will prove a training-ground for patriots more tolerant and liberal, at least it is to be hoped that in the field of sport may be accomplished what no reform of party could bring about—the hearty fusion between the elements of a young generation heretofore ignorant of and ignoring each other.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

THE TOMB OF PHARIS.

ATHENS, July 5, 1889.

THE great tomb of Pharis near Spata, at the opening of which I had hoped to assist, has proved to be one of the most fortunate discoveries of late years; but I was unfortunately called to Crete by political disturbances, and missed the *première* of it. It has been found to contain objects of gold and silver as well as of bronze, the importance of which can hardly be estimated at once, but which will, I believe, revolutionize the current ideas of early Greek art. A first examination of the find in the restoring room of the Museum, prior to the arrangement of the objects in their cases, and on the eve of my quitting Athens, leaves me

still a little confused on certain points; but the minute and exact relation of the excavator, Mr. Tsoundas, will soon be published, and I must be contented with the pleasure of giving publicity to the main facts.

The tomb is one of the class of Spata, and like the more important of the Achaian series at Mycenæ, with the exception that, as I am told by Tsoundas, the great chamber is, contrary to the practice in most of those tombs, surrounded by a series of loculi in which there had been interments. But I will give the note in which Tsoundas replies to my inquiry as to the manner of burial, a point almost as important as the nature of the contents of the graves:

"The tomb of Pharis has, like those of Mycenæ, the form of a tholos [commonly called bee-hive tombs], and contains, exceptionally, a grave dug in the soil a little to the left of the centre, and similar in form and size to the ordinary Greek tombs and to those of to-day. In this grave, in which I found the vases of gold and the greater part of the other objects, there were neither ashes nor bones. I believe that the dead was not burned, but that the bones have been reduced to dust by the lapse of time. Outside of the grave thus dug, the earth [floor] of the tomb was covered with ashes and charcoal, which may have been the remains of the funeral piles on which the bodies of the dead were burned; but it is also probable that they came from the victims which they offered up in honor of the dead. The question would be answered if I had been able to determine the presence of human bones so burned; but I found only fragments of bones utterly insufficient to determine it. It may be, then, that the dead buried outside of the grave were burned, but it cannot be proved."

The contents of the grave and the loculi comprise many objects of bronze, some implements of familiar form and some new: a knife of peculiar and puzzling form; a lance of most admirable workmanship and mounted in a manner quite unique with bone; weapons of more than usual elaborateness of make and finish; a large number of amethyst beads; some rings, of which one is like the gold rings found in the Schliemann graves, with engraving in gold of designs of Eastern character, and some evidently worn by women, of which one has a gem set in it, and one or more of bronze; other objects in ivory, etc., of the kind already made familiar to us from Spata; the remains of silver cups mounted in gold, of most exquisite workmanship, but of which the silver is almost entirely corroded away; fifty "island stones," some of which show the most delicate and elaborate engraving, but do not otherwise differ from those found in the other tombs described in my last; and, finally and of the highest importance, a sword of the peculiar gold-encrusted workmanship of which the only examples hitherto found were in the Schliemann graves, and two cups of pure gold, of the workmanship of the best of those found in the same collection, of riveted work, but with designs in repoussé of a character of which we have, so far as I know, no other example. The cups are evidently intended as a pair, and one is surrounded with a scene of wild-cattle hunting, in which the cattle are designed and executed in a manner unlike anything in known Greek archaic art for freedom and spirit of action as well as truthfulness to nature, and the other contains a pendant of the cattle reduced to domestication. The pictorial qualities of the two designs are thus, it will be seen, at variance in the very conception with all archaic art of the range which has been seen to come into the horizon of Greece, because this pictorial and naturalistic character is opposed to the hieratic traditions and all the borrowed conventionalism which enter so largely into the composition of the earliest art we know as properly Greek. The very idea of the making two designs as pendants—one all action and combat, full of energy, a bull goring one of the hunters and another tossing a second into the air, and a third bull plunging into a net of ropes; with the other tranquil and peaceful, the cattle grouped in an almost Dutch composition, with the herdsman tying one of them by the foot; landscape backgrounds, trees, etc.—is unlike anything we know of the tendencies of any ancient art, except as it may be indicated by the designs on Cretan coins, and there only to a very limited extent. These designs have nothing in common with the heraldic designs of the most of the engraved stones found with them and in the other tombs about Mycenæ, to which I have alluded as the island stones, but there are two or three among the magnificent collection now in the Athens Museum which show the elements of the same pictorial design, while the delineation of the animals and the commonly visible difference in the treatment of the human figure, in comparison with that of the animals so much inferior (as is the case, for the rest, in most archaic art), sufficiently point out the relationship of the two. The common source of the two was indicated in what I had to say of the great relief of the Lion Gate, and here we can see additional confirmation.

I have not gone through the list of objects found, for many merely serve to establish community of epoch and technique with other deposits. There are also some remains of iron implements, but so corroded as only to serve as evidence of the presence of that metal. It will be remembered that the absence of iron in the Schliemann graves has led to conjectures of the most contradictory character, some considering it as proof that the interment was prior to the knowledge of iron, others that it was so late that iron was of no value to the diggers of those graves. I think we can now solve the entire problem with greater conclusiveness than I had ever hoped to arrive at. The discovery in this tomb, and in a relation which must be considered as demonstrating the fact of its being their original interment, of the objects which have most puzzled the archæological world, viz., the gold-encrusted swords and the cups of gold of that peculiar primitive technique which have been found only hitherto in the Schliemann tombs, must, I think, be accepted as conclusive of their being of an art familiar to the Achaians, to whom these graves belonged.

But the Schliemann graves are not Achaian graves, either in the manner of construction or interment; and the finding in the former of objects which are neither Achaian nor archaic, such as the masks of gold and certain barbaric gold work which is akin to that found at Hallstadt in the Danube Valley (v. Collignon,' Arch. Grecque'), or to that found by Stefani in the Crimea; the vases of alabaster of a form and workmanship so modern that it is difficult to believe them of a provenance anterior to the Christian era, though they probably are of the Macedonian; the medley of work of various types, and evidently of various later epochs with that which is identical with what is now found in the oldest Greek tombs we know of, and nowhere else, are strong indications that the deposit of Mycenæ is a late one. Long ago I pointed out that the structures around the graves, unmistakably houses of a rude and barbarous character, were made up with the aid of the débris of the ancient and the classical cities, and must therefore be subsequent to the ruin of Mycenæ by the Argives. I was met by the unquestionable fact that the objects buried were of a great and unassignable antiquity, as if that were any reply to the undeniable lateness of the structures indicated. The condition of the skeletons and the manner of burial showed that it clearly was not Greek; the miniature Druidical circle above the graves was an indication of Celtic agency; the nature of the grave was an indication that concealment was the object; the fact that the principal personage, as indicated by the distinction of the burial (Schliemann's "Agamemnon"), was a woman, is *pro tanto* suggestive of a northern barbarism; the fact that there was no iron in a deposit so largely composed of weapons as to refute the hypothesis that this could have been the burial of a warrior with his personal armory (had it not been a woman), pointed to its being merely a treasure deposit, since we find iron with the same objects in their undoubtedly original interment; while the entirely non-Greek character of all the objects found in the graves which are necessarily referred to the authors of the burial, compels us to seek a foreign attribution for it. Add to this that in all the Achaian tombs which have been found to contain the objects buried with the dead, there have been found island stones, and none in the Schliemann graves, though they were found in the earth outside of the graves, together with the fragments of the so-called Mycenæ pottery and other articles originally contained in the earth in which the graves were dug, but not in the graves (the stones having no value to a barbarian eye), and we can form the opinion that the people whose graves these were had no care for art, but had collected what had an intrinsic value in their estimation.

Among the objects, either of gold or pottery, in the entire series of graves which can be certainly assigned to the authors of these interments, there is not one which has any relation to any Greek art of any epoch, while there are analogies with several barbaric finds; but the difficulty of placing the swords of bronze inlaid with gold and the gold cups found in such profusion, and which so well illustrate the epithet of "golden Mycenæ," has always prevented an assignment to any epoch within the limits of the prehistoric. This difficulty the Pharis discovery at length enables us to overcome, and to my mind it completes the demonstration that the Schliemann graves are the work of a barbaric tribe who had, in the time between the fall of Mycenæ and the establishment of the Roman rule, invaded the Peloponnesus, and temporarily established themselves in the always strong fortifications of Mycenæ, where they met some fatal disaster by defeat or pestilence, which caused the death of several of their ruling family, who were buried, according to the custom of more than one barbaric people, with their treasures, derived mainly from the pillage of temple and other treasure and (now I add) tombs, which I did not formerly suspect, because the puzzling objects had not to a satisfactory extent been found in tombs. This theory is the only one which will account for all the facts, and I hope to be enabled at no distant time to demonstrate its validity fully, and with the aid of illustrations which I cannot attempt here.

The historic clue is given us in the passage of Diodorus which tells us that Pyrrhus employed as mercenaries the Galatians; that these mercenaries, discovering that the royal tombs in Greece contained treasures, set about pillaging them, and that the King, not being able to dispense with their services, was unable to stop the sacrilege. We know that these Galatians (Gauls) invaded Greece on their own account, and when the treasure-hunting mania was on them, they were not likely to be ignorant of the fact that Mycenæ had many great tombs. That the robbery of these huge structures had

never before been practised, at least in an open way, is clear from the fact that the Gauls of Pyrrhus found their treasure intact, and on the other hand we find all the great tombs in the neighborhood of Mycenæ plundered as well as the greater part of the less conspicuous ones, which are, unlike the great ones, carefully concealed under the earth, burrowed in the side of the mountain, and apparently planned for concealment, or at least not for display, while the great tombs are conspicuous and always partly above ground. That the Pharis tomb escaped is due probably to its position in a remote province and its isolation amidst a warlike population. Pharis had, moreover, disappeared as a city before the epoch of Pyrrhus, and has left no renown.

We know that the robbing of Greek tombs was practised down into the time of the Roman occupation; and a very curious confirmation of the hypothesis that the late inhabitants of Mycenæ were tomb-robbers, is found in the fact that Tsoundas discovered in one of the most miserable of the mortar and rubble houses of the lower part of the city a small collection of the least valuable objects which are found in the tombs about the city; while in the ruins of the palace which I described in my former letter on Mycenæ no object of that epoch was met with. It is to be hoped that the deliberations of the Archæological Society of Athens will result in the decision to clear entirely the site of Mycenæ from the débris of its repeated demolitions, and give us what is left of the fragments of the most glorious epoch of Greek existence, though the least known to history. W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

THE TEMPLES AT AGRIGENTUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have no theory as to the placing of Greek temples, and much of the reasoning of "N. J. B.," in his communication in the *Nation* of June 27, seems very strong. My visit to Agrigentum (1885) is more recent than his, however, and I must call in question the accuracy of his memory in some particulars. The description of the site of the city as "built on one long hillside sloping up about eight feet in one hundred from the Mediterranean, the nearest point of the old city having been about a mile and a half from the sea," is not at all in accordance with my recollection; nor that the temples of Concord and Lacinian Juno were "on a slight elevation, the scarped face of which forms the wall in that place." As I sat in my room in the Hôtel des Temples, I looked over the lower slopes of the city, with their temples, to the sea, I should have said six or eight miles away, but the Cyclopædia says three miles. But that is not the important point. The elevation upon which the temples stand may almost be called a ridge, falling away slightly, if I remember aright, towards the city, and towards the sea very steep and abrupt, nearly perpendicular to a depth of at least fifty feet, and then sloping down into a somewhat deep valley, separating it from the higher land beyond.

I remember this with great distinctness because, while we were in the temple of Concord, our attention was attracted by a pleasing warbling sound, and, looking down the cliff, we saw a shepherd boy standing with his legs crossed, just as in ancient representations, leaning on his crook and piping to his sheep—a genuine bit of antiquity. The scene fixed itself vividly upon my memory, and I am sure that no position could more completely support Mr. Stillman's thesis that the temples were located with a view to defence. I remember thinking at the time how strong for defence the city was on that side. The assertion that there was "nothing like an acropolis" at the upper part of the city, is equally conflicting with my memory. The most striking object, as one approaches the city by the railway, and on the way from the station, is the acropolis (called, I think, *Empedocle*), considerably elevated above the modern city, and quite steep towards the outside, although not so much so as the place where the temples stand, along the southern wall. William F. Allen.

Madison, Wis., July 28, 1889.

[Prof. Allen's recollection is confirmed by the plan of Agrigentum on page 78, vol. i, of Smith's 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Geography.'—Ed. Nation.]

THE SOUTH AND ITS BARBARIANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of July 18 I find a letter from "A Southern Pastor," who, though a minister of the Gospel of Peace, calmly defends lynch law, as applied to his colored "brethren in Christ Jesus." He says: "But with regard to lynching for rape, it is indeed a desperate remedy; but what other can be used for so desperate a disease?" And again: "It does, indeed, reveal a state of civilization but little removed from barbarism, but it is the barbarism of a race forced into contact with civilization, and civilization must protect itself by methods which would not be needed if the barbarism were not there."

That is to say, civilized Southerners, having formerly imported barbarism into their midst under pretence of Christianizing it (while, of course, utilizing its brute strength in the service of their own laziness), and finding that barbarians, when treated as barbarians, remain barbarians still, now endeavor to protect their own precious civilization by methods which are absolute barbarism. The logic of the worthy pastor is certainly very strange. Did it never occur to him that, as civilized Christians, it is the Southerners' duty to elevate this barbarism by at least Christian and civilized methods? How can they expect to teach the "brutal savages" a respect for law and justice by a systematic violation of this same law and justice? It is as though one should attempt to teach honesty to a thief by stealing from him what little he might honestly possess.

Wm. Schuyler.

Webster Grove, Mo., July 31.

Notes.

A. Lovell & Co. will publish next month 'The Honors of the Empire State in the War of the Rebellion,' by Thomas S. Townsend.

In October, Ginn & Co. will bring out a 'History of the Roman People,' by Prof. William F. Allen of the University of Wisconsin, as a substitute for the second part of Myers's 'Outlines of Ancient History.'

Thomas Whittaker will shortly have ready a second edition of King's 'Classical and Foreign Quotations.'

The Rev. Henry C. McCook, Vice-President of the Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, is prepared to issue his natural history of the habits and industry of our orb-weaving spider fauna, under the title 'American Spiders and their Spinningwork.' It will be profusely illustrated—mostly from pen-and-ink designs, to judge from the prospectus, but also, in the third and last volume, by tinted lithography. Five hundred copies will be the limit of the edition, to be sold by subscription by the author himself (Philadelphia, 19th and Race Streets).

The Dean of Salisbury has performed a real service in extracting 'Characters and Episodes of the Great Rebellion' from Clarendon's History and Autobiography (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). The characters, as may be supposed, greatly outnumber the episodes, and for this reason an index was especially called for, but one must hunt what he seeks in the table of contents. We judge from a comparison of the texts that Dean Boyle has had the advantage of Macray's fine edition of the 'History of the Rebellion,' issued from the same press last year, but he makes no mention of it, which is all the stranger because he ought to have invited his readers to drink more deeply at the original fountain. He might well, too, have numbered his extracts in accordance with that edition, whereas he simply acknowledges the book and not the section or paragraph. These trifling drawbacks seem to us to bear a psychological relation to the Dean's Introduction of four pages without a breathing-space. The volume is beautifully printed, and is admirably calculated for private enjoyment or for reading in our higher schools.

It is of good omen that 'Caspar's Directory of the American Book, News and Stationery Trade' (Milwaukee: C. N. Caspar) has for a frontispiece a likeness of the late Frederick Leypoldt. The execution is up to the standard implied in this homage to an unwearied bibliographer. The Directory proper fills 570 pages in well-chosen type with a bold face. There follows a digest of trade-lists of the American book-publishers—*i. e.*, "an index according to subjects, with cross-references"; a similar guide to the stationers, etc.; a gazetteer of the trade, or "geographical classification"—about 400 pages; an alphabetical directory of the trade by classes—200 pages in close triple columns; a classification of the periodical literature of the United States and Canada; a long list of practical bibliographies; and finally a technical vocabulary in English, French, German, Italian, Dutch, Latin, Greek, etc., under one alphabet. We feel certain that so much well-directed and intelligent labor will find its reward among those immediately interested in such a compilation.

E. J. Brill of Leyden has published Part III. of 'A Classified List of all simple and compound Cuneiform Ideographs occuring in the texts hitherto published, with their Assyro-Babylonian equivalents, phonetic values, etc.,' compiled by Rudolph E. Brunnow, Ph.D. The work thus brought to a completion is a monument of patience and industry. It is furnished with a number of valuable indices, among them a list of non-Semitic verbal forms, which shows that Dr. Brunnow is not smitten with the unbelief, now so fashionable, in the existence of the Sumero-Akkadian language. It is a pity that the author did not push his index-making a little further, and furnish a list of meanings to the Assyrian and Akkadian words quoted in his book; such a list would have been welcomed by all Assyrologists. The work is a standard one, and must be in the hands of all scholars engaged in cuneiform research.

The Bureau of Education is issuing in rapid succession its histories of education in the several States. That on Georgia, the last noticed by us, is now followed up by one on South Carolina, by Colyer Meriwether; Florida, by

George Cary Bush; and Wisconsin, by Wm. F. Allen and David E. Spencer. They are illustrated like the rest of the series.

Mr. John Fiske, in his 'Beginnings of New England,' has reopened the old sore between Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Mr. S. S. Rider, in his Providence *Book Notes* for August 3, comes to the defence of Samuel Gorton in his customary trenchant manner.

A meritorious piece of work is Mr. George C. Wilson's brochure on 'Town and City Government in Providence' (Providence: Tibbitts & Preston), well fortified by authorities. We may mention in connection with it 'The River Towns of Connecticut: A Study of Wethersfield, Hartford, and Windsor,' by Charles M. Andrews, in the seventh series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.

We ought some weeks ago to have called attention to Mr. Samuel Thurber's paper in the Syracuse *Academy* for May, on the "Annotation of Texts for School Use," a forcible protest against this practice as being an impediment to the enjoyment of literature for its own sake. "Annotation, at its best," says Mr. Thurber, "contemplates erudition. The school does not contemplate erudition. This is the fatal incompatibility. In the high court of pedagogy it should be ground for a divorce. . . . The teacher's function is not erudition, and he should not dally with it, that is, *as teacher*, or allow its aims and methods to be in the least degree his aims and methods." If we are not mistaken, this principle has a wider application than the writer contemplates in his paper. The highest improvement in collegiate instruction in the future seems to us to lie in the direction of a division between learning for the sake of culture and learning for the sake of erudition. The elective system makes such a division both possible and easy.

In the sixty-eighth annual report of the Mercantile Library of this city, we read not only that 140 copies of 'Robert Elsmere' and 62 copies of 'John Ward, Preacher' were necessary to supply the demand, but that 35 copies of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' and 26 of Motley's 'Correspondence' had to be purchased.

Apropos of the recent erection by the city of Paris of a monument to Étienne Dolet, *Le Livre* for July has a paper describing a rare book, Dolet's translation and own master-printer edition of Cicero's 'Familiar Epistles' (Lyons, 1542). Dolet's body was, four years later, after execution, consumed by fire, and his books with it. This one has also been through the flames, though not fatally damaged. M. Vingtrinier, however, does not regard it as a brand plucked from the Paris bonfire of 1546, but connects it with the library of Jean II. de Tournes, which was burned in a Catholic outbreak at Lyons in September, 1567.

A novel publication, a Spanish children's monthly magazine, *La Edad de Oro*, has just been started by José Martí and A. Da Costa Comez, at No. 77 William Street. It is illustrated.

The recent return of M. Jules Borelli to France leads the *Indépendance Belge* to give a concise account of his four years' journey of exploration in Eastern Africa. His starting-point was Obock, a French dependency on the Gulf of Aden, whence he made his way with some difficulty to Shoa, the southernmost of the petty States formerly subject to the King of Abyssinia. There he turned southward to gain the source of the river Omo, whose course it was the principal object of his journey to trace. He claims to have found this in a forest called Babbia, at the junction of several mountain-drains, and to have followed it to the Lake Schambara, or Samburu, in the Galla country. This lake, doubtless the one recently visited by Graf Teleki and named by him Lake Rudolf, he describes as very shallow, surrounded by reedy banks, and without an outlet. He also states that it is below the level of the Victoria Nyanza, into which a stream from Samburu has been said to flow. If M. Borelli's observations should prove to be correct (and it must be said that they do not agree with those of other travellers), another of the disputed questions of African geography will have been settled, for the river Omo has been claimed by some as one of the sources of the Nile, while others have represented it as flowing into the Indian Ocean under the name of Jub.

An obvious slip of the pen on the part of Dr. Hartshorne, and oversight in proof-reading, led to the attribution of Morton's 'Crania Americana' to Dr. Caspar Wistar, in the last paragraph of the letter on p. 94 of last week's *Nation*, entitled "Works on Human Anatomy."

—Volumes 7 and 8 of Stedman and Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature' (Chas. L. Webster & Co.) are still occupied with Part iii. of the "Literature of the Republic." Leading off with Dr. O. W. Holmes, who was born in 1809, they close with writers born as late as 1832—the arrangement being as heretofore by seniority. As will be inferred, both the period of the anti-slavery agitation and that of the civil war tinge the present series of extracts, from the mistaken and falsified "Cotton is King" calculations of J. H. Hammond and A. T. Bledsoe, through Sumner's "Crime against Kansas," Sanborn's characterization of John Brown, Phillips's ranging himself under the hitherto pro-slavery flag of the Union, Alexander Stephens's making slavery the corner-stone of the Confederacy, Sheridan's account of his Winchester ride, Sherman's picture of the march to the sea, Grant's simple tale of the surrender at Appomattox, and Beecher's sermon on the death of Lincoln, to Greeley's manful standing by his action for the release of Jeff Davis. There is, perhaps, quite as much history as literature in all this, but it is the merit of the 'Library' that so much of the national life has designedly been caught up in it—preserved, but not mummified, for it will quicken the next generation of readers if not our own. If we should complain of any defect in representation, it would be in the case of Stephen A. Douglas, who is allowed only one extract, and that from his loyal utterances in the face of the rebellion. Some specimen of his Jacksonian vulgarity, his squatter-sovereignty sophistry, his debates with Lincoln, would have been useful. There is a relatively small amount of biographic portraiture, as in Schurz's summing up of Clay, Dana's estimate of Greeley, etc. A fresh instalment of "Noted Sayings" is given, chiefly political; there is a brief anthology consisting of negro "spirituals" in addition to S. C. Foster's household songs, and another of songs and ballads of the civil war. The tariff cuts but a slender figure in these volumes, yet we are glad that the editors have embalmed Mr. Isaac Edwards Clarke's wonderful tirade against British policy as opposed to American industry, under cover of a public document on "Industrial and High Art Education in the United States," now four years old.

—Much the most space assigned to anybody (37 pages) is put at Mr. Lowell's disposal, and here, while the selections in prose and verse are fairly representative, it is to be noticed that his elder muse is drawn upon far more extensively than his later. Walt Whitman is certainly given the benefit of the doubt when displayed in 13 pages, of which the greater part resembles rhythmical prose renderings of foreign original poetry. There is a happy selection from Cabot's 'Emerson' as to the sage's reading and use of books and consciously scrappy style, and that from Judd's 'Margaret' could hardly be bettered. Dr. Hale's 'Man Without a Country' is cleverly epitomized. Miss Delia Bacon's fatal hobby finds a place. The sole extract from the writings of Prof. W. D. Whitney relates to spelling reform—to his perfect content, we do not doubt. The late Michael Heilprin is commemorated by a passage from his 'Historical Poetry of the Ancient Hebrews' touching the authorship of the Psalms. This section of the 'Library' contains, besides, a great many names well forgotten and obscure, with such examples as justify their fate. One is struck, too, with the number who wrote poetry while known altogether or principally for their prose. Thus, a poem by Gen. Frémont seems almost a sport. The portraits, as heretofore, are very unequal in merit; some appear to be here reproduced for the first time.

—In connection with the review of Edward Fizgerald's Life which we print this week, it is proper to refer to the lines which Browning, in a moment of passion, has addressed to him. Browning thought himself aggrieved by a passage in these Letters in which Fitzgerald said that the death of Mrs. Browning was "rather a relief," and thanked God that there were to be "no more Aurora Leighs." The editor of the volume, Mr. Wright, has humbly apologized, in the *Athenæum*, for his oversight in allowing these words to stand in the text. Of Browning's verses, it is enough to say that their vulgarity would have been inexcusable had he been justly incensed, and that their publication for the purpose of insulting a fellow-poet in his grave displays a spirit but faintly characterized when it is called unchristian. As to the offence itself, we must confess that we see no occasion for the editor's humble apology. If Browning, in a fit of passion, misunderstood the meaning of the words, and supposed that Fitzgerald had been "glad of Mrs. Browning's death," there was no reason why the editor and representative of Fitzgerald should have set the seal of truth on this meaning, and so seem to convict his friend of inhuman insensibility and ungentlemanly expression. Fitzgerald was sufficiently a gentleman not to permit himself to say in private, even in the inconsiderateness of a letter, anything to be ashamed of; and Browning's objection is not to the publication, be it noted, but to the sentiment itself. Fitzgerald was a man of the most refined taste in poetry, and he was glad that there were to be "no more Aurora Leighs." This is a very different thing from being glad that Mrs. Browning was dead. The one is a literary opinion, and no more; the other would have been a moral offence. Fitzgerald's expression was limited by the context to Mrs. Browning's literary career; *its* end was "rather a relief"—that is the plain sense. Whether he was right or not, contemporary opinion about literature has much value, and, coming from a critic like him, this strong disapproval of "Aurora Leighs" was worth having. Is it necessary that there should be only praise of distinguished writers by their contemporaries? Must we have only parlor-biographies? It seems to us that sensitiveness has gone quite far enough in this direction. Fitzgerald had a right to be glad that a certain sort of poetry was at an end without being accused of inhumanity of a gross sort; if his opinions were to be published,

the public were as much interested to know what he thought of Mrs. Browning's verse as of any other subject of common public discussion. From whatever point of view the matter be regarded, Browning's brutally expressed insult to one whose character could not have been unknown to him, is the only offence that we can find.

—One topic leading to another, we are now asked by some of our Southern readers whether, when we lately expressed our belief that not a decade had passed since 1755, down to 1861, without a slave-burning in some part of the United States, we meant to state that such burnings *at the South* were "under form or color of law," *i. e.*, "legal executions for crimes." No such implication was in our mind, but merely that, wherever slavery lasted, the population—and we will now add, high and low—were in the "slave-burning stage." The two Massachusetts burnings of negro women in 1681 and 1755 were outdone by the burning of fourteen negroes (accused of a plot to burn this city) in New York in the summer of 1741, and of two more at Hackensack, New Jersey, during the same panic. These were all, we believe, legal executions—certainly those in New York were—and it may be impossible to match them at the South, just as the North furnishes no parallel to the witch-burning which Drake, in his 'Annals of Witchcraft' (p. 215), alleges to have taken place in South Carolina in 1712 by order of a local vigilance committee. Whether legal or extra-legal or illegal, matters nothing; the stage of civilization (or barbarism) was the same.

—A typical illustration of our meaning is afforded by the burning of the negro McIntosh at St. Louis on April 28, 1836—for denouncing which in his *Observer* E. P. Lovejoy prepared the way for his own martyrdom (almost by fire). McIntosh was indeed not a slave, being cook on a steamboat from Pittsburgh; but he was black and a rough character, and he fatally stabbed an officer who was taking him to jail. On the night of the same day a mob took him forcibly from prison, chained him to a tree, and burned him alive. Lovejoy expressly denied that this atrocity was fairly representative of the moral condition of the people of St. Louis. Nevertheless, it met with general approval, and Judge Lawless charged the Grand Jury that the question of indicting the perpetrators hinged upon the action being "of the many or of the few." He pronounced it not that "of numerable and ascertainable malefactors, but of congregated thousands," seized by a "mysterious metaphysical and almost electric phrenzy." This was the phrenzy which seized the citizens of Charleston when they burnt the abolition mail in 1835, with the approval of Amos Kendall, Postmaster-General. Any black man guilty of killing a white man or of rape on a white woman was liable, under slavery at the South, to be lynched at the stake, with the sanction of the community, which was as good as law (*salus populi suprema lex*). Of this nature was probably the case we referred to at Tuskogee, Ga., on October 9, 1860, when some one hundred and fifty citizens tried and sentenced and burnt a slave between morning and evening. Our correspondents will find the details in a letter of that date to the Columbus (Ga.) *Enquirer*. If we are not greatly in error, there has been at least one burning of a black man at the South since the war—of course by a mob.

—The glaciers at the foot of Mt. St. Elias are the subject of a paper in the July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The author, H. W. Topham, spent nearly a month in exploring them, and succeeds in giving a very clear idea of their position and peculiar characteristics. He was able to reach the so-called crater, the bottom of which he found to be full of ice. As no rocks of volcanic origin could be discovered, he doubted if it could be regarded as a crater in the true sense of the word. The summit of the mountain, some 8,000 feet above this point, was inaccessible on account of the loose débris of which this side was composed, which is continually falling, so that no step was quite safe; and the clouds of dust which his party raised as they climbed was such that "the last man had great difficulty to see where to walk." At one point they came to the edge of a "couloir about 3,000 feet in height, down which stones are continually falling, owing to the rapid disintegration of the mountain. They never cease falling, and a pillar of dust ascends high into the air, giving the appearance, when seen from a distance, of steam or smoke, and the wind plays upon the dust just as it plays upon the Staubbach and other high waterfalls, wafting it to and fro, and sporting with it as it likes. As we approached the mountain from the Tyndall Glacier, we had been under the impression that the pillar of dust was smoke or steam due to volcanic agency, and although we had examined the phenomenon through a powerful telescope, we continued of the same opinion until we arrived close to it and discovered its true nature." It is not impossible that this phenomenon may have caused Mt. St. Elias to be described as an active volcano—for example, in the article on Alaska in the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Species of phlox and harebell were found in one sunny spot at a height of 4,500 feet above the sea; but all vegetation, exclusive of lichens, generally ceased at a line of 3,000 feet. An excellent map, and a fine view of the mountain from a photograph taken on the Malaspina glacier, accompany the paper. The question as to whether the summit is on American or British territory was discussed by the Society at its meeting in April.

— We are indebted to a correspondent, "F. H.," for the following account of a Hindoo notability lately deceased:

"Out of the host of Americans who, during the last half-century, have visited Calcutta, there must be a good number, among the living, to whom mention of the name of Baboo Rajinder Dutt will revive the memory of a man that no one knew but to esteem. At the time when I made his acquaintance, as long ago as 1846, the fame which he enjoyed to the close of his career was already established. To be equally respected by his own countrymen and by foreigners is seldom the fortune of a native of India; but such was his fortune, and on the most unquestionable grounds. Nor were his efforts in behalf of his fellow-men confined to the limit of so few years as were allotted to those other memorable Hindoos of this century, Rammohun Roy, Dwarkanath Tagore, Dr. Bhan Daji, and Keshub Chunder Sen, inasmuch as he had reached the age of seventy-one when he died on the 5th of last June.

"Very few, comparatively, among Bengalees, were the coevals of Rajinder Dutt who, like him, were carefully instructed in our language in childhood, and, as the result of acquiring a taste for English literature and science, ended with becoming virtually deorientalized. Born to opulence, and with leisure at will, he devoted himself indefatigably to study while still a youth, and also began to accumulate books of almost every description. Even before he was thirty, his library was by far the largest and the most valuable of any private person in Calcutta, and it went on growing to the last. And he added nothing to it merely for display. Every volume that he purchased he dipped into for at least an hour or two before consigning it to his shelves, in prelibation, generally (if it was not a work of reference), of early deliberate perusal. And very deliberate was that perusal as well as critical.

"To give an illustration, some six months after he had received the first collective edition of Landor's works, the arrival of which he hailed with the warmth of an enthusiast, we agreed to discuss it, as we had both read it in the meantime. Without exaggeration, he seemed to have it all but by heart. Many were the long sittings which our discussion occupied; and I was thus afforded ample opportunity for observing his familiarity with biography and history. Its range and its exactness were surprising.

"But his chief title to admiration is still behind. In every fibre of his soul he was a philanthropist. Creed or social position was to him indifferent; it was enough that he knew of the existence of suffering, and he was ready with brain and purse. And his helpfulness in countless instances was manifested not only by his personal attendance in the character of a physician, but by his relieving need of every kind. His bearing, in doing good, was not so much that of one conferring, as that of one receiving, an obligation. The thought of any sort of return for his benefactions seemed never to enter his mind. That his boundless generosity impaired his fortune most materially was inevitable, but it caused him no disquiet to be no longer wealthy. His single aim was, at whatever self-sacrifice, to be of service to his fellow-men. In fact, he was an ayatar of altruism.

"Physically he was in no way remarkable. He was of medium height, lithe of figure, purely Caucasian as to features, and rather dark for a Bengalee of good family. His expression was one of marked intelligence; yet, what with his vivacity, his abruptness of manner, and his entire freedom from solemnity of aspect, he altogether belied the notions which are ordinarily associated with an Asiatic. For the rest, depressed by no adversity, fertile of resource, perpetually alert, strenuous in endeavor, and good-natured, he would, but for his complexion and dress, have been indistinguishable in most essentials from the typical American.

"Considering his antecedents, seconded by a keen appreciation of evidence, and fearlessness as a logician, it is no wonder that he sat loose to the religion of his forefathers. Having once clearly defined the inscrutable to himself, he calmly set it on one side, and devoted himself thenceforward to matters indisputably intelligible—the offices of humanity. Righteous in all his instincts, he translated them into practice to the best of his power. His, through long years, were the actions that alone 'smell sweet and blossom in the dust.' Never can the Ganges have borne in its bosom, to their ocean tomb, the ashes of a man richer in every virtue that merits to be recorded with reverence."

THE TRANSLATOR OF OMAR KHAYYAM.

Letters and Literary Remains of Edward Fitzgerald. Edited by William Aldis Wright. Macmillan & Co. 1889. 3 vols.

Edward Fitzgerald, without being essential to the literary history of his time, has made to it the very real contribution of a pleasant memory. If these letters had unfortunately perished, his name would have allured the imagination of lovers of literature eager to know more of this shy, eccentric, modest man, the writer in his youth of a poem that Lamb envied him, and in age of a translation that added almost an original classic to English, the life-long friend of Tennyson, Thackeray, and Spedding. The publication of his correspondence, however, has dispelled the mystery and disclosed the man in his tastes, friendships, peculiarities—the whole range of his "innocent *far-niente* life" as it seemed to Carlyle. One recurs after reading these pages to Tennyson's dedicatory poem addressed to Fitzgerald—perhaps the poet's most masterly piece of light verse—only to be surprised at the truth of the characterization there given. There is nothing in these letters so fine as the picture in those opening stanzas of "Old Fitz" in his "suburb-grange," with the rosy-footed doves flying about and perching upon him; but there

are many touches that bring his temperament and life before us with a similar vividness and felicity. And the rest of Tennyson's poem—the vegetarianism of his friend, "that large infidel, your Omar," and even the discontent of Fitzgerald with the work of the Laureate, after 1842, so deftly glanced at in the last lines:

> "When, in our younger London days,
> You found some merit in my rhymes,
> And I more pleasure in your praise"—

all this is amplified and illustrated, with much besides, just as the leisurely reader of Tennyson might wish it. The memoir has this poetical atmosphere; the life itself, an English country life, reminds one of what Fitzgerald writes of the County of Suffolk—"Now I say that all this shows that we in this Suffolk are not so completely given over to prose and turnips as some would have us. I always said that, being near the sea, and being able to catch a glimpse of it from the tops of hills and of houses, redeemed Suffolk from dulness, and at all events that our turnip fields, dull in themselves, were at least set all round with an undeniably poetic element."

Tennyson does not touch at all upon Fitzgerald's most marked trait. He was an Englishman of the closest attachment to things English. He never went out of the country but once, and then to the Netherlands, where he had a miserable sojourn, and he was thankful beyond most travellers when he got home again. He began life with this strong prepossession in an acute form. It breaks out early in life, when he excepts only Raphael for admiration among foreign artists, and he sums up the matter on the side of art at once—"To depict the true old English gentleman is as great a work as to depict a Saint John, and I think in my heart I would rather have the former than the latter." The most complete expression of his patriotic feeling is a real British burst, as characteristic as American spread-eagleism: "Well, say as you will, there is not and never was such a country as old England—never were there such a Gentry as the English. They will be the distinguishing Mark and Glory of England in History, as the Arts were of Greece, and War of Rome. I am sure no travel would carry me to any land so beautiful as the good sense, justice, and liberality of my good countrymen make this." He even writes to Frederick Tennyson abroad that he hopes the English travellers are "as proud and disagreeable as ever." He naturally thought the country was going to the dogs. He was not a Jingoist: he thinks, on the contrary, that the world may justly resent British interference "all over the Globe," and piously wishes that England were a "little, peaceful, unambitious, trading nation like—the Dutch!" Even his taste in music was affected: "I grow every day more and more to love only the old God Save the King style."

The point must be insisted upon because this British instinct lay at the roots of his content with a voluntarily restricted life. He had, besides, a bent for eccentricity. He early declares that he has made a discovery for himself and is going to be "a great bear." Used though the phrase is with youthful exaggeration and humor, it marks the turn of his nature, and in a sense he fulfilled the prediction. Of his boyhood we learn nothing, as he was well out of college when he began the congenial habit of writing these friendly letters, which from the first are remarkable for literary judgment and are warm with true feeling. He was then, however, no more than a reader of books and a collector of fine poems from the best writers for his private Parnassus. One confidential passage gives a strangely vivid sense of how the young of each generation start together. He has been writing of Tennyson, who had been visiting him and keeping him laughing with his "droll" little humors and "grumpinesses," and he goes on to say that he felt a "sense of depression at times from the overshadowing of a so much more lofty intellect than my own; this (though it may seem vain to say so) I never experienced before, though I have often been with much greater intellects; but I could not be mistaken in the universality of his mind; and perhaps I have derived some benefit in the now more distinct consciousness of my dwarfishness." He was then twenty-six and Tennyson was his junior by a year. Most of what is told of his younger days comes in the way of reminiscence in after life. Among these anecdotes one, drawn out by Spedding's death, is very lifelike. He and Tennyson visited Spedding at his father's house, and the elder Spedding is described as not altogether pleased at the sight of his son consulting with the poet over the "Morte d'Arthur," "Lord of Burleigh," and other pieces then in MS. Unfortunately he had known Shelley, Wordsworth, Coleridge, and other "poets" without esteeming them, and as Fitzgerald played chess with Mrs. Spedding, and the daffodils danced outside the hall-door—"Well, Mr. F.," he would say, "Mr. Tennyson reads and Jem criticises; is that it?" But, notwithstanding the banter, he was kind enough to his son's friends. Such little pictures are one of the traits of the book.

It was not long before these friends submitted to the common fate and were separated by the different tenor of their lives. They met occasionally, but they did not live together; Fitzgerald was the only one who liked to send friendly letters, and so communication lessened to one epistle a year, and died out altogether. He went to live in the country, in a damp lodge outside his father's park, and he always had such bachelor quarters. He was intimate at first with old Bernard Barton, the Quaker poet, whom, we believe, Lamb advised to throw himself over a precipice rather than cultivate the muse; and afterwards he liked to visit with the parson, a son of the poet Crabbe. Fitzgerald is described then as being a grave man, middle-aged at thirty-six, not seemingly very happy, though amusing at times in conversation. He rose early, read or wrote standing at a desk, had his dinner of vegetables and pudding, walked with his Skye terrier, and ended the evening with the Bartons or the Crabbes, singing glees with the children at the latter house and joining the parson over his cigar. He did not visit with the neighboring gentry. He describes it all himself: "A little Bedfordshire—a little Northampton—a little more folding of the hands—the same faces—the same fields—the same thoughts occurring at the same turns of road—this is all I have to tell of; nothing at all added—but the summer gone." As for "Alfred," he adds, "hydropathy has done its worst; he writes the names of his friends in water."

But this was not as empty a life as it seems; vegetarian though he was, "none could say that Lenten fare made Lenten thought." He had many interests of the cultivated man. He had been fond of the theatre and concert in London, and he was still devoted to music; he was a buyer of pictures, and full of enthusiasm for those he liked, and he cultivated the acquaintance of Lawrence. The stream of some friendship never ceased to brighten the ways he walked in; and in books and nature he had as large a liberty as is often conferred on a man. The touches of nature are not infrequent in these jottings down of his moments, and they are often exquisite in feeling: "I am going this evening to eat toasted cheese with that celebrated poet, Bernard Barton. . . . It blows a harrico, as Theodore Hook used to say, and will rain before I get to Woodbridge. Those poor, mistaken lilac-buds there out of the window! and an old robin, ruffled up to his thickest, sitting mournfully under them, quite disheartened!" Or again, in London, he writes: "I feel pleasure in dipping down into the country and rubbing my hand over the cool dew of the pastures, as it were." But such tender directness of description or felicity in phrase is a constant quantity, and belonged so much to his mind that he could not help blabbing out his delight. We quote a few more lines, less for the picture than the style; he had put away all books except Omar, but this, he says, "I could not help looking over in a paddock covered with buttercups and brushed by a delicious breeze, while a dainty racing filly of W. Browne's came startling up to wonder and snuff about me." For feeling like this expressed so well, one goes back far in literary taste, and in such passages we recognize the English that Tennyson praised so highly in speaking of the boat-race in 'Euphranor'; it is—what so little description of nature now is—free from self-consciousness, and not by design, but by the character of the writer.

It would be an endless task to enter upon the judgments of books which are strewn through the pages. One is prepared to hear that Fitzgerald's tastes were not those of his generation in the case of many of the more notable authors. The most striking instance is that of Tennyson. He did not like "The Princess," nor "In Memoriam," nor the "Idyls," nor the dramas; he wished that there had been nothing after the 1842 volume, or he seems to fancy that he wished it; the poems after that date were below their author's destiny—that is apparently the feeling which underlies his judgment. But he expressed himself with great freedom: "'In Memoriam,'" he says, "has the air of being evolved by a Poetical Machine of the highest order; . . . the Impetus, the Lyrical oestrus, is gone." He asks what it can do except make all of us "sentimental." His last word almost is that Tennyson's genius has been injured by over-elaboration. It made no difference to him that other friends told him that this was perverseness, and that no one agreed with him. One part of the secret has just been hinted at: he worshipped—it is hardly too strong a word—Tennyson's power; he thought it was wasted on inadequate objects. This is the one human enthusiasm of the book. If he reads of Thucydides at Amphipolis, it is to burst out with, "Fancy old Hallam sticking to his gun at a Martello Tower! This was the way to write well; and the way to make literature respectable. Oh, Alfred Tennyson, could you but have the luck to be put to such employment! No man would do it better; a more heroic figure to head the defenders of his country could not be." He wishes for Tennyson's voice to awake "Marathonian men" instead of "mumbling" over "The Princess" and "In Memoriam." He longs "to take twenty years off Alfred's shoulders, and set him up in his youthful glory. . . . He is the same magnanimous, kindly, delightful fellow as ever, uttering by far the finest prose sayings of any one." There is no cooling of loyalty, one perceives, only the feeling that the performance is less than it should have been, the man more than his work.

This, no doubt, counts in analyzing the unfavorable criticism of Fitzgerald; but it was also the fact (and here lies the other half of the secret), that Fitzgerald's literary taste was distinctly old-fashioned—not modern, not contemporary at all, but in a strict sense was clas-

sical, and proceeded upon the universal canon of literature. It is not meant, of course, that he was confined to Latin and Greek standards as expressed in ancient literature, but to the universal standard common to all great literature. Tennyson met his simple and pure taste and his unromantic (but not unpoetic) nature, in much; but in his later and pronounced manner he offended Fitzgerald's taste, both in matter and style. Other poets yet more strictly bound to their times and themselves than Tennyson naturally meet with no mercy at Fitzgerald's bar. He swept them—left nameless in these letters—to the namelessness that these blanks foretell, with as absolute a fiat as Carlyle ever used in similar cases. There is, too, one is compelled to think, something of truth in his friend's frank statement that he was "perverse." He set up for a man of taste—it was the only claim he put forward. He was not a genius, but he had taste, which, according to his aphorism, is the feminine of genius, and, being thus in his own eyes a critic by self-calling, he was, as Tennyson objects in his poem, "overnice." He was too much affected by the hair's-breadth lack of perfection in comparison with what was done. This is somewhat overstated, but it expresses well enough the element of error. After all, the main point is that modern poetry did not appeal to him.

This case of Tennyson is dwelt upon because it is illustrative of the unfavorable criticism to be found here and of its sources. It is criticism that well deserves to be understood and to be laid to heart, for it will help any one of real perception to a simpler and purer taste in poetry. The criticism which is favorable, however, far outweighs the fault-finding. Fitzgerald liked to write about what he enjoyed, and he enjoyed the best. The classics he read all his life with evident zest, and was so seized by Æschylus and Sophocles that he could only free himself by translating them. He fell into a study of Spanish which resulted also in translation from Calderon, of course in his peculiar style of rendering; and then he began with Persian, out of which he gave us the Omar and other pieces of interest. This was a considerable amount of work, and, in connection with the editing of Crabbe and the delightful dialogue of "Euphranor," not to speak of minor matters, they show that he was far from being an idler in his leisure. His readings in English were constant, also; and his taste was that which requires for itself "the best books." He found the tradition of the past as to the value of these great works in harmony with his own judgment; and at the end of his life he was more and more deeply sworn to Cervantes and Sir Walter Scott, Shakspere, Boccaccio, and in general those authors who have best drawn human life with laughter as well as tears. It is interesting, finally, to note in a man so attached to the great works of literature that, though the friend of Thackeray, he was also delighted with Dickens and with other prose-writers of his own time; but in poetry he admitted only Tennyson and his two brothers, Frederick and Charles.

Our space has become exhausted all too soon. Nothing can be said of the interesting episode of his exploration of Naseby field (where he found a skull with a bit of the iron heel of the conqueror in it), with its sequel in Carlyle's friendly regard, which remained unbroken to the end. The veering of his judgment in respect to Carlyle is also noticeable, for at first he had no good words for him. Something, too, should be said of his less-known friends, and especially of the captain of his lugger, whom he generously assisted, and whom he thought so much of as to get Lawrence to do his head—"with that complexion which Montaigne calls 'vif, mâle et flamboyant,' blue eyes and strictly auburn hair, . . . head of the large type, . . . a Gentleman of Nature's grandest Type, . . . made in the mould of what a Humanity should be, Body and Soul, a poor Fisherman. . . . This is altogether the Greatest Man I have known." Such are some of the phrases which he showered upon his Viking. There are traces, too, of a sympathy with the poor in their work and their suffering, and of a true sense of humble life. He was much touched by reality wherever he came near it. His letters are just and beautiful in expression when he mentions any matter of real sorrow, any bereavement or misfortune. His heart remained tender, and he was loyal to his friends. When Spedding died, they had been separated twenty years, and the genuineness of his feeling of loss which comes to the surface in two or three letters, is a remarkable illustration of the vitality of silent affection. When Tennyson came to see him after an equal interval of time, it was as if time had not been. His isolation from these old friends is somewhat pathetic, but he was without reproach, since the neglect to write was on their part. Tennyson never would write letters, and Spedding was a positive man given to a utilitarian rule of life, who would only write when there was some definite question to be answered.

Notwithstanding this, Fitzgerald had friends who came as others went, as is the way of the world, and they were always scholars and gentlemen, the best of their kind. Naturally, however, the tribute which will be most observed in his memory is that of the famous literary men who found him companionable in early and middle life. Tennyson wrote of him: "I had no truer friend; he was one of the kindliest of men, and I have never known one of so fine and delicate a wit." Thackeray, being asked not long before he died which of his old friends he loved most, told his daughter: "Why, dear old Fitz, to be sure; and Brookfield"; and there is among these letters one from Thackeray asking Fitzgerald to attend to his literary affairs if he should meet with accident in America, which would be a treasure coming from any man. Of the wit which Tennyson mentions there is little in the correspondence, but the character which won and merited the regard and affection of friends shines upon every page. The modesty with which he withdrew his name from the public eye was probably a congenital trait, and it affected his whole way of life. He grew more unwilling even to go to London, finding only cleverness there, and the theatre or opera was less able to attract him as years went on. The exhibitions, in which at one time he took great interest, became a bore. We regret being unable to extract some illustrations of his usual comment upon the great musicians and the artists whom he loved, with which his letters are enriched in a variety of topics. Reynolds, Constable, and Gainsborough are the leading subjects in art, and in music Handel seems to have been most congenial, though he writes of the others with just judgment. His life, taken altogether, was a gratification of refined tastes and a simple exercise of unpretending virtues among his friends and acquaintances.

His works, which fill the last two volumes, do not fall within the scope of this notice. They are well known in the circle that cares for literature of the highest order. Original genius he did not possess, but his appreciativeness of excellence was sound and true; whenever he praises, one is compelled to assent. He spent the most of his energy in endeavoring to render foreign classics into English in such a way as to make them effective to modern taste. He did not write for those who could read the originals. He professed only to make adaptations rather than translations, and he cut and modified with a free hand. Scholars have praised his work for what it strove to accomplish, accepting the limitations which his taste imposed upon it. Taste, however developed and refined, is still not genius, and it must be frankly acknowledged that he has not given us just what Calderon, Æschylus, and Sophocles created. His Persian translations vary even more widely from the originals. 'Omar Khayyám' is a celebrated work in his version, but it is largely his own work, and it may be hoped that the other translations will become better known, for, without having the commanding qualities of Omar, they are studded with charming stories in verse, and not encumbered with Eastern moods of thought so much as to disturb a Western mind; to us they are more pleasing. The two poetical speeches of the English and Roman generals, with their fine movement, are also a kind of translation—from prose to verse, though nearer to original composition. The dialogue of 'Euphranor' is the most considerable work of his own hand, and reaches what seems to be his ideal of writing—fine feeling in fine English. His name, however, is linked indissolubly with literature, in all probability, only in one work, the Omar; his memory will always be associated with the Tennyson group; besides, and by virtue of it, he will long be remembered by those who prize simplicity, refinement, and moral worth above the more vulgar quality of distinction.

LODGE'S WASHINGTON.—II.

George Washington. By Henry Cabot Lodge. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 2 vols.

IN dealing with Washington's political career, Mr. Lodge is on his own borders. Remote from the local annals among which he tripped so sadly, he has wisely disembarrassed himself of the individual Washington by collecting some fifty pages of Washingtoniana at the end of the book. The President he follows with the courage of conscious equipment. Our military similitude is suggested by the polemical note which summons us from any repose with the weary soldier at Mount Vernon. According to our author, "Washington passed at a single step from being a Virginian to being an American," and he here passes almost as swiftly from the Revolution to the Presidency. We reflect, however, that the work does not profess to be a biography, and that a selection of the more salient features of a subject so vast was imperative. The selection seems judicious, but the necessary omission of many details, each with its significance, renders it important to follow so theoretical an author with the cautious respect due to his literary art. The pathology of prepossessions proves their danger to lie in their eloquence.

Mr. Lodge's theory that "Washington had the fierce fighting temper of the Northmen," which looks as if suggested by Albert Welles's genealogical derivation of Washington from Odin, is contradicted, as we have intimated, by many utterances of the General against war. Under its inspiration, Mr. Lodge has, we think, done justice to Washington's military career. When, however, we pass from the General confronting Great Britain to the President invading Indian tribes, the "fierce Northman" theory warps the narrative. When, in youth, Washington went on a peaceful mis-

sion to the Indians, he found himself already known among them as "Conotocarius," or "town-destroyer." This red shirt had descended from his great-grandfather, Col. John Washington, who ordered a massacre of chiefs during a parley, but whose party "stupidly," Mr. Lodge says, "allowed the Indians to escape," etc. A writer so decked with war-paint cannot be expected to consider how utterly unimportant are the miserable Indian skirmishes of 1790 compared with the honor of Washington. The President here appears determining on and planning those inglorious raids as if he were all branches of government rolled in one. In fact, Washington was only fierce against the land-jobbing borderers, "indifferent as to the killing of an Indian," and fought the Indians only because of the panic into which patriotic men were thrown by intrigues of England and Spain with those tribes, which threatened to turn into an army against the United States.

When we reach Washington's political career, we are met by another theory. "No man of that time, with the exception of Hamilton, ever grasped and realized as he did the imperial future which stretched before the United States." Among born colonists, which Hamilton was not, Washington "stood alone" in this national sentiment, to which first Franklin, then others, came gradually (II, pp. 7, 8). The generalization is misleading. Washington's remarkable "American" feeling, shown even in early life by his protest against the superior rank of officers holding royal commissions, had little relation to the "national" sentiment of Hamilton, which made him the representative of English ideas of government and the confidant of English ministers. Washington had no theories. He desired a strong government, but Mr. Lodge might be puzzled to prove even that he preferred a single rather than a plural Executive, as proposed by Gov. Randolph and George Mason. Oppressed by the weakness of the Confederation, Washington was yet but a follower in the reform. He thought the Annapolis Convention premature. and was with difficulty persuaded to attend that of 1787. He wrote to a friend that his consciousness of a lack of "political competencies" made his way to inauguration seem like that of a culprit to his execution. With the exception of his apathy concerning slavery, Washington was as free from provincialism and sectionalism as Mr. Lodge affirms; but it was largely owing to the very fact that this American character was not attached to any political schemes, Hamiltonian or Jeffersonian, that he preserved such ascendancy over the whole country.

A collection of extracts might be made from Mr. Lodge's work, and labelled, "Washington considered as a Hamilton." Our author is wroth with those who, a hundred years ago, scented monarchy in the pomp of what John Randolph called Washington's "coronation," and in the survivals of court etiquette urged by John Adams, whose court plumage so amused us at the Centennial Loan Exhibition; but the radicals of that period are justified by Mr. Lodge's interpretation of those ceremonies. They are symbols, it seems, of "sovereignty." "The people of the United States to-day surround the first office in the land with a respect and dignity which they deem equal to the mighty sovereignty that it represents, and in this is to be found the genuine American feeling that Washington expressed by the plain and simple ceremonial which he adopted for his meetings with the Congress" (II, p. 78). Here is the high Hamiltonian absolutism which, our author needs to be reminded, was *not* successful in its efforts to enter the Constitution. It must have been an oversight by which Mr. Lodge includes among the "sound lawyers" of the Supreme Court appointed by Washington, that Justice Wilson who called the country to remember that no such word or thing as sovereignty is known to the Constitution. Detaching "sovereignty" from its connotations, it means only supreme power; but how can this be described as represented by an office of defined powers and limited functions?

The king can do no wrong. The moral law is easily accommodated to Washington and his "double"—Hamilton. In his account of the assumption of State debts (II, p. 105) Mr. Lodge describes the main argument against it as "sectional," without giving his reader the means of judging whether it was so. By assumption of State debts by the general Government, those States which had nearly paid off their debts were taxed to pay the debts of other States which had not so paid. The measure was carried by a bribe offered to Jefferson by Hamilton, the former inducing his friends in Congress to vote for assumption on condition that the Federal city should be located on the Potomac. To this "famous arrangement," as Mr. Lodge euphemizes, but which Jefferson felt to be infamous, and repented in dust and ashes, Washington is apparently made a party:

> "Washington was more than satisfied with this solution, for both sides of the agreement pleased him, and there was nothing in the compromise which meant sacrifice on his part. He rejoiced in the successful adoption of the great financial policy of his Administration, and he was much pleased to have the capital, in which he was intensely interested, placed near to his own Mount Vernon, in the very region he would have selected if he had had the power of fixing it" (II, p. 106).

This almost cynical suggestion of private motives for public action is inferential. If Washington was the personal ruler Mr. Lodge sometimes seems to imagine, he might be involved in the intrigue; but the whole history of Washington's Administration convinces us that he would never dream of questioning the honesty of any policy on which the two party leaders, Jefferson and Hamilton, had agreed. Washington's self-distrust, arising from lack of scholastic education, led him to place a perilous amount of faith in learned men; nor had he that knowledge of men which our author ascribes to him. Calamities came of his confidence in Charles Lee, Arnold, St. Clair, and in Pickering, who secretly disparaged him while controlling his Administration. No doubt Washington regarded assumption as just; but that the corrupt bargain was known to him is as little probable as that his sanction looked to a rise in the value of his lands.

Although Washington generally followed the policy approved by a majority of his Cabinet, his own judgment was felt in matters affecting the military situation of the country or its independence. This was especially shown in the most critical question which arose during his tenure of office—the British Treaty. Despite certain odious features of that treaty, the Senate advised its ratification, with reservation of one article. The Cabinet unanimously agreed. But before Washington had affixed his signature, news came of the Provision Order, directing seizure of all vessels carrying provisions to France, and Washington refused to ratify until the order was revoked. His letter to Randolph of July 22, 1795, speaks of this as his "determination," and Mr. Lodge can only escape its force by suppressing in his argument (II, p. 194) part of what he had printed in his narrative (p. 186). Washington left the matter to be determined by the English answer to his protest, and went off to Mount Vernon, in the latter part of July, intending, as his private letters show, to remain through the summer. In this determination—in which, by the way, he was supported by Hamilton, a fact omitted by Mr. Lodge—Washington stood out against three of his four ministers. He yielded only when it seemed a question of war. The right of search and of impressment had been tacitly conceded under the treaty, simply because, as Mr. Lodge points out, we were not ready to fight, and war now appeared the alternative of refusing to swallow the Provision Order. In this case the war would have had to be undertaken by an administration divided against itself.

To this menacing side of the situation was now added a decisive weight. The President suddenly found himself compromised by an intercepted despatch of the French Minister, boasting of state secrets confided to him by the Secretary of State, and reporting suggestions from the same high quarter that French gold might be effective against the "British party." Other despatches of M. Fauchet, intercepted at the same time, were received by the British Minister, and would have neutralized the one revealed had they not been suppressed. The charges against the Secretary of State are discredited by Mr. Lodge, and also, as he says, by Washington (II, p. 201). The incident, so fully discussed by Randolph's biographer, with whom, so far as the unfortunate Secretary is concerned, Mr. Lodge does not very seriously disagree, is too large and intricate to be pursued in the present paper. But we cannot think that any historian has sufficiently considered the degree to which Washington was influenced in this matter, and throughout his second term, by anxieties arising from the English possession of the northwestern posts. That for the thirteen years following the Revolution those commanding positions should be held by a Power hostile and humiliated, and that in the later of those years our coast was at the mercy of its ships, are weighty facts.

We have before us a letter written from Mount Vernon, December 11, 1785, to Gen. Knox, in which Washington says:

> "It has always been my opinion, you know, that our affairs with respect to the Indians would never be in good train whilst British Garrisons remained on the American side of the territorial line—and that these Posts would not be evacuated by them as long as any pretext could be found to withhold them. They know the importance of these Posts too well to give them up soon or quietly. Their trade with the Indians depend[s] upon the possession of them, knowing full well that all the assertions of our Commrs. with respect to the articles of Peace, and their obligation to surrender them is no more than chaff before the wind when opposed by the scale of possession."

As events more important than the Indian trade advanced, such as the war with France, the posts and the Indians together became a formidable menace. The abandonment of those posts was Great Britain's offer for Washington's signature to the treaty. The offer was accompanied by ordered and ominous menaces. We were not in a condition to fight, and Lord Grenville became master of the situation. Among his Lordship's demands, secretly written to Washington, was, probably, the dismission of Randolph. This may be inferred from a letter of Gouverneur Morris, printed in his recently published 'Diary and Letters,' written to Washington after an interview with Lord Grenville in which is an allusion to a letter of his Lordship concerning Randolph, sent through Mr. Jay. Mr. Lodge, while admitting Randolph's honor, vaguely alleges that he was not without fault in the matter, but he does not say what the fault was.

By signing the treaty Washington entirely alienated its opponents, and had few political friends except so-called "Federalists." The denunciations of the "anti-Federalists" tended to drive him more and more to their antagonists. Mr. Lodge, in his chapter on "Washington as a Party Man," points out that, after Jefferson's resignation (at the close of 1793), the President appointed only "Federalists" to his Cabinet (II, p. 242); but it must be remembered that the division of parties was not yet theoretical. The Opposition was French and revolutionary. Nor can any political partisanship be inferred from his partial approval of the Alien and Sedition Acts. The British Treaty was made a *casus belli* by France, and Washington regarded those laws with the feeling of a soldier. Mr. Lodge, we regret to find, is, in emergencies, apt to answer inconvenient arguments by saying they are attacks on Washington; but we venture to remind him that in the letter on which he mainly relies (II, p. 264) to prove Washington's animosity to the "Democrats" (written to Gov. Trumbull, July 21, 1799), Washington says: "Although I have abundant cause to be thankful for the good health with which I am blessed, yet I am not insensible to my declination in other respects."

We regret that Mr. Lodge's controversial method has rendered it necessary to devote our notice so largely to adverse criticism. We would gladly have occupied our space with homage to his various fine qualities, did not these add all the more weight to what we regard as errors. We are satisfied that so adequate a writer has dealt with Washington from the Hamiltonian point of view. We can commend the book for its charms of style and treatment. It is certainly a valuable contribution to the work which still awaits some master-hand—the Life of George Washington.

THE HEIMSKRINGLA.

The Heimskringla; or, The Sagas of the Norse Kings. From the Icelandic of Snorre Sturlason. By Samuel Laing, Esq. 2d edition, revised, with notes, by Rasmus B. Anderson, LL.D. 4 vols. Scribner & Welford.

THE history of Iceland during the first three centuries and a half after its settlement from Norway is, in the main, the history of a few families. True at the beginning, as a natural result of the circumstances of the settlement, it was the characteristic fact through the 300-odd years of the Icelandic commonwealth which Laing very aptly calls "an aristocratic republic." During the twelfth century, but particularly in its latter half, and in the first half of the thirteenth century, the whole country was torn apart by the jealous feuds of the chieftains, who were obliged to maintain an armed force about them, and not seldom to assert their supremacy by means of it. The last years of the republic were little better than a condition of civil war, in which violence was done to life and property, and all law and order were at an end—a condition which surely paved the way to the loss of autonomy and to subjection to Norway.

In the period last mentioned one family, the Sturlungs, stands out prominently for the power it held and the part it played in the political life of the time; so much was this the case that the epoch has received in Icelandic history the name of "the time of the Sturlungs." As a noteworthy concomitant of this political activity and social unrest, the time of the Sturlungs appears also as the golden age of Icelandic literature. In it many of the most important sagas current only as oral tradition are written down, old legends of the gods are collected, histories are compiled, and the art of literary expression reaches the most perfect development that it ever exhibited in the old day in the whole Scandinavian North. More noteworthy still, it is in this very family of the Sturlungs that the art of authorship attains its highest exemplification, and Snorri Sturlason, in the 'Heimskringla,' has given us not only the best piece of independent prose literature, but in its bearing incalculably the most important series of sagas of all the number that attest the phenomenal literary activity of the Icelanders.

Snorri Sturlason, both from the place he filled in national politics in his day and the literary legacy that has come down from him to the present, is the most remarkable man in the history of Iceland. His career is not a record free from stain, but it reflects, as in a glass, the conditions of his time, and the lights and shadows of his life are throughout the intelligible results of his environment. Ambitious, bold, and unscrupulous as to the means of attaining an end, he achieved an almost unprecedented wealth and power, held the highest office in the gift of the commonwealth, and enjoyed distinction at the court of the Norwegian king, but was, at last, miserably murdered in a family feud, and will for ever lie under an imputation, that cannot be satisfactorily cleared away, of having endeavored to betray his country to Norway for the sake of his own selfish gain.

Snorri was born in 1178. In accordance with the custom of the time, he was sent away from home to be fostered, and when still an infant came into the family of Jon Loptsson at Oddi. It was here that he received the literary bent that subsequently distinguished him, and the 'Heimskringla' no doubt owes its ultimate origin to these early associations. The grandfather of Jon Loptsson, Sæmund the Wise, the reputed compiler of the Elder Edda, had founded a school at Oddi and made it the seat of the highest learning in Iceland—a reputation which, together with the manuscript materials that Sæmund doubtless collected, had been inherited by the succeeding generations. There was here, too, a special reason for a knowledge of Norwegian history, for Jon Loptsson's father had lived in Norway, where he had married a natural daughter of King Magnus Barefoot, so that the sagas of the Norse kings were in reality, to no small extent, the family history of the people of Oddi. Certain descriptions in the 'Heimskringla,' moreover, are thought to have been directly founded upon Jon Loptsson's own narrative of them as an eye witness.

Snorri entered upon an active life with but little, if anything, more material than his own ambition to further him, but by a lucky marriage laid the foundation of his power, which thereafter steadily grew. In 1215 he was elected "Speaker of the Law" for the Commonwealth. At the expiration of his term of service, three years later, he went to Norway, where he was received with extraordinary hospitality, both by King Hakon and the King's father-in-law, Earl Skuli. The King made him his liegeman, and Snorri gained Skuli's friendship, which, in the subsequent conflict between Hakon and Skuli, stood him in far from good stead. To Skuli he is said to have promised, at this time, to use his influence to bring Iceland under the dominion of Norway. Two years later Snorri returned to Iceland. For the next few years both his wealth and his influence continued to increase, until he became the most important man in the island. His unscrupulous conduct of certain family affairs had, however, aroused a bitter hostility among his own relatives, which finally resulted in a regular battle, in which Snorri's faction was, nevertheless, victorious, and established more firmly than ever his position of predominance.

Snorri was in Norway at this time with Skuli, to whom he had unwisely given his adherence, and thereby incurred the active displeasure of the King. The latter, evidently fearing the use of Snorri's power against him, forbade him by letter to return to Iceland, but the command was disregarded. The following year, 1240, Skuli was slain, and, shortly after, Hakon seems to have resolved upon Snorri's death, for he sent a letter to Gissur, a son-in-law of Snorri, with whom, in the meantime, a new feud had arisen, demanding that he send his father-in-law a prisoner to Norway, or, in case that were impossible, to kill him. Gissur, accordingly, with seventy men at his back, came to Reykjaholt on the night of the 22d of September, 1241, when the old chieftain was mercilessly hunted out of the place where he had taken refuge, and slain by an unknown member of Gissur's band.

About Snorri's literary work, with the exception of his career of a skald at home and abroad, contemporary records are singularly silent. The account of his life in the history of his family, the Sturlunga Saga, does not mention the books he wrote, but the Icelandic Annals, written in 1400, say specifically that Snorri "compiled the Edda, and many other books of historical learning, and Icelandic sagas." Of these works the so-called Younger, or Prose, Edda (a commentary in prose and verse on the old poetry, and the principal source of our knowledge of the mythology of the Teutonic race), and the 'Heimskringla,' are all that have come down to us. The time of origin of the 'Heimskringla,' from internal evidence, was after the return of Snorri from his first journey to Norway, when he dwelt in comparative quiet on his own farmstead at Reykjaholt.

The title given in the seventeenth century to Snorri's sagas of the Norse kings, and the one by which it is now generally known, is a compound formed of the opening words of the oldest manuscript: *Kringla heimsins*, the circle of the earth. The work, to use a strikingly apt collocation by Carlyle in the preface to his 'Early Kings of Norway,' whose source is this very book, is a history of the "old tragedies, crimes, and heroisms" of the Norse kings. It begins with the story of Odin, and the half-fabulous history of the Swedish dynasty of the Ynglings, from whom Harald the Fairhaired reckoned his descent. From Halfdan the Black, in the middle of the ninth century, down to the reign of Magnus Erlingsson in his own day, Snorri gives a continuous history of Norway under her successive kings. His work is not a mere chronicle of names and dates, coupled at greater or less length with the events that made them memorable. It is the record of real people who live and act, and are moved by impulses human and fallible, though often great and kingly. As Laing points out in his preliminary dissertation, some of the sagas, like those of Harald the Fairhaired, Olaf Tryggvason, or Olaf the Saint, are great historical dramas, in which the characters work, and act, and speak. Often it is possible to reconstruct from Snorri's pages an incidental, but unmistakably true and vivid, characterization of the whole social life of the time; for Snorri does not concern himself solely with the court and army of the king, but gives many a picture, with abundant details, both of the sturdy yeoman at home on his farmstead, and the viking in his long-ship on a wild foray upon some neighboring coast. Some of the descriptions of battles on land and sea are unsurpassed

in all historical literature. There is no account in history of a sea fight at all to parallel the description of the battle of Svold, in the saga of Olaf Tryggvason, from the blast of the war-horns at the departure of the King's ships to the dramatic assurance at the end that "King Olaf Tryggvason never came back again to his kingdom of Norway."

In view of the minuteness and range of Snorri's assumed knowledge of men and events long before his own day, the question as to where he obtained it and its claim to credence as history lies very near the surface. Snorri's service is most admirably summarized by Laing when he says that "Snorri Sturlason has done for the history of the Northmen what Livy did for the history of the Romans." Snorri's own account of the source of his material in his preface to the 'Heimskringla' ascribes it to records of Ari the Wise, who died in 1148, "the first man in this country who wrote down in the Norse language narratives of events both old and new," and to the poems of the skalds. The latter he considers wholly trustworthy.

"There were skalds," he says, "in Harald's court whose poems the people know by heart even at the present day, together with all the songs about the kings who have ruled in Norway since his time; and we rest the foundations of our history principally upon the songs which were sung in the presence of the chiefs themselves or of their sons, and take all to be true that is found in such poems about their feats and battles."

Many of these skaldic strophes corroboratory of his statements are incorporated in his work, and are found scattered through it from the beginning almost to the end. Another undoubted source which he does not mention was the narratives of his contemporaries. The nearer Snorri comes down to his own time, as has been intimated, the less does he cite the strophes of the skalds, his authority being undoubtedly the oral accounts of living men. His narrative, besides, is frequently helped out by his own knowledge of the scene of action gained by an apparently careful inspection, during his first journey abroad, of these very localities. Snorri had all the characteristics of a great historian in the collection, arrangement, and use of his material. If the important mass of it was ready made to his hand, it was he who first had the genius to gather and assort it, and make out of disjointed episodes a chronologically connected and literary whole.

The first and, prior to the appearance of the present edition, the only English translation of the 'Heimskringla' was that of Samuel Laing, published in London in 1844. In many respects Laing's translation is an admirable one, and fairly represents, at least in England, in this direction, the scholarship of his day. The present version Mr. Anderson calls upon his title-page a second, revised edition of Laing's. The older translation still forms the great body of the work, which has, however, by additions and eliminations, been made to correspond with Unger's edition of the original text published in Christiania in 1868. Laing's preliminary dissertation has been retained intact, but many of his footnotes, considered by the editor irrelevant or obsolete, have been omitted; many new notes, however, principally from the Swedish translation of Hildebrand, together with indexes of names and places, maps, and a chronological table, have been added, all of which materially increase the value and utility of the book. As much, unfortunately, cannot be said of the revision of the orthography of proper names throughout the work, with which, it must be acknowledged, the editor in his introduction declares himself not entirely satisfied. What possible advantage is gained by writing Fin for Finn, Hal for Hall, and the like is not apparent; on the same plan he would write in English history of Wiliam the Conqueror, Cromwel, or the Earl of Esex. Olafson for Olafsson, too, does not represent the true pronunciation. In such names as Snorri, Skuli, Tryggvi, final "i" (it would seem) might at last be allowed to take the place of the "e" that has mistakenly come into the English orthography of these words from Danish, and has no counterpart in the original Norse. No point is gained by instancing Vigfusson, since his usage in just this particular is peculiarly vicious and inconsistent.

By far the most serious error in judgment in the present edition is the retention of the earlier version of the skaldic strophes which Snorri from time to time cites as corroboratory testimony. Laing, with a diligence utterly misapplied, made over these verses into modern jingles that bear no sort of relationship, except assumed community of topic, to the originals, which they only serve to make ridiculous. Mr. Anderson assures his reader that he will lose nothing if he skips them; he might have gone further with the assurance that he will certainly lose a great deal if he does not. In one or two cases the editor has given, in addition to Laing's easy versions—free-and-easy would be more correctly applied—Vigfusson's paraphrases as contained in the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale.' The way out of the difficulty would have been to eliminate them all, and either to have put Vigfusson's versions in their place (the better course), or, what seems to have suggested itself, to have omitted them altogether.

Mr. Anderson's 'Heimskringla' is a limited edition, of which only 520 numbered copies in all have been printed for England and America. The four sumptuous volumes in letter-press and paper bear witness to the perfection of modern book-making, and its publishers have spared no pains to make the whole external appearance of the work correspond to the rank it holds in the history and literature of the North. Laing's original translation is long since out of print. In making the 'Heimskringla' again accessible to English readers, Mr. Anderson has done a real and important service. In its new form it will come appreciably nearer to the desert claimed for it, under these conditions, by Carlyle, "to be reckoned among the great history-books of the world."

Studies in the South and West, with Comments on Canada. By Charles Dudley Warner. Harper & Bros. 1889.

THIS book is a collection of articles which appeared between the spring of 1885 and the beginning of 1889 in *Harper's Monthly*, with the exception of one short chapter reprinted from the *Princeton Review*. A sort of appendix, under the name "Comments on Canada," is the least attractive part of the work. The author knows nothing of Canada but what he has learned from books open to everybody, or in a flying trip of two or three months, a time hardly sufficient to study the institutions and mode of life of a neighboring country.

The first four hundred pages, giving the writer's impressions in the West (for his South is mainly the Southwest), have a higher and much more artistic value. They are, almost throughout, good reading, and many of them are, to the careful and intelligent reader, full of suggestion and instruction. The chapters on New Orleans and its surroundings, including that on "A Vaudoo Dance," are the most picturesque; but the works of Cable have made the reading public so thoroughly familiar with the Africanized fragments of old France to the south of Canal Street, that it is difficult to tell us here anything new. Mr. Warner, however, tells us much else about the South which is not picturesque, and which Cable in his sketches and novels has no use for. He speaks to us of the new and forceful industrial life that has taken hold of the whole South, though it has touched most lightly yet upon the habitat of the Creole:

"When the Northerner finds great foundries in Virginia using only the products of Virginia iron and coal mines; when he finds Alabama and Tennessee making iron so good and so cheap that it finds ready market in Pennsylvania, and foundries multiplying near the great furnaces for supplying Northern markets; when he finds cotton-mills running to full capacity on grades of cheap cottons universally in demand throughout the South and Southwest; when he finds small industries, such as paper-box factories and wooden bucket and tub factories, sending all they can make into the North and widely over the West, etc., etc.; and when he sees Roanoke iron cast in Richmond into car irons and returned into a car factory in Roanoke which last year sold 300 cars to the New York and New England Railroad—he begins to open his eyes" (p. 111).

The chapters on the Northwest teem with statistics of material growth. This is unavoidable. When you come to a large city, full of wealth and of all the latest results of science and industry, built on a spot which thirty or forty years ago was browsed over by herds of buffaloes, you cannot help counting and comparing. The effort of our writer is to point out that St. Paul and Minneapolis and Kansas City and Chicago are not all made up of lumber and flour and pork and Boards of Trade and bank clearings; that there is also a higher intellectual life; that men who have grown rich rapidly, may learn to be refined; that one Chicago millionaire can found the greatest reference library of the country by his will, and another Chicago millionaire—Gunther, the candy-maker—can collect in his lifetime, for public inspection, the largest museum of autographs and curiosities; and that the teaching methods of Chicago schools are worthy of imitation by cities far east of it. In Germany the provincial people have a terse expression with which they meet such condescension of the visiting Berliner, and which would often have been a good reply to Mr. Warner's bursts of astonishment: "Did you think that we eat soap?" As far as this volume helps New Yorkers and Northeastern men and women generally to understand that the people of the South and West "do not eat soap," it will do much good.

In his sketch of St. Paul, Mr. Warner omits to mention one great enterprise, which makes that city, for at least one intellectual purpose, the capital of the United States. It is the "West Publishing Company," with its weekly publication in nine divisions of *all* the State Supreme Court and Federal decisions, with a monthly digest, enabling the lawyer to get all his authorities from this point in the far Northwest a year or two quicker than through the regular State reports. New York and Philadelphia may smile, as Roman satirists smiled when the provincial lawyers in Gaul began to rival those of the metropolis, and threatened to spread their learning to half-savage Britain:

"Gallia causidicos docuit facunda Britannos."

But while our traveller luxuriates in the picturesque shabbiness of the Creole town and the primitive virtues of the Acadians around Abbeville, while he admires the force and success of the new South, the wealth and enterprise of the Northwest, and the art treasures

and musical culture of Cincinnati, he feels at home and happy only in Kentucky, to which State he devotes his last chapter, dwelling with fervor on Louisville, the city of "culture, taking the form of the worship of beauty and the enjoyment of life" (p. 282)—yet a city of 180,000 inhabitants which alone in all Christendom, among cities of that size, has no library worth mentioning, no observatory, no museum of art, and, were it not for Mary Anderson, not one citizen known by fame to the outer world in literature, science, or art. Mr. Warner fairly raves about the virtues of blue grass. It brings forth not only sturdy Presbyterians, but, what is more important, healthy and therefore beautiful women.

"A geologist told me that once when he was footing it over the State with a geologist from another State, as they approached the blue-grass region from the southward they were carefully examining the rock formation and studying the surface indications, which are usually marked on the border line, to determine exactly where the peculiar limestone formation began. Indications, however, were wanting. Suddenly my geologist looked up the road and exclaimed:

"'We are in the blue-grass region now.'

"'How do you know?' asked the other.

"'Why, there is a blue-grass girl.'"

"My geologist" is no other than John R. Proctor, the State Geologist, to whom Mr. Warner acknowledges himself much indebted for guidance and information. Before leaving the blue-grass country, he bears witness, not only to its well-known fair women, fast horses, and good whiskey, but also to the growth of sobriety and even abstinence, and to a gradual loss of interest in "poker."

But when from Lexington he goes eastward into the "mountains," into the country of the rifle and the shot-gun, of small cabins and large families, of sloth and illiteracy, as well as of walnut timber, coal, and iron, and new mining towns, he has to mix some darker shades with his bright colors. He thus describes a "family feud" or vendetta, in the words of a mountaineer informant:

"Was there much killing round here? Well, not much lately. Last year John Cone over on Clover Fork shot Mat Harner in a dispute over cards. Well, what became of John Cone? Oh, he was killed by Jim Blood, a friend of Harner. And what became of Blood? Well, he got shot by Elias Travers. And Travers? Oh, he was killed by a man by the name of Jacobs. That ended it. None of 'em was of much account."

Having Prof. Proctor as a guide, we wonder that Mr. Warner has not adopted the theory by which the Professor accounts for the incurably low character of many of the mountaineers in the Cumberland and Appalachian Mountains, all the way from West Virginia to northern Georgia. He traces them, in a paper read before the Filson Club of Louisville, to "bad stock" from Virginia and North Carolina tide-water counties; men and women who were transported from England as convicts, or vagabonds, or sturdy beggars, many of them the descendants of thralls from before the Norman conquest, and who before, and even for some time after, the Revolution were held in a sort of slavery as white "servants."

Our writer hopes a great deal for the elevation of this people from the influx of fresh blood—Swiss and German colonies of farmers and vine-growers; Northern men developing the coal and iron mine; railroads, and the new life begotten of the railroad. These things will bring the reign of law, and will put an end to the worse than Corsican vendetta. Among physical causes for the scraggy stock of eastern Kentucky humanity, he looks rather to their badly cooked food than to a low-bred ancestry, and therefore hopes for improvement from the introduction of better methods of cooking.

The book has no index, and, as it is easily read through in two or three sittings, it needs none.

Nature and Man: Essays Scientific and Philosophical. By William B. Carpenter, C.B., M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., with an introductory memoir by J. Estlin Carpenter, M.A. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

MR. CARPENTER'S memoir of his father is a very modest tribute to a man of very great abilities and commanding worth. It covers only 150 pp., and yet it gives an admirably distinct impression of Dr. Carpenter's personality and various work. He was well born (October 29, 1813), being the son of Dr. Lant Carpenter, a preacher, teacher, and philanthropist, the odor of whose sanctity was in all the Unitarian churches. Mary Carpenter, a leader in the reform of prison discipline, a woman of immense vivacity and practical ability, was sister and companion of the growing boy. Dr. Lant Carpenter's school was remarkable in its day for the emphasis on scientific studies. These gave to the son's mind its life-long bent. Civil engineering attracted him, but there was no opening, and he accepted the study of medicine as a second best. He matured so rapidly that when sixteen we find him lecturing on optics before the Mechanics' Institution in Bristol, where his youth was spent. Studying first with a Bristol physician of high character, in 1834 he went to London and lived a busy life, attending thirty-five lectures a week, not counting a course in comparative anatomy, practising in the hospital, acting as clinical clerk, and studying music in his leisure hours. His interest at this time in Lyell and Herschel was prophetic of the expansion of his later studies.

His education was continued at Edinburgh. His first published paper, on "The Structure and Functions of the Organs of Respiration in the Vegetable and Animal Kingdoms," was the beginning of a series of publications seeking to bring the animal and vegetable kingdoms under a common law. Before his graduation, in 1839, he had published one of the best-known of all his works, 'Principles of General and Comparative Physiology.' Returning to Bristol, he endeavored to establish himself in practice there, but with small success. His reputation as a lecturer and author actually hindered him. A professorship was much more to his mind, but at Edinburgh, where he first applied, his Unitarianism was a fatal bar. He was forced for bread-winning to the preparation of a 'Cyclopædia of Natural Science' and a tutorship in Lady Byron's family.

In 1842 appeared his 'Principles of Human Physiology,' the book by which the general public always knew him best. His ability was soon after recognized, and honors crowded on him thick and fast. First (1845) came the Fullerian Professorship in the Royal Institution; simultaneously a lectureship in the London Hospital on General Anatomy and Physiology; in 1847, the Examinership in Anatomy and Physiology in the University of London, and in the same year a geological lectureship in the British Museum; in 1849, the chair of Medical Jurisprudence in University College; in 1852, the principalship of University Hall; in 1856, the Registrarship of the University of London. For a few years the positions in University College and University Hall were held in connection with his registrarship, but they were resigned as the former made heavier demands upon his time and strength. For twenty-three years he continued in this office, which made his a leading share in the direction of the University. His business qualities were equal to his scholarly attainments.

There are many pleasing incidents and episodes in Mr. Carpenter's memoir of his father. One of the most pleasing is the manner of his recovery from a very serious illness in 1863. There was a complete collapse of all his vital and volitional energies. He could do nothing, he cared for nothing; he seemed prematurely old and near to death. But one day a distinguished geologist brought him some specimens from the Canadian limestones. At once his interest was aroused and his recovery began. In 1868 and the two following years, Dr. Carpenter was the director of deep-sea dredging expeditions which were fertile in results, and when the *Challenger* was chartered for her famous cruise around the world, the proffered direction of the expedition was a very great temptation. Dreading absorption by a "dominant idea," he took the advice of friends and accepted their decision. It was contrary to his inclination, but he had no vain regrets as he settled down to his habitual routine. In the later years of his life he lectured very frequently to great popular audiences, but trusted wholly to the largeness of his thought and the clearness of his exposition as the means of making his lectures attractive to the multitude. After some months of failing strength, but while still in the performance of his regular duties, his death, hastened by an accident, occurred November 13, 1885.

Following the lectures and articles which make up the larger part of the present book, there is a chronological list of Dr. Carpenter's publications. It is the record of a wonderfully busy life. It is fifteen pages long, and though it contains no mention of controversial letters to newspapers, there are 293 titles, many of them indicating elaborate works. Roughly classified, they will be found to fall into three periods, corresponding to three different kinds of work. During the first period Dr. Carpenter's work was not that of an original investigator. "His mind at this time preferred to dwell on large and general conceptions, to discover analogies, to follow out principles rather than to come in close contact with actual facts." Both of his great works on physiology belong to the first period, and for the wide range of facts on which they were based he relied mainly on others. In his arrangement of these facts, and in the generalizations he built up from them, he displayed much originality and penetration. The mid period of his life and authorship was a period of original investigation, and its energy was concentrated on the study of the Foraminifera, his 'Researches' appearing in four parts, 1855–1860. It was this study which interested him so deeply in the deep-sea dredgings ten years further on.

In the third period of his authorship the relations of science and religion engrossed his interest to a remarkable degree. Against the automatism and determinism of Huxley and Clifford, he did vigorous battle for the free agency of man. He had begun life as a determinist, and his studies in automatism had been serious and prolonged. His doctrine of "unconscious cerebration" was one of the most interesting features of his 'Mental Physiology.' He could go far with Huxley and Clifford, but not to their conclusion. To harmonize evolution with theism was another task of the third period, and to show that an argument from design, if not Paley's, was still valid. A majority of the fifteen papers collected in this volume deal with the questions which interested and sometimes agitated him in his later

years. Those who are acquainted with Dr. Martineau's thought will notice many similarities to it in Dr. Carpenter's. It would be interesting to know which was the more influenced by the other. They were good friends, and frequently conferred upon the highest things.

Dr. Carpenter's relations to Darwin's hypothesis are clearly defined in both the memoir and the subsequent papers. Long before the publication of the 'Origin of Species,' Dr. Carpenter was tending to an evolutionary conception of the world, and some of his foreshadowings of this are of great interest. The 'Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation' found in him a sympathetic reader, approving and condemning much. He hailed Darwin as the inaugurator of a new era in biological science, but insisted that natural selection only expressed a general fact, and was not a *vera causa*. Dr. Carpenter's mind, too, in general was much more theological than Darwin's, and his compromise between pantheism and anthropomorphism seems little likely to sustain itself entire. The anti-scientific, who have made much of the atrophy of Darwin's love of music and poetry, will find a counter fact in Dr. Carpenter's delight in music and poetry, which never failed. For many years he played the organ in the Hampstead Unitarian Church. His home life was rarely beautiful.

Manual of Oriental Antiquities. By Ernest Babelon, Librarian of the Department of Medals and Antiques in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. Translated and enlarged by B. T. A. Evetts, M.A., of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities, British Museum. With 241 illustrations. 12mo, pp. xix and 312. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

With the appearance of the invaluable "Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des Beaux-Arts," France has established her claim to the first place in the popular instruction as well as in the practice of the fine arts in our time. In the preface to his 'Grammaire des arts du dessin,' Charles Blanc expressed, with his usual eloquence of style, his regret at seeing public instruction in France "muet sur les questions d'art." Taking this as their watchword, the organizers of the "Bibliothèque," stimulated by the patronage of the Government, which assured them financial success, and honored with prizes from the Académie Française and the Académie des Beaux-Arts, have produced a series of small volumes on the history and theory of the fine arts, in which one is puzzled whether to admire most the standard of authority, the simplicity of style, or the excellence of the illustrations. In such a series new theories and doctrines are naturally not to be looked for, yet the fact that the thirty-two volumes already published were written by such men as Eugène Müntz, Fr. Lenormant, Mathias Duval, Maspero, Collignon, Havard, and Delaborde (to select a few names from many), is a sufficient guarantee that they are by no means mere compilations, like most of the handbooks on matters of art to which we have hitherto been accustomed. Rejecting the doctrine that a little knowledge is a dangerous thing, these men, selected because they represent the best authority on the subjects of which they treat respectively, seek to give to the student of art or the visitor of museums such knowledge of the history and the processes of the various arts and schools of art as will enable him to appreciate intelligently the objects he sees about him—in other words, to do for art what Tyndall, Huxley, and their followers have done for science in the way of making it popular.

To this series M. Babelon's 'L'Archéologie Orientale' belongs, and it possesses many of the excellent qualities which we have attributed to the work as a whole. As the ground covered — Chaldæa, Assyria, Persia, Syria, Judæa, Phœnicia, and Carthage — occupies four volumes of MM. Perrot and Chipiez's monumental 'Histoire de l'Art dans l'Antiquité,' nothing more than a summary treatment of the subject is to be expected, and the author modestly alludes to his book as only an abridgment. This abridgment, however, is made with admirable skill, and what the author does tell is told so clearly and simply that even the reader to whom the subject is entirely new cannot fail to form a well-defined conception of the characteristics of the arts of the great Oriental monarchies, and of their relations to one another. To be sure, M. Babelon has been greatly helped in this task by the fact that the extant monuments of these countries are relatively few in number, as compared with those of Greece and Rome; but none the less does he deserve praise for the manner in which he has grouped his material so as to avoid the possibility of confusion, and, in connection with each topic, to create an impression which should be perfectly distinct in itself, and yet bear certain relations to both that which precedes and that which follows it. Had he been willing to risk taxing the patience of his readers too far by insisting more upon dates and repeating them oftener, his success in this effect would have been still greater. The relation which the art of Assur-bani-pal bore to that of Assur-nazir-pal can be appreciated by the student only when he has the relative dates of these two monarchs firmly fixed in his mind. So it is with the connection between Persian and Assyrian art; and to those to whom Oriental art is interesting chiefly because of its influence upon the beginnings of Greek art, the dates of the monuments of the former are of prime importance. These the author gives too sparingly, and as a result the reader who is not familiar with Assyrian chronology, for example, will occasionally find it difficult to follow the thread of the development of Assyrian art, with no other guide than the names of the kings under whom important changes took place.

We wish that the chapter on Hittite art had been a little more expanded, now that Hittite monuments and civilization are the subject of so much discussion; but as a recompense for what is sacrificed there, M. Babelon gives a full and detailed description of the Temple of Jerusalem which will be very acceptable to students of the Bible, as a résumé of the latest theories and investigations concerning the one great monument of Jewish art.

Mr. Evetts's translation is intelligent and satisfactory from an archæological point of view, but unskilful in the use of language, so that the grace and ease of the original are often completely sacrificed by his attempt to render his author as literally as possible. Too close fidelity to the words of the original may be a good fault, but it is a fault nevertheless, and sometimes results in such inelegances as this: "The cuneiform inscriptions themselves, while the empire founded by Nebuchadnezzar was flourishing, often point out temples and palaces falling to ruin, which the kings strive without ceasing to repair or rebuild." There are many such rough passages in the book which the alteration of a single word would have made smooth without modifying in the least the author's meaning—indeed, would have conveyed his meaning much more easily.

Of the 241 illustrations it is enough to say that they are quite up to the standard of the other volumes of the series.

Papiers et Filigranes des Archives de Gênes, 1154 à 1700. Par C. M. Briquet. Geneva. 1888. 8vo.

For nearly a century the subject of the watermarks in paper has been studied with increasing zeal, in the hope of being able thereby to approximate with some degree of certainty the date of documents and books. Vast collections of these designs have been made and classified. Sotheby, in his 'Typography of the Fifteenth Century' and 'Principia Typographica,' reproduced 1,100 of them. Longhi, in 'Le antiche Carte fabrianesi,' described 1,887 belonging to Fabriano, which was one of the oldest and most active centres of paper manufacture. M. Briquet, in the work before us, has figured 597 gathered in the archives of Genoa, where the dates of the documents enabled him to arrive with some degree of certainty at the probable age of the paper. These he has accompanied with a chronological table and a descriptive list, in which, under each design, he enumerates the other places where it has been found. The industry bestowed on the preparation of the volume is most praiseworthy, and the preliminary account of the introduction of the paper industry into Europe from China is interesting; yet one can hardly help concluding that the industry has been misapplied, and that the utility of these researches amounts to little.

In certain limited fields the study of watermarks may yield satisfactory results. The series of prints known as the Iconographia of Van Dyck presented many puzzling questions to collectors, for the "states" are numerous, the coppers passed through many hands—indeed, they are still in existence—and it was not always easy to distinguish between the different impressions. In 1877 Dr. Wibiral, after a patient examination of some 15,000 prints, published his 'L'Iconographie d'Antoine Van Dyck,' with facsimiles of nearly a hundred water-marks which he had noted in the papers employed, and he succeeded in classifying, with wonderful accuracy, the succession in the different stages of the plates during the period of about thirty years in which they have interest for collectors. We have found his results almost uniformly correct, though we have met with several water-marks which had escaped him.

When applied, however, to paper-making throughout Europe during the course of some six hundred years, the unlimited magnitude of the field and the elements of uncertainty pervading it render hopeless the effort to coördinate and systematize the infinite variety of designs. The water-mark is produced by a wire bent into a pattern and soldered on the fine laid wires of the mould with which the pulp, in hand-made papers, is dipped from the vat. This mould, M. Briquet informs us, wears out in a year or two. As every workman must have one, it is easy to see how many moulds a single paper-mill would use in ten years. It might be the intention to have the same design on all, and yet no two might be exactly alike, for many of the designs are exceedingly crude, and betray the utmost carelessness in bending the wires as they were soldered on, while, in the progress of wear, distortions and partial breaking away must have undoubtedly occurred. Thus the minute and infinite variations which are found in favorite designs, such as the pot, or the crown, or the foolscap, may have no significance, or may indicate a century difference in time and the distance between Venice and Ant-

werp, for certain designs remained in use for hundreds of years and were employed all over Europe. Besides, they frequently signified not so much the individual paper-maker as the size and quality of the paper. Then the question is still further complicated by the currents of trade. Italian papers were carried all through Europe, while each land had, besides, its own mills using virtually similar water-marks, so that a Barcelona or Nürnberg MS. on paper bearing the favorite bull's head may represent a local manufacture of one century or a Genoese or Venetian make of another. When Wibiral, in his limited field, reproduces twenty-seven varieties of the *folie* or foolscap—and we have met in the Van Dyck series three or four additional—it will be readily seen how vast is the material, and how completely absent are the factors which would enable the investigator to educe from it trustworthy principles serviceable to the archæologist or historian. In isolated cases, when some peculiar water-mark may reasonably be presumed to have been used by a single maker during a limited period, some assistance may be hoped for, as well as in the rare instances where the name of the maker was employed; but with the great mass of papers the investigation, however interesting as an amusement, will never, we fear, produce results of scientific value.

We have compared with M. Briquet's plates the water-marks of a number of fifteenth-century books and MSS., Spanish, French, Italian, and German, without being able to identify a single one, though they consisted of the bull's head, the gauntlet, the balance, and other favorite marks. Of course, a limited experiment such as this proves little, but yet a single identification would have been a satisfaction. In this investigation one fact proved the inherent impossibility of reducing the study of water-marks to a science. The Seville, 1491, edition of 'Las Siete Partidas' is printed on paper bearing the well-known mark of the gauntlet with a star. Now of two sheets gathered together in the same signature, one happens to have a star with five points and the other one with six—thus relegating them into two different types. Evidently the workmen who fashioned and soldered the wires followed their own devices, with cruel indifference to the antiquarians who, four hundred years later, were to endeavor to deduce laws from their careless vagaries.

Far Away and Long Ago. By Frances Anne Kemble. Henry Holt & Co. 1889.

THIS is a sketch of life fifty or sixty years since in Berkshire County, Massachusetts. To be more precise, we may say that it is a sketch of life in Stockbridge and Lenox at the time when Mrs. Kemble knew it well, before the period of railroads, and during the time of a democratic simplicity of life and tastes long since vanished. The characters are not altogether portraits, as some who have reviewed the book seem to imagine. Judge Selbourne and his wife were undoubtedly suggested by friends of Mrs. Kemble's, and Mumbet was the name of a servant the events of whose life make part of a family history; but Mrs. Kemble's Mumbet is of a different race, and altogether a different person, from the Mumbet of that story, and the Judge and his wife are "composite" types. This, at least, was our idea as to the Selbournes on first reading the story; others will say that they represent the late Mr. and Mrs. Charles Sedgwick, of Lenox. However this may be, the sketches, or portraits, are very agreeably done.

The question raised by the book is whether the picture of the old New England life is correct or not—a question hard for any one of the present period to answer. The old life has been blotted out. The types have been effaced, and new and different types evolved. There are railroads where there were once coaches, and wealth and poverty where there was once a remarkable equality of condition; there are a thousand other changes, moral and material. To write about the former state of society requires a long and vivid memory, and here and there Mrs. Kemble might, perhaps, be proved guilty of anachronisms. But she has succeeded in giving her story an atmosphere distinctively American. The *tone* of the people is American, their conversation and way of thinking and feeling about one another belong to no other country, and to no other part of the country than New England.

The descriptions of the country are very pretty, and the story just simple enough to serve as a background for the sketches of manners and customs. An Englishman with his two daughters are three of the principal characters of the story, and these, with an early Irishman—the Irish emigration was then just beginning—furnish a contrast to the American characters which enables Mrs. Kemble to put the American traits in relief. Those who love New England and its past will be interested in the book; it gives the impression produced upon the mind of an unusually gifted and accomplished Englishwoman by an American community which, while it existed, attracted the attention and interest of all who came in contact with it. This, foreigners said, was American democratic life. Impermanent as it was, and primitive, as compared with the civilization which has succeeded it, lovers of the past may be pardoned if they regret the disappearance of many of its features.

History of the Celebration of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Promulgation of the Constitution of the United States. Edited by Hampton L. Carson, Secretary of the Constitutional Centennial Commission, with illustrations. Published under the direction and by the authority of the Commission. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

THE Constitutional Centennial Commission, of which John A. Kasson was President and Hampton L. Carson was Secretary, has published in two ponderous tomes, one of 478 pages and the other of 514 pages, a circumstantial and minute history of the celebration at Philadelphia, in September, 1887, of the one hundredth anniversary of the promulgation of the Constitution of the United States. The publication is edited by the Secretary, and leaves nothing to be desired in point of fulness, though the quality of the contents is very unequal in respect of permanent value, comprising as the volumes do not only the commemorative addresses of President Cleveland, Mr. Justice Miller, and others, but also much that relates to the mere machinery of the celebration, such as the reports of the local committees on transportation, music, medical care of the visiting troops, reception of guests, etc. To these reports are added descriptive lists of the industrial processions and military displays held in honor of the event, with an account of the ceremonies in Independence Square on the memorial day, and of the banquets which succeeded it. As of permanent value we may cite the history of the formation of the Constitution and of the causes which led to its adoption, by Mr. Kasson; the biographies of the members composing the Federal Convention, prepared by Mr. Carson; and the history of the several amendments which have been added to the Constitution.

In the 'American Museum' for 1788 the reader will find an account of the celebration which was held during that year in Philadelphia in honor of the ratification of the Constitution by a sufficient number of States to insure its adoption. A comparison of the pageant of 1788 with that of 1887 would seem to indicate that while such popular spectacles have gained immensely in volume, they have not greatly improved in point of variety as to their constituent elements. That our colored fellow-citizens should have taken little more part in the ceremonies of 1887 than in those of 1788 will certainly be matter of surprise and regret to others than the editor of these volumes. It has been pertinently said that the "nullus liber homo" clause in Magna Charta is worth all the Latin classics, and would have been worth still more if the word "liber" had not pointed to the presence of slavery in England in the time of King John. It might have been supposed that, alike from race pride and from civic ambition, our negro citizens would have been eager to bear witness, by their presence in this pageant, to the fact that the previous condition of servitude had disappeared from American political society, and that the American Magna Charta no longer gave the lie to the American Declaration of Independence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Anne R. The Rose of Flame, and Other Poems of Love. 2d ed. C. T. Dillingham.
Boyle, Rev. G. D. Characters and Episodes of the Great Rebellion. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $2.
Butler, A. O. What Moses Saw and Heard. Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons.
Butler, Rev. J. G. The Bible Work: The Old Testament. Vol. III. Funk & Wagnalls.
Caspar's Directory of the American Book, News, and Stationery Trade. Wholesale and Retail. Milwaukee, Wis.: C. N. Caspar. $12.
Fay, T. S. The Three Germanys; Glimpses into Their History. New York: 65 John St. The Author.
Helder, A. Chronicles of a Health Resort. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Jessop, G. H. Judge Lynch: a Romance of the California Vineyards. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Kurtz, Prof. Church History. Vol. II. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Saltus, E. The Pace That Kills. Belford, Clarke & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 15, 1889.

The Week.

THE meeting held at Harrisburg last week was nominally the Republican State Convention of Pennsylvania, but actually a demonstration for Matthew S. Quay. After endorsing the Chicago platform of last year, the Convention set about its business by passing two resolutions on the tremendous subject of Quay. The first of these dwells upon the "Pennsylvania leadership" of last year as the cause of the party's victory in the campaign. Not satisfied with this, another resolution follows immediately, giving particulars. "The Republicans of Pennsylvania," the platform continues, "claim especial recognition, for the reason that, in the hour of its extremity, they furnished to the national Republican organization a Chairman who, during all the anxious days of the recent national campaign, in coöperation with the honored representatives of other States, so controlled the forces at hand as to compel victory. The thanks of the Republicans of this Commonwealth are due and hereby tendered to the Hon. Matthew S. Quay for the honorable and masterful way in which he conducted that campaign." This, we think, is without precedent in our political history, as an example of arrogance in tone and blatherskite in composition, Mr. Quay not being the nominee of the Convention for any office, and therefore not properly the subject of the eulogy customarily bestowed upon candidates. The placing of these two resolutions ahead of the one which endorses the Administration of President Harrison was evidently not the result of accident. It had the clear design of affirming that Quay is the greater man of the two, and it authorizes Quay to write himself, as the Texas doorkeeper did, "a biger man than old Grant."

That such a convention should endorse the Administration because it "seeks so to adjust the burdens of taxation that those persons and interests able to bear most shall bear most, and so that those able to bear least shall bear least," was to be expected. The theory and practice of representative government require and suppose that taxes shall be laid by the legislative branch, and that the executive shall not "adjust the burdens of taxation" at all. The present executive has had no opportunity as yet to advise Congress how such burdens should be adjusted. The Convention has, therefore, given its approval to a policy unknown to the Constitution or to any form of civilized government in the world. Nor was this move made by mistake. It was a commendation of the policy of increasing taxes by Treasury decision, and substituting that method of advancing private and special interests in place of acts of Congress. We look in vain in the platform for the condemnation of Trusts and "combines" which the Philadelphia *Press* urged upon the Convention. Nothing can be found in it which implies any dissatisfaction with any monopoly whatsoever. On the other hand, there is a resolution which "heartily commends the wise and friendly liberality shown by Commissioner Tanner to his brother soldiers," such as rerating the pension of a rich man, a Senator of the United States, and lifting $4,000 cash from the public treasury into his pocket in a lump sum.

Four years ago the Ohio Republican platform declared that "the Republican party, which enacted the present Civil-Service Law, will faithfully maintain it and cheerfully aid in all needed amendments to give it full force"; that "it is committed to extend the law to all grades of service to which it is applicable," and that "ample appropriations should be made to enforce it in letter and spirit." This year the Ohio Republican platform contained no allusion to the subject of the Civil-Service Law. In like manner, four years ago the Pennsylvania Republican platform enumerated among "the live issues" "the establishment of a true system of civil service, which will give a fixed tenure of office, *and no removal during the term of office except for adequate public cause*"; at the same time arraigning the Democratic Administration for its "hypocritical avoidance of pledges touching the civil service." This year the Pennsylvania Republican platform contains no allusion to the subject of the civil service.

Elections in Kentucky had long been so terribly one-sided that nobody outside the State could take much interest in them, but two years ago the opposition developed unexpected strength, and cut down the lead of the Democratic candidate for Governor over his Republican rival to less than 17,000 votes. The only State office at issue this year was the Treasurership, and as it is an "off year," the Republicans entered the contest with unusual spirit, while the Democrats appeared to take little interest in the canvass. So apathetic, indeed, was the Democratic campaign that a fortnight ago the party managers seemed to be in a panic lest the Republicans might snatch a victory; but the result shows that there is little prospect of a political revolution in Kentucky, the latest returns indicating that the Democratic majority for Treasurer will rise to about 35,000.

The Philadelphia *Press* makes a serious blunder when it says, in explanation of this victory, that "Kentucky has the largest number of illiterates in proportion to its population of any State in the Union." The last census showed the proportion of persons ten years of age and upwards unable to read in Kentucky as but 22.2 per cent., while it was 24.1 per cent. in Texas, 27.7 per cent. in Tennessee, 28.8 per cent. in Arkansas, 34 per cent. in Virginia, 38 per cent. in Florida, 38.3 per cent. in North Carolina, 41.9 per cent. in Mississippi, 42.8 per cent. in Georgia, 43.5 per cent. in Alabama, 45.8 per cent. in Louisiana, and 48.2 per cent. in South Carolina. Indeed, the only States in which slavery existed where the percentage of illiteracy in 1880 was less than in Kentucky were Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and Missouri, in all of which the percentage of negroes is very small. Moreover, the proportion of illiterates in Kentucky has undoubtedly been diminished since 1880 by the development of the public-school system. The per-capita allotment from the State Treasury for this purpose has been carried up from 72 cents to $2.15, and there has been, also, a steady growth of that "local supervision and interest" which, as President Harrison said in his speech on the Blair bill, in the Senate, on March 25, 1884, are the only things that "will bring these constituencies, that are now so backward in the race of education, abreast with other States." The growth of this local interest would have been even more rapid except for the hope of Federal aid, of which Gen. Harrison, in the same speech, said: "In my judgment there could be no worse policy than to throw, in a single year, into those States $15,000,000 out of the national Treasury."

The latest issue of the *Valley Virginian*, published at Staunton, Va., appears to assure the defeat of Mahone's attempt to again seize control of the Old Dominion. The *Valley Virginian* is a newspaper of the highest character, conducted by Mr. S. M. Yost, one of the ablest and best members of the Republican party in the State. In a leading editorial article on "The Line of Duty," it says that "it is a Republican paper," that "it believes in the principles and policies of the Republican party," that "it will support its organization when it is dedicated to the maintenance of those principles," but that "it will not be the willing instrument of any faction, or the slavish apologist of methods which can have no other effect than to disintegrate and wreck the Republican party." In another article upon the "honorable compromise," as the recent "deal" ratified by the President is called by the Mahoneites, the *Valley Virginian* denounces "the arrangement which seems to have been consummated by which the full control of the patronage of the Government in Virginia is turned over to Gen. Mahone"; declares that "the President has been deceived in the promise that a full Republican vote can be secured for any ticket that may be nominated, and that the Republicans of Virginia will allow the bull ring to be placed in their noses, to be led wherever the bosses may direct"; and adds: "We believe we speak for 50,000 true, tried Republicans when we say they will not surrender their rights and their convictions at the command of any cabal or combine that would seek to prostitute the Republican organization to such base uses. They will

draw the line between the *Republican party* and the *Mahone faction*, and when the two conflict, they will support the former all the time, and place their seal of condemnation on the latter."

It is amazing that Northern Republicans should not see as clearly as a Southern Republican like Mr. Yost how fatally the party is discredited when a Republican Administration tries to make such a man as Mahone boss of a great State. Mahone is a worse man than Butler, but Massachusetts Republicans who considered their State disgraced by the elevation of Butler to its Governorship condone, if they do not commend, the attempt to saddle Mahone upon Virginia through the prostitution of the civil service of the United States in that commonwealth. There is not a Northern Republican State which would stand such rule as Warmoth gave Louisiana and Clayton gave Arkansas, in the reconstruction era, and yet Northern Republicans do not protest when a Republican Administration turns over the patronage of those States to these discredited politicians. They even profess to wonder that Southern Democrats of character and property do not turn Republicans while the Mahones and the Warmoths and the Claytons personify Republicanism in the South.

The attention of farmers is directed to the unavailing effort of Secretary Rusk of the Department of Agriculture to secure from the Treasury Department the admission free of duty of potash salts "expressly used for manure," as provided in the tariff of 1883. The Secretary's letter on this subject contains a late decision by Judge Lacombe that such salts *are* entitled to free admission; but the Treasury refuses to accede to the decision until it shall have been passed upon by the Supreme Court. Meanwhile, somebody who is making potash salts in this country will be licensed to plunder the American tobacco-grower, and eventually the importers of the salts will recover the amount unlawfully taken from them. The judgment awarded by Judge Lacombe in the case before him was $2,225.84. Interest on this sum is now running at 6 per cent.

The pressure upon the Treasury to levy a customs tax on railway cars engaged in transportation and entering the United States from a foreign country, has all along seemed to us as only a part of the protectionist "fad" which culminated in the election of Mr. Harrison. Of course, it is always open to Congress, by an appropriate law, to tax such cars on each entry. Secretary Manning suggested to the House Foreign Affairs Committee, in reply to inquiry respecting retaliation for Canadian treatment of our fishermen, that if Congress wished to be offensive against Canada, it could levy such a customs tax, but he did not intimate that the Treasury could levy the tax under existing legislation. That was the outcome of a subsequent condition of affairs in the Treasury, when, under Assistant-Secretary Maynard and Special-Agent Tichenor, there seemed to be no limit to the levy and increase of taxes by Treasury order. That these cars are brought into the United States no one can deny, nor that the tariff law of 1883 covers railway cars. Secretary Windom concedes that when he warns the Detroit Collector that the "free importation of foreign-built railway cars" is not to be permitted. If foreign-built or foreign-owned railway cars, bringing merchandise into the country, are to be taxed, then why not foreign-built or foreign-owned vessels arriving at the port of New York? And, indeed, on the basis of the Vanderbilt-portrait decision, why not every vessel or car or horse and wagon, no matter where built or by whom owned?

Secretary Windom steers clear of the main question by saying that his predecessors have held that the cars are not taxable, because engaged in the international transportation of articles in bond, and Congress has authorized such bonding contrivances for the articles. He treats the cars as vehicles, or movable coverings for the bonded articles, and as the articles are bonded, so are the cars. He says nothing of mere passenger cars not bonded, but which are stopped on the frontier in order to levy and collect taxes on taxable articles therein. Free international traffic in such articles, free trade therein, is not permitted; and why are the cars untaxed? He abstains from discussing the question *de novo*, and yet, only a few days before, his Department had decided that, if an American-built and owned steamer on the lakes received repairs in Canadian waters not required by stress of weather, the *repairs* were dutiable when the steamer entered an American port. Really, what a queer thing our protective tariff is.

The flurry in Atlanta last week over the appointment by the Postmaster of a negro to a place in the office where he would come into constant association with a young white woman, threatened on Monday to develop into a storm which might involve the two races in open warfare. The ill-feeling had been aggravated by the shooting of a negro offender by a white policeman, and the excitement grew almost uncontrollable when it was announced that the negroes proposed to burn in effigy the white woman who resigned her place in the office rather than associate with the negro, in return for the burning in effigy by the whites of the Postmaster who appointed the negro. Cool-headed leaders among the whites, notably Gov. Gordon, succeeded in averting a collision, although the ugly feeling which has been aroused will not easily subside. The whole performance appears ridiculous to outsiders. Negroes have been employed in other positions in the Atlanta Post-office without anybody's making objection, and in the present case it would seem to be a purely personal matter for the woman affected to settle herself. She settled it by resignation; but another white woman was readily found who was glad to accept the position — a lady who, the *Constitution* says, is the widow of a school principal, and "is well known throughout the city." So far as the Postmaster is concerned, he appears simply to have discharged a duty, under the Civil-Service Law, as to which he had no discretion.

The Committee on World's-Fair finance appointed by the Mayor is entirely competent to deal with the question before it if the members take hold of the subject in the same spirit that they would undertake the financing of a new railroad or any great industrial enterprise. They cannot have failed to observe the very general comment of the press in other cities, that there is no public spirit in New York. The idea is commonly entertained that either Chicago or St. Louis can raise more money for any purpose when local pride is aroused than New York can. Sarcastic inquiries are everywhere made concerning the state of the Grant Monument Fund and the Centennial Arch Fund, and it is assumed that because a million dollars have not been contributed to the one and a hundred thousand dollars to the other, New York has no public spirit and no local pride. The fact is forgotten, perhaps, that the Washington National Monument, a commemorative enterprise in which the whole nation was equally interested, lingered thirty years, although a very industrious committee had it in charge, and was finally finished by an appropriation from the public treasury, and would not have been finished in any other way to this day, if ever. The Grant Monument Committee laid out too large a programme for voluntary effort. New York gives very large sums of money every year to charitable purposes. Her contributions to the sufferers by the Johnstown flood and the Chicago fire were in proportion to her resources. Nobody has ever found fault with her for the smallness of her donations to the afflicted, either within or without her own precincts. But she has not been very liberal in the way of monuments, nor has any other city, nor have the American people in general distinguished themselves in this way. Even the monuments to Lincoln and Douglas, at Springfield and Chicago, were built by public appropriations of the State, and the fine bronze statue of Lincoln at Chicago was the gift of a single citizen.

The new schism in the Single-Tax party is not made exactly intelligible in the last number of Henry George's paper. The Rev. Pentecost, in the *Twentieth Century* (schismatic), asked Mr. George, immediately on his return from Europe, nine questions *seriatim*. He wanted to know, first, whether Mr. George "considers that the object of the *Standard*, and of all those who are working for emancipation, should be the enforcement of *a great religious truth*, or a mere readjustment of taxation, and nothing more." Also, whether he agrees with one of his fellow-editors in thinking "that the emancipation movement should be lifted 'out of the howling-dervish stage of emotional insanity, into the reign of common sense and practical action?'"—the "howling-dervish stage of emotional insanity" being a sarcastic phrase intended to be descriptive of Mr. Pentecost and his supporters. Also, whether he "approves of the editorial declarations of the *Standard* that

'the right of private property in land is not the present practical question in connection with the single tax.'" Also, several other pointed interrogatories, all implying that Mr. George is sheering away from his text and abandoning his flock to the wolves. If so, the Rev. Pentecost stands ready to become their shepherd, and has prepared himself for that function by procuring lists of a number of Mr. George's Single-Tax clubs and sending specimen copies of his own paper to them. This method of preserving the flock has, however, been stopped by orders, issued by Mr. George as soon as he arrived, not to allow Mr. Pentecost to have access to the lists.

Two different organizations of Socialists, the Possibilists and the Marxists, have just held separate congresses in Paris. Some attempts were made to fuse the two bodies, but without success. It is a little hard to make out what great difference exists between the two. Certainly none appears great enough to keep them long apart. Both agree in their main end and aim, which is the appropriation by society at large of the capital now existing in private hands. Both desire a communism — or "collectivism," as their word is—and their only difference seems to be as to the agent who shall have charge of the public goods and be in the possession of power. The Marxists would prefer a collectivism organized by the State, while the Possibilists look rather to municipal collectivism. Doubtless, if at any time, in consequence of a revolution, let us say, or of some other social upheaval, either party saw a chance of success, the other party would at once join it and march under its banners into the Promised Land.

Everybody who has—as so many have—found pleasure and profit in Prof. Mahaffy's literary and historical work, will be pained and disappointed by his treating the American public, almost as soon as he landed, to a sharp lecture on the impropriety of differing from him on one of the most burning, notorious, and much thrashed questions of British politics. It appears that those who do not agree with him about Irish Home Rule have had "their minds poisoned from Ireland by agents of the non-Unionists"; that they cannot understand it "unless they are deep scholars," and that they are ignorant of the doctrines and history of the Catholic Church, of which he was pleased to give them a brief sketch. Considering that nearly half the English people, including some of their ablest statesmen and scholars, and a majority of the Scotch, dissent from the Professor on this topic, it is difficult to know what name to give to this rebuke of his to Americans. We shall only call it at present an indiscretion which we hope he will not repeat. He will be cordially welcomed here as a clergyman and a scholar, but nobody looked for him as a party politician, or expected his political opinions to have the smallest value. That he is rather unfit to discuss questions of government publicly, his disquisition on the relations of Utah and the Southern States to the Union showed clearly, and we hope his Chautauquan friends will turn his attention into some more suitable field.

The Canadians are plunged into a fierce religious controversy, which may have important political results, by the restoration to the Jesuits by the Quebec Legislature of the property which was confiscated when they were expelled from the country in 1782. It is estimated at $300,000 now, and when accompanied, as it is or is to be, by the incorporation of the Order in Canada, it is no small gain for the Church. The fund, of course, will be at the absolute disposition of the Pope. The transaction has created a tremendous uproar among the Protestants of the other provinces of the Dominion, and they are furious with the Governor-General for allowing the act to go into force without vetoing it or "disallowing" it, as the phrase is, which he is empowered to do under the Canadian Constitution. On what ground he could have vetoed it, it is, however, hard to see. The property in question lies within the Province of Quebec. It is confessedly at the disposal of the provincial Legislature, and the only good objection to its restoration is a moral and not a legal one—namely, that the Jesuits are a bad organization, which ought not to be encouraged. It is very difficult in our day to put this argument into legal shape. The Jesuits' plea is, that the confiscation of their property was simple robbery accomplished with the strong hand, and that its restoration is restitution and not simple donation. A good many Canadians think such a thing could not be done in the United States; but it could. Nothing prevents the establishment of the Catholic Church in New York, with rich endowments from the State Treasury, but the determination of the majority of the people of the State not to permit anything of the sort. The trouble in Quebec is, that the majority is Catholic, pious, and prolific, and thinks the Jesuits estimable and ill-used men; and how this difficulty is to be got over in our day it is hard to see. It will, however, make a good many Americans think twice before letting Quebec into the Union.

A sale by auction was made in London on July 17 which in its way is as noteworthy as the sale of Millet's picture. The property disposed of was "one entire and undivided share in the Adventurer's Moiety of the estates and interests of the New River." The "Adventurer" was Hugh Myddelton, the projector of the New River, and this is the first share of that property which has been sold since the work was completed in the year 1613. The value of a share at that date was £100. There were seventy-two shares in all; half were taken by the King and half went to Sir Hugh, who was knighted by James I. in recognition of his work. The King's shares were afterwards sold by Charles I. to the second Sir Hugh Myddelton for a yearly payment to the crown of £500 in perpetuity. The net return on these 36 shares was last year £93,960, though the nominal capital of the company, as shown by Parliamentary returns, is only about three and a-half millions. The company possesses the exclusive right of supplying water to all the northern suburbs of London, to the whole of the city of London and part of Westminster, to several wealthy parishes in the West End, and to parts of Middlesex and Hertfordshire. Valuable estates also belong to it, the chief of which, the Myddelton Square property, consists of fifty acres in the very heart of London. The New River aqueduct was an object of public interest and curiosity long after it was completed. Evelyn notes in his diary a visit to it in the year 1686. The share that was sold the other day brought £122,800.

The *Times* on Saturday had an amusing letter about a certain class of American travellers in Europe, of whom the number has, under the influence of Cook's tours and the growth of wealth, or rather the spread of wealth, increased enormously during the past ten years. They pass over the European Continent no longer as single spies, but in heavy battalions, sometimes "personally conducted," in squadrons of 50 or 100, by one of Cook's captains, but oftener still in helpless little family or neighborhood groups, going they know not where to see they know not what. They are the only foreigners who now penetrate Italy during the summer months, in happy indifference to heat and malaria, but they swarm everywhere. As a general rule, one might search them in vain for the smallest knowledge not only of foreign languages or laws, manners or customs, but of history, of geography, of art, of literature, of antiquities, of any of the things which are absolutely necessary to make European travel anything more than a change of air and scene and a heavy expenditure of cash. The guide-books, even, do little for them, because every guide-book assumes a certain amount of knowledge in the above fields. The two things, as a general rule, which impress them most are the spectacle of women working in the fields and the absence of baggage-checks. What plagues and bewilders them most is the weighing of their trunks at the railroad stations, and the tedious service of dinner in courses at the tables d'hôte. It is not surprising that under these circumstances the elders at least soon get tired and homesick, and that all love to sit down and talk about "Jim Smith and Bill Jones at home." There is a pathetic story, which we believe to be authentic, of a certain general from Maine who, "doing" Europe in company with his wife and daughters a few years ago, met at the great door of St. Peter's at Rome a friend who happened to have about him a copy of Boutelle's Bangor *Whig*, which he offered him, and which came to the General, weary with the Eternal City, as manna in the wilderness. He seized it, sat down on the steps to peruse it, and let his "women-folk" inspect St. Peter's alone—probably the highest compliment the brave Boutelle, or, indeed, any other American journalist, has ever received.

THE BLACK-DIAMOND SEIZURE.

THE cable despatch received by the Montreal *Gazette* stating that "the imperial authorities have decided that British rights in Behring Sea must be protected from outrage," is probably authentic. We so consider it because it represents the sort of decision we should come to in a parallel case. Reluctant as Great Britain is, and must be, to have any difficulty with us, there are limits beyond which she cannot be pushed. The seizure of one's vessels on the high seas is very provoking to national pride. One such seizure may be regarded as accidental and unauthorized, but if followed by another and another and another, a state of public feeling may be excited which no Government can cope with. The Behring Sea controversy is in that critical state where both Governments are at the mercy of chance. A very little spilling of blood, perhaps only accidental, might bring on a deadly conflict. It is important, therefore, to know where we stand, and what our reasons are for being in danger of embroilment with our next of kin.

In the first place, let us dismiss the idea that England will allow (any more than we would) any commercial gain to outweigh the national honor. We have been told over and over again in the past two weeks that she is just as much interested in protecting the seal-fishery as we are; that if we catch the seals, the skins all go to London to be tanned, and sold, and distributed to the world; that consequently she would lose as much as we should by the extermination of the race at the hands of the "pirates." What does all this imply? That any great nation is going to allow others to decide that her subjects are pirates when they are prosecuting on the high seas under her flag a trade which she recognizes as lawful, merely because a tannery is making money? The conception is too absurd.

That England did assent to our suggestion for international policing of Behring Sea, with the express purpose of preserving the seals from destruction, is evidence of her good will, but by no means signifies her assent to our assumption of exclusive police jurisdiction in those waters. On the contrary, it presupposes that we, having put forward the idea of joint action, will stay our hand until it is carried into effect, no delay having been interposed by her meanwhile.

Why were these peaceful and proper negotiations broken off? The diplomatic correspondence does not show, but, perhaps, when the later volume, now in the Government Printing Office, comes out, we may know more. In the absence of better information, it is a fair inference that the political deadlock of the last two years frustrated this intended treaty, as it did the Fishery Treaty, the Extradition Treaty, the Chinese Treaty, and everything else that might have reflected credit upon Mr. Cleveland's Administration. The Senate was determined to reject anything that would have that political effect. Its Committee on Foreign Relations resolved, for example, that the fishery question was not a fit subject for *any* treaty or *any* negotiation, and the Senate refused to amend the treaty that was negotiated in any way whatsoever, or to say in what way it might be made satisfactory.

We allude to these things not in the way of reproach. That is all burnt powder. What we now infer is, that the impossibility of doing *anything* in the foreign department by reason of the political deadlock was the reason why a very promising beginning for the settlement of the Behring Sea question came to no conclusion at all, either satisfactory or otherwise. It is not a strained inference, also, that the present Administration has been so engrossed in the task of peddling out the offices that it could not find time to take up the threads of the suspended negotiation, but was compelled to give a general order respecting Behring Sea, and then trust to luck. Probably it is a sense of laches that inspires high officers of the Government, now that trouble is impending, to apply the term "pirates" to people who are fishing for seals, although if they were taking whales or walruses in the same waters, they would be very respectable persons.

It should be borne in mind that Russia has larger interests in those waters than England has, and that her coöperation is more needful. The seal in his wanderings does not observe the line drawn north and south from Behring Strait, midway between Alton and Copper Islands, nor the line drawn east and west along the Aleutian Islands. He is now on one side and now on the other of both lines. Russia, like ourselves, has seal-breeding islands, from which she derives a revenue. She is interested like ourselves in preserving the race from extermination. To suppose that the seal can be preserved by catching "pirates" on one side of an imaginary line and leaving them free on the other side is ridiculous. Now, Russia was an active party to the negotiation for international protection of the seal. She wanted to have the line of immunity, or non-fishing, drawn considerably south of the Aleutian group, and Mr. Bayard acquiesced in this. But here, as we know, the negotiation ended. It is due to Russia as well as to Great Britain, that it should be resumed on the original lines, and that meanwhile no chance should be left open for the embroilment of the two nations in war or serious estrangement.

THE NEW YORK PAVEMENTS.

PROF. J. S. NEWBERRY, of the Columbia College School of Mines, has been making a careful examination of the different kinds of street pavement in use in some of the principal European cities, and has thrown the result of his observations into a paper in the *School of Mines Quarterly* on "The Street Pavements of New York." These pavements are, notoriously, so bad that they have to a large extent driven out of use every mode of transportation for persons except the railways. The number even of the rich who keep carriages for pleasure either diminishes steadily, or does not increase in proportion to population, so great is the wear and tear of horses and vehicles caused by the condition of the roadway. For invalids—and especially for women invalids—carriage exercise except in the Park has become an impossibility; and to use the Park with comfort or safety they have, consequently, to live very near it. Bad pavements, too, mean insufficient sweeping and general indifference to appearances. The use of the streets to keep wagons in, and to pile up ashes and garbage in, would not be tolerated very long in a well-paved city. From all this, too, the poor are the worst sufferers. Curiously enough, considering how democratic the government is, the rich secure all the good paving and good sweeping there is. It is the quarters of the poor which are most neglected.

It is, of course, only with the material conditions of good city pavement that Prof. Newberry, as a scientific man, occupies himself. He says that "in New York a greater variety of excellent materials for street pavements can be obtained, and at a cheaper rate, than any city in the world," notably the bluestone, which is found in inexhaustible quantities at various points along the Hudson, and granite, which can be found cheap and good in the Highlands about West Point. This latter has been used in the pavement of Fifth Avenue, which he calls "really good," but says it would have been better if "the blocks had been thinner and the roadbed had been more carefully prepared." In fact, this failure to prepare the substratum properly for the pavement is one great cause, perhaps the greatest, of the bad condition of our streets. In his account of the asphalt pavement in London and elsewhere, he touches on another cause, perhaps as powerful as any—the reluctance of Americans to make any provision for the maintenance and repair of streets and roads after they have been once put in order:

> "The result of the experience of the last ten years has clearly shown that the pavement made with the Trinidad asphalt is equal to any in the world, and superior to any other kind of pavement in use. Its excellences—cleanliness, silence, and salubrity—are so apparent that no argument is now needed to enforce them. To these may be added, and placed first in the list, *economy*; for it costs as little and lasts as long as any other good pavement, and is much less trying to horses, vehicles, and human nerves. It is rapidly growing in favor, and it is not too much to say that it is the pavement of the future, and is destined in most localities to supersede all other kinds.
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> "In a recent visit to Washington I found some of the streets in a bad condition. Even on Fourteenth Street, in front of the Treasury Building, the asphalt pavement is full of holes, and the condition of this great thoroughfare has led to an opinion which I found quite prevalent, that asphalt was only adapted to streets where the traffic was not great and the vehicles were light. This is a mistake, however. There is no street in America or elsewhere in the world that has as much traffic as Cheapside, London, and among the vehicles which pass through it are omnibuses, loaded with passengers inside and on top, carts of all descriptions, and, heaviest of all, the trucks of the great brewers with their enormous horses and tons of ale and porter. And yet Cheapside is paved with asphalt and is as smooth as a house-floor. The secret of its perfection is the thorough manner in which the pavement is laid and the incessant care given to it. In nothing is the axiom truer than in the asphalt pavements, 'that a stitch in time saves nine.' The material has little hardness, and if, from irregular settling of the roadbed or local violence, a break occurs, the passing wheels rapidly shear off the sides of the hole, and it soon assumes formidable dimensions. *In London this is prevented by constant watchfulness; persons are employed to traverse the street with a light repairing outfit, and wher-*

ever a defect is observed, this is patched at once, and so effectually that the spot cannot be distinguished. The contractors who lay the pavements agree to keep them in order for fifteen years at a price which does not average more than a few cents a square yard.

"*Our people seem to think that no pavement is a good one unless when once laid it will for ever take care of itself; but there is no such pavement.* Even our rough stone roadways would pay excellent interest on the expenditure necessary for constant inspection and repairs promptly made when needed.

"One great difficulty stands in the way of the improvement of the pavements in the city of New York, and that is the frequency with which they are torn up for the purpose of laying new lines of gas, water, or steam pipes, or for the repair of such pipes when broken or frozen. The depth to which frost penetrates the ground in our severe winters seems to make it necessary that our pavements, as at present laid, should be frequently torn up, and until more care is given to the removal and replacement of the pavement it is impossible that we should have smooth roadways. This evil could have been in a large degree obviated by sinking the pipes beyond the reach of the frost, but, from the connections already made, this would now be a matter of extreme difficulty, and it is even probable that we can never have a satisfactory system of paving until commodious subways shall be constructed to receive all the pipes, and where they may be accessible without tearing up the streets. In the new streets opened in our rapidly growing cities the construction of such subways is possible, and would prove not only a great convenience to the population, but a substantial economy. In the older streets the cost and inconvenience would be much greater, but the difficulty is not here insurmountable, and the benefits would far more than compensate for the cost."

Prof. Newberry's conclusions about asphalt are reached after an examination of the pavements of London, Paris, Brussels, and Berlin, in all of which stone and wood are also in use and have been thoroughly tried.

The greatest of all obstacles to good pavement in New York, however, Prof. Newberry does not mention, because it does not come within the province of the civil engineer; we mean what is called "politics." And yet, without the mention of this, all comparisons of our pavements with those of London, or Paris, or Berlin, must be misleading. If, for instance, a German or Frenchman were to come to the conclusion that our streets were in their present condition because we were ignorant of the merits of different kinds of paving, or had among us no experts competent to do such work in the best manner, he would make a great mistake. Our difficulty lies in the fact that the men who govern the city are not selected for their fitness for their special duties, and do not give their minds, when a great public work is undertaken, to anything but the advantage to be got out of the spending of the money for their own party. The public mind, too, has been so debauched by the spoils system that people are not shocked when they see an expert like Newton turned out to make way for a politician like Gilroy. The spoils system is fatal to efficiency or honesty in the execution of all public improvements, because it is concerned always in the filling of places, and not in the least with the quality of the result.

THE MAYBRICK CASE.

THE report from Bar Harbor that "neither President Harrison nor Mr. Blaine will consent to talk for publication on the subject of Mrs. Maybrick's fate" is probably true; but the remark which the reporter adds, that, "as Mrs. Maybrick lost her American nationality and became an Englishwoman when she married her late husband, it is difficult to see in what manner the United States Government could interfere in her behalf," is another and somewhat amusing illustration of the way in which, as the country grows, the knowledge of law, which used to be so common, seems to decline. The belief of many Republican editors that President Harrison possessed and would exercise some sort of dictatorial powers towards the Southern States, the belief of the Republican Convention of Pennsylvania that the Executive is charged with the duty of "adjusting the burden of taxation" with reference to the needs of the taxpayer, and that "the honest collection and honest disbursement of the proceeds of public taxation" are a discretionary work which the Administration is entitled to praise even for "proposing," and the confessed ignorance of the editor of so prominent a paper as the Indianapolis *Journal* that there exists any tribunal for the interpretation of the Federal Constitution—the Supreme Court being the most conspicuous feature in the American system of government—all these things are striking signs of the decay, even among politicians, of a knowledge of the machinery of their own government. Thirty years ago mistakes of this sort, when they appeared in the *Saturday Review*—as they often did—used to excite merriment here, but the number of those who would see the fun of them has sadly fallen off.

Somewhat similar ignorance seems widely prevalent among another class touching the duty of the Government towards Americans arraigned for criminal offences, before foreign tribunals, in civilized countries. There is lurking in many minds a vague notion that our Government possesses the power of revising, and if need be, of annulling, the judgments of such tribunals in the case of American citizens, and this notion, it must be admitted, got some countenance from the extraordinary conduct of Congress in the case of O'Donnell, who was convicted and executed for the murder of Carey the informer. There was no doubt of his guilt or of the fairness of his trial, but it seemed to many as if the sentence ought not to have been carried out without an examination and approval of the proceedings by our Secretary of State. The same question was raised in the Lamson case, but with less success. Lord Salisbury gave a certain sanction to such agitations by asking the Governor of Missouri to postpone the execution of Maxwell until some sort of fresh appeal could be sent to him from England.

It ought to be known even in primary schools that when an American commits murder or robbery in any foreign country of Christendom, the power of interference possessed by our Government is limited to seeing that he is brought to a speedy trial, that he is allowed full communication with his counsel and friends, that the trial is fairly conducted according to the procedure of the country, that the punishment is not cruel or unusual, and that confession is not extorted by any species of torture or persecution. This is doubly true with regard to offences committed in England, whose criminal jurisprudence and procedure are exactly like our own. We have no more right of interference with English criminal trials than England has with ours. It makes no difference whatever in Mrs. Maybrick's case whether she had or had not lost her nationality. No nationality protects any man or woman against the legal consequences of the commission of a crime on foreign soil. There is no appeal from the verdict of a British jury or the decision of a British judge, either to President Harrison or Secretary Blaine, or to Quay or Wanamaker, any more than from the verdict of an American jury and the decision of an American judge to Lord Salisbury, Mr. Matthews, Chamberlain or Randolph Churchill. If Judge Stephen has committed errors either in his rulings on the evidence or in his charge to the jury, they will be examined in the British Court of Appeal. If the verdict of the jury has been plainly given against the evidence, either it will be set aside or the prisoner will be pardoned by the Home Secretary.

The popular uproar in Liverpool is undoubtedly largely due to the unpopularity of Judge Stephen, and to the hard, uncompromising way in which he presents his arguments. Almost any other judge on the English bench might doubtless have charged as strongly against the prisoner as he did without creating so much excitement. It is not uncommon for an English judge to charge against a prisoner, provided he does not twist or ignore evidence in doing so. He has not done more in this case than Lord Campbell did in the case of Palmer, whom, it is part of the current gossip of the day, the Judge was determined to hang from the outset, so sure was he of his guilt. If, as appears to be now maintained, the opinion of the spectators in the court-room and the populace of Liverpool ought to weigh more with the Government than the opinion of the judge and the verdict of the jury, the inference would appear to be unavoidable that cases of this kind ought to be tried, in Athenian fashion, by a public meeting, and the verdict taken by a vote, on the Australian system. At this distance the presumption of Mrs. Maybrick's guilt appears to be overwhelmingly strong. Her argument that she would not have been found guilty if she had not had a lover, sounds very like a plea that the desire for the victim's money, as in Palmer's case, ought not to be admitted as corroborative proof. The first and main question in all criminal cases is the question of motive. No sane person is supposed to commit a deliberate murder for fun.

THE ANNUAL WAR ALARM.

THE annual discussion of the probabilities of "a general European war" has just taken place in England—the only country in which such a discussion can take place with any frankness. The reasons for thinking that such a war is probable, and which furnish

the journalists with a good many topics, are about the same from year to year. There is in the first place Turkey, which is always in danger of breaking up; there is Greece, which is always eager to enlarge her borders by seizing Macedonia; there is Bulgaria, which wants Rumelia, and Servia which wants a piece of Bulgaria; there is Russia, which wants to absorb or control both Rumania, Servia, and Bulgaria, and kick Austria out of the Panslavic region.

Then there is Italy, which wants to take away the Canton of Ticino from Switzerland, and a bit of Dalmatia from Austria. There is France, which wants to get at Germany, and to get the English out of Egypt, and have more colonies than she can afford to settle. There is Germany, which is determined that France shall not catch her unprepared, and also to have as many colonies as Great Britain has. Though last, not least, all the first-class Powers except England —viz., France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and Italy—have standing armies so large as to constitute an almost overwhelming burden on industry and to increase greatly the tide of emigration.

It is easy to see what an enormous number of topics such a situation affords, and what an excellent showing any one may make out of them for the view that we are on the eve of one of the most terrible conflicts the world has seen since the fall of the Roman Empire. Nevertheless it contains, we repeat, certain guarantees of peace, for the present at least, of extraordinary strength. One of them is the size of the modern armies. There is a popular view that the size of these armies tempts governments to go to war. We hold, on the contrary, that every government which possesses them shrinks from putting them in the field, partly owing to fear of the effect on the national industry and finance, and partly to the very natural doubt whether it has generals fit to handle them. A bad general at the head of a small army is a comparatively harmless person; a bad general at the head of a million of men may prove a monster of mischief. The great armies of the Napoleonic period were created by generals who had slowly learned to use them in active service. The armies now in existence, Moltke having retired, would be led by men who may possibly be geniuses, but may also be veritable dunderheads. Every government feels this and puts off the hour of trial accordingly. Moreover, the absurdity of the notion that permanent peace can be secured by one great fight is becoming clearer to the European mind. On the contrary, every great fight sows the seeds of future quarrels, because the victor is sure to seize something with a "mailed hand" which the vanquished determines to wrest from him as soon as he is able. Therefore people say, with much wisdom, that terrible as is the burden of a great army in time of peace, war would make it twice as terrible.

The Franco-German war was due to the ignorance of the French, both about their own military resources and those of their adversary. That ignorance exists no longer. Each side knows what the other can do. Moreover, the material conditions of a campaign between these two adversaries have greatly changed since 1870. The French army has been completely reorganized and much increased, but Metz has become absolutely impregnable. No hostile force can now get within nineteen miles of the old Vauban fortress which the Germans invested. On the other hand, all the ground round Paris which the Germans occupied in 1870, has been thoroughly fortified. In fact, it is estimated that the French have spent on the new defences of the city the enormous sum of $675,000,000. The outer circle is now seventy-five miles long, and on the north and south side is an entrenched camp capable of holding 150,000 men. When the works now in progress are completed, the circle will be ninety miles long. The difference this will make in the next war is obvious.

If we add to the uncertainties thus created the absolute ignorance in which the world now lives as to the results of a great naval war, with the new iron-clads and torpedoes, we have abundant reason for believing that there are more signs of war in the newspapers than in the war offices.

THE SWISS ITALIANS.

THE internal politics of Switzerland have an interest for Americans, even when intrinsically unimportant, in that they afford an opportunity of observing the working of political machinery in most respects like ours, on matters similar to those which have figured in our politics, or may do so hereafter. Indeed, the recent agitation in the canton of Ticino, and the Federal interference therein, recall vividly the Reconstruction period in the Southern States, though the usurpation of power by the central Government, with us checked by the Supreme Court, appears in Switzerland to have ridden triumphantly over the rights of the States. The disregard by the Swiss executive of the letter, if not the spirit, of the Constitution was as complete as that which occurred during the "conflict period" of 1864–5 in Prussia; but as the majority in both houses of the Swiss Parliament is of the same party as the executive, it naturally did not wish to take any action, like the bill of indemnity passed by the Prussian houses after 1866, which would imply recognition of a violation of the organic law.

The canton of Ticino, whose affairs have led to this amendment of the Constitution by legislative decision, is the only one in which Italian is the prevailing language, and, though long connected with the German cantons in a territorial relation, is the youngest of the cantons to enjoy the rights of statehood. It was abominably misgoverned during the last century—so much so, according to the account of the abuses common while Bonstetten was Governor, as related in his entertaining letters, that relatively, if not positively, the exactions of a proconsul were far exceeded. Partly from this cause, and partly from the necessary poverty of the people, it is one of the most backward districts of Europe, not only in political and religious enlightenment, but in the respect of material progress. Most of the "Italian" barbers and organ-grinders in foreign countries, not to mention great numbers of agricultural laborers who appear annually in the adjoining parts of France and Germany, attest at once the poverty of the population and their fondness for their native land, since all of them who are able to save anything return sooner or later.

Though the canton boasts of a "unity of faith" second only to that of Tyrol, there has long been a strong opposition to the clerical party, the lawyers being as active and devoted on the "Radical" side as the priests and wealthy class are on theirs. And though it is long since there has been a change of administration, yet the parties are so evenly balanced that every election is the occasion of violent agitation, and the colonization of a few hundred voters would at any time change the result—a fact of importance in view of the character of the emigration from the district. It has long been alleged by the Radicals that their opponents "colonized" in a quiet way, in spite of a law, passed with the assent of both parties, declaring non-residents not entitled to the suffrage. For the election which was held the 3d of last March the Radicals determined to do on a large scale what their opponents were said to have done on a small one. In February the newspapers announced that one of the Radical leaders was in Paris arranging for the return of a large number of natives whose domicile was in France, and 900 are said to have appeared in answer to the summons. They were prepared to assert their claims by arms, and the authorities were equally prepared to resist them. It was at this point that the Federal Government began to act.

Now, the Swiss Constitution, though amended in the direction of centralization in 1874, still retains provisions, apparently copied from that of the United States, guaranteeing the rights of the cantons, and asserting that all rights not in terms given to the Federal power are reserved to them. The Sixteenth Article also provides that "when internal disturbances exist, or when danger from another canton is threatened, the Government of a canton shall immediately inform the Federal Council [*i. e.*, the Executive], in order that the latter, so far as its powers extend, may take proper measures, *or* summon the Parliament. . . . If the cantonal Government is unable to call for help, the Federal Government *may* act on its own initiative, and if the security of the country at large is in danger, it *shall* do so." But in the Ticino affair, as is shown by Dr. Vogt, himself a Liberal, in his moderately worded pamphlet on the 'Tessiner Frage,' and as has been urged vehemently by the Conservative press, order was not disturbed—there merely was danger that it might be; the cantonal Government did not ask for aid, but, confident in its ability to put down any rising, protested against Federal interference; and there was no pretence that either of the other contingencies had arisen. In fact, not only was no blood spilt, but, in spite of the attempted colonization and the moral support given by the Federal authorities, not only through the occupation of the canton by troops, but also through a written protest to the

cantonal Government against the non-resident law, the Opposition was again unsuccessful. The whole importance of the incident, therefore, lies in the establishment of a constitutional precedent, in that the executive disregarded the written law, and the Legislature afterwards did not condone, but approved, its action. But had the Ticino Liberals studied our history, they might, confident as they were of the support of the Protestant cantons, have managed better. It appears plain enough to us that their proper course was to secure Federal interference after, instead of before, the election. They had then only to claim that their opponents' majority was an illegal one, and to set up their own Legislature and executive in a hall, after which they could have called for troops at their leisure.

THE FRENCH FOREIGN POLICY.

PARIS, July 25, 1889.

I MUST return to the book of Count Chaudordy, 'France in 1889.' I have analyzed its first part, which treats of the state of parties in France and of the interior condition of the country. The second part is an analysis of its foreign policy, which derives much interest as coming from a man who has occupied important diplomatic posts, and who is acquainted with all the most eminent diplomats of the Continent. The author begins by a rapid survey of the wars of the last centuries—Thirty Years' War, the Peace of Westphalia, the Seven Years' War, the Partition of Poland, the French Revolution. The wars of Napoleon are not narrated, but their results are rapidly shown. Let us come immediately to the year 1870. When the Empire fell, the Government born on the 4th of September ought, says M. de Chaudordy, to have felt at once the necessity of creating for itself an authority and a legitimacy which were necessary to it, not only in the eyes of the country, but in the eyes of foreign Powers. Elections for a National Assembly ought to have been held at once. But the new Government was only preoccupied with Paris; it was not really preoccupied with the great Powers. It had no right to count much on Spain, which had become more free to choose a sovereign, nor on Italy, which profited by the war and took Rome, nor on Russia, which rebuilt Sebastopol and wiped out some articles of the Treaty of Paris; but could not a regular French Government expect some help from England and from Austria? M. de Chaudordy believes that England and Austria made a mistake in not interfering in favor of France: "After having waited for some French success before pronouncing in our favor, Austria threw herself into the arms of victorious Prussia, and consecrated, in a fit of diplomatic intimacy, the new German Empire. The Austro-Hungarian Empire alienated prematurely in favor of Prussia the greater part of its liberty of action. Hungary being always in a state of uneasiness on account of Russia, and the Austrian province having German aspirations, it is easy to understand that Berlin now dictates its will to Vienna and to Pesth."

M. de Chaudordy analyzes the state of Europe, and shows that there is little foundation now for an alliance of the Latin races—an alliance which has often been considered as a safeguard for Europe and for peace. It is, in his eyes, a mere dream; on the contrary, he considers that the old alliance between Prussia and Russia is come to an end, and that there are many reasons for an understanding between France and Russia. Since the wars of the beginning of the century, Prussia and Russia had always walked hand in hand; they gave reality to what was called the "Holy Alliance"—an alliance which embodied profound analogies of ambition, of principles, of government; which represented a common defence of the old régime, a common opposition to the more liberal Occidental ideas.

Under the Emperor Nicholas, the prestige was on the side of Russia; since his death it has been on the side of Prussia. But we have seen in our time a new phenomenon, a revival of the old-Russian party. What is an old-Russian? Is he essentially an enemy of Germany? Not so much as a partisan of a Russian self-development by the systematic exclusion of all imported men or ideas; an adept of Slavism as represented by the Moscow *Gazette* and by the school of Katkoff. France has no interest in counteracting this Russian self-development, since, not being a neighbor of Russia, she cannot expect to play directly a part in her internal affairs. Germany is Russia's neighbor, and there has been a constant importation of Germans into the Russian Empire. The whole modern literature of Russia shows how deep is the enmity between the old-Russian elements and the imported German element.

Poland has long stood between France and Russia, but "we are now," says M. de Chaudordy, "unable to help the Poles, and our intervention has, in fact, always aggravated their situation. We can, therefore, only advise them to come nearer the nation with which they have such a narrow community of origin." There seems, therefore, to be no hindrance now to intimate relations between France and Russia. "All those who, in France, can exert an influence, great or small, on our foreign policy, ought to work for it; all parties, all opinions, ought to concur in this, for it is our salvation abroad. The two great Slavic and French races are admirably fitted to understand each other, and the two nations will find immense advantages in it." Peter the Great, when he came to Paris, Napoleon at Tilsit, Napoleon III. in 1856, at the time of the Treaty of Paris, all had this alliance in view.

The task of Russia in the future is immense, and, in order to accomplish it, she needs allies having no interests in contradiction with her own. The United States have sometimes seemed to be such an ally, but the United States follow a policy of non-intervention, and do not meddle with the affairs of Europe. Prussia has Slavic provinces and covets the German provinces which are a part of Russia; moreover, the Baltic, Denmark, the passages of the Sound can always become a bone of contention. As for Austria, she is the natural enemy of Russia, and we now see the Balkan Peninsula torn by factions which are nothing in reality but the Austrian faction and the Russian faction. The rivalry between England and Russia has been proverbial; M. de Chaudordy regrets it, as better relations between these two countries could only be very advantageous to France. It might, perhaps, he thinks, be possible to reconcile them. Public opinion in England on the subject of Constantinople and the Dardanelles is not what it was at the time of Lord Palmerston. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, the Eastern objective of England has been transferred from Constantinople to Egypt. The Russians have no intention of invading India, though they sometimes speak of it. Their ambition has an ample career in Asia, and they content themselves with advancing slowly, between Persia and Afghanistan, towards the Persian Gulf. At the time when Prince Alexander of Bulgaria became very popular in England, and when it was thought by some that an effort ought to be made in his favor against Russia, the British Parliament showed very clearly that it had no intention of picking a quarrel with Russia, and many articles appeared in the English press tending to prove that Egypt had become the only point in the East where England had any vital interests to defend.

The survey made of our foreign policy since 1870 by M. de Chaudordy is interesting. The Government of M. Thiers had, so to speak, no foreign policy; he treated all foreign affairs himself directly, a dangerous system, as, when the head of the State is once engaged, he has no way of repairing an error. The Government of Marshal MacMahon was conducted after the old traditional methods. M. de Chaudordy condemns in strong terms the colonial policy which was adopted by the successors of Marshal MacMahon. In old days, when a country created colonies, she opened a new field for her trade, as the colony was obliged to buy exclusively the products of the metropolis. In our time, in virtue of the treaties made with various Powers, these Powers can trade with our colonies on the same terms as ourselves. "We do not see," said a foreign diplomat, "why we should oppose your conquest of Tonquin; you will have all the expense, and we shall reap the benefit." Our war in Tonquin embroiled us with China, a Power which sooner or later will have an influence that will not be limited to the extreme East. If we had a long war, it would become very difficult for us to protect those frontiers of our colonies which touch China. Tonquin is not a popular name among our soldiers and our peasants, and the secret of the intense unpopularity of Jules Ferry (always called the "Tonkinois" by the small press) lies in the fact that he was the principal advocate of the colonial policy.

After the war of 1870, the new peace remained, so to speak, under the protection of the alliance of the three emperors. This alliance of Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Russia is now replaced by a closer alliance of Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. Russia has been discontented ever since the Treaty of Berlin, and maintains an isolated and sullen attitude. The misunderstanding between Prussia and Russia has become every day during the past two years more acute, and Europe lives in a state of inquietude; the present triple alliance has become a danger instead of being a protection.

A document added to M. de Chaudordy's book has attracted much attention. It is a despatch from M. de Saint-Vallier, November 14, 1879, giving an account of a conversation between the French Ambassador and Prince Bismarck, on his return from Vienna, after the conclusion of the alliance with Austria. It is easy to recognize the language of the German Chancellor, always bold, forcible, sometimes very picturesque. The Prince did not conceal from M. de Saint-Vallier that the policy of Russia with regard to Germany was modified, and that the old friendship had given place to jealousy and distrust; and he explained how he was going to make of Austria an obstacle to the ambition of Russia. He always felt the necessity of keeping Austria as a bulwark; he spared her after Sadowa, he would not mutilate her. The familiarity of the conversation, the eloquence of the speaker, the richness of his images, the depth of his views, make this document the most interesting part of M. de Chaudordy's volume. There may have been official denials of the authenticity of the document; but whoever will read will see that, with the exception, perhaps, of a few words, it must be genuine. M. de Saint-Vallier is now dead,

but I believe that he read this despatch to various people of his acquaintance, on account of the clear view which it gave, in Prince Bismarck's own words, of the new state of things in Germany, and of the character of the alliance of the two empires—an alliance directed against all possible enemies of the German nationality.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

I.—FRENCH SCULPTURE.

PARIS, July 23, 1889.

IN order to comprehend the extent of the exhibition of the fine arts at the Paris Exposition of 1889, some statistics must be given. This exhibition constitutes the first of the nine great groups of the Exposition proper, and is itself divided into five classes: first, oil paintings; second, paintings of different kinds, and drawings; third, sculpture and medallions; fourth, architectural drawings and models; fifth, engravings and lithographs. The works of art exhibited by France, and by each foreign country, are classified under these five heads in the official catalogue, and, so far as possible, the classification is marked in the placing of the works in the galleries.

As a matter of course, both because this is first of all a French exhibition, and because there is far greater production of the best work in the fine arts in Paris than in any other art centre, the French department is the most complete and the most extensive. There are 1,418 oil paintings alone; of other paintings and drawings 214, of sculptures 561, and of engravings 445—a total of 2,777 works. These are exhibited in more than thirty large galleries, without counting the hall called the Galerie Rapp, where on the ground floor a great part of the sculpture is exhibited, or the wide corridors outside the walls of the Palais des Beaux-Arts, along both sides of which sculpture is placed. Other groups of sculpture, again, are placed in the open air—on the promenades, and in the nooks of the gardens. To this total is to be added the magnificent "Retrospective Exhibition," comprising from 600 to 700 works executed by French artists from 1789 to 1889, the catalogue of which is not yet ready, and the special exhibitions of the Society of French Painters in Water Color and of the Pastel Society. These organizations have each a building of their own, and exhibiting, the "Aquarellistes" 463 works and the "Pastellistes" 153, bring up the total of the French part of the exhibition to something over 4,000 works.

The exhibits of other countries are placed in similar galleries in the northern half of the vast Palais des Beaux-Arts, the southern half being occupied by France; and, though in the main remarkably complete and varied, and coming from more than twenty-five different nations, they just about equal in their totality the number exhibited by the French. For some reason or other which I was unable to learn, the Belgian pictures and statuary were not included in the catalogue, but a note referred to the special catalogue of the Belgian exhibit, which I did not find it possible to procure. I should say, however, that the number of works from Belgium must be about the same as that sent from the United States. We have 572 works in all classes, and are closely followed by Great Britain with 552. Then come Italy with 327, Holland (*Pays-Bas*) with 288, Denmark 248, Sweden 228, Russia 205, Switzerland 168, Spain 179, Austria-Hungary 159, Norway 143, Germany (not a fully representative collection) 101; and Greece, Finland, Rumania, Servia, the South and Central American States, and the International Section, including artists from various countries not represented in the Exhibition, follow these with smaller numbers.

In an exhibition of such enormous extent it is scarcely possible to see everything; but the galleries are admirably arranged, there is room enough and to spare in many of them, lighting and installation are excellent. Perhaps it is only a question of time and of physical endurance to accomplish it. It is, however, easy to determine where to begin. We must study the French exhibition to see what progress, if any, has been made since 1878. We can then compare this with the Retrospective Exhibition; and, the position of the French as the leaders in the modern schools of art being determined, we shall find interest and instruction in comparing with their work that which is being produced in other countries. We shall thus be best able to find the reasons of certain well defined "movements" which are manifesting themselves in different places, and to judge of their value and influence on the art of the future.

Nothing shows better the strength and the activity of the French in the arts at the present day than the work of their sculptors. Though sculpture is fostered by the State, and a considerable number of commissions are annually given by the national Government and the municipalities, it is by no means patronized by individuals as painting is. The official patronage, moreover, is mostly given to the sculptors of reputation, and we are almost at a loss to understand how the younger and still struggling artists go on producing, year after year, the important works we find them constantly exhibiting. The expenses are great, even for the production of a single work, and after it is done and exhibited the artist usually has it left on his hands, or is only able to dispose of it at a price that barely covers his outlay, exclusive of living expenses, and gives him no remuneration for his time. The only explanation possible is, that devotion to his art keeps him up to his work until lasting recognition is assured, and in the meanwhile he must keep himself alive by whatever *gagne-pain* comes in his way. The production of pot-boilers, which many young painters find a means for tiding over the days of adversity, and the making of which so many unfortunately adopt as a permanent profession, may not be so readily carried on by the sculptor as by the painter. The ignorant or uncultivated buyer who relieves the dealer of his cheap and superficially painted pictures never cares for sculpture in any form, for it is not gaudy and showy enough for his taste. Even when it is bad, it is unattractive to him. The Italian sculptors of to-day, it is true, find a market for their pretentious figures, in which the imitation of stuffs in marble and the *trompe-l'œil* of a gauzy veil enveloping weakly sentimental heads of women are elements in an ensemble of mere prettiness; but this manner of belittling a noble art finds no favor in France, and the sculptor who should practise it would scarcely find a reputable place to show off such work.

In the face of popular indifference, however, and a necessarily limited Government patronage, the sculptors of France show no falling off in productiveness or excellence. The men of achieved reputation are represented in this exhibition by many of the best works that have come from their hands in the past decade. The administration has also included in the competition for prizes such works as have been placed in the museums or in public places, and cannot therefore be brought to the Champ de Mars. These works are entered in the catalogue, and the place is given where they are to be seen; but they are not numbered, and do not, of course, form a part of the 561 pieces of sculpture mentioned above. Guillaume, Delaplanche, Mercié, Aimé Millet, Saint-Marceaux, Moreau, Lemaire, Frémiet, Allar, and Barrias are well-known names among those whose exhibition at the Champ de Mars is only a partial showing of their ten years' work. Chapu is well seen in a group of nine works, including a fine figure in marble, "La Peinture," and Paul Dubois exhibits three busts, one of them of Paul Baudry, whose death since the last exhibition entitles his name to be emblazoned in the dome of the *Cour d'honneur*, where the principal works of the Retrospective Exhibition are placed.

Of younger men I find none that seem more promising than Antonin Carlès, who comes, like Mercié, from the South, and whose work began to attract attention in the salons in the commencement of the eighties. There is no more beautiful figure in the exhibition than the one by him called "La Jeunesse," a graceful and chaste young form, modelled with admirable firmness and yet with the most delicate and nervous touch. "Abel," a marble figure of a young man dead, is again a work of much strength, but of reserved strength, and with no indication of that rugged brutality which Rodin and his followers have made the fashion in many quarters. Adrien Gaudez, the author of "Le Moisonneur," that bent figure of the harvester with which he made such a brilliant début at the Salon of 1879, is another man of mark whose success is assured, and from whom much may be expected, to judge from his beautiful figure, "Echo," in the present exhibition, and his fine statue in plaster of Parmentier. To be noted also are Laoust, with excellent clothed figures of "Lully," violin in hand, and an effective rendering of an oft-treated subject, "Pierrot"; Lombard, with a delightful womanly "Diana"; Suchetet, with a charming recumbent female figure, "Byblis"; and Etcheto, Enderlin, Berteaux, Boutellier, Albert-Lefeuvre, and Lefèvre.

Auguste Rodin, of whom so much has been said and written in the past two years, since the production of his famous group of the six "Bourgeois de Calais," may be better judged at the special exhibition of his work at the gallery in the Rue de Sèze, where there are some thirty of his works, than here, where there are but five. A fragment of the group of the "Bourgeois"—a single one of the figures—three busts, and a group, which compose his exhibition, show his to be an unusual talent, and his work is strikingly vigorous and robust. One of the busts, a portrait of the sculptor Dalou, is notable for its fine, nervous construction and individuality of character. Another, that of M. Antonin Proust, the Commissioner of Fine Arts of the Exhibition, is equally fine in the quality of character seized and fixed, but the artist was less happy in his sitter than in the case of Dalou. The single figure of the "Bourgeois" is exceedingly impressive, even when thus seen detached, after one has seen the group of six. However opinions as to the talent of Rodin may differ, it is quite certain that he is the most prominent figure in the "new school"—those who seek to throw away entirely academic traditions—and, despite eccentricities, is a man of commanding power.

Delaplanche, whose charming figure "Music" is well known in America, and who was selected to do the figure of France distributing crowns to the nations come together at the Champ de Mars (a task in which he has acquitted himself well, it should be said in pass-

ing, for the great winged figure, poised on one foot, with drapery flowing in graceful lines, looks imposing at the top of the huge central dome of the Exhibition buildings; and in the small model exhibited in the galleries it is seen to be if not an original, at least, an artistic and dignified conception)—Delaplanche has done nothing better than a figure in marble called "La Danse," which was first exhibited at the Salon of last year. Sinewy and lithe, and yet voluptuous, slender of limb and finely jointed, the head poised gracefully on the lovely neck, it is an exquisite expression of the dance. Dalou's most remarkable work is a large bas-relief, representing the States-General at the sitting of June 23, 1789, a striking and dramatic composition of numerous figures. St.-Marceaux is seen at his best in a supple female figure, "La Danse Arabe," of less charm than the work of Delaplanche just mentioned, but of infinite elegance, and the woman of a handsome type. Frémiet, among nearly a dozen works, is strongest in his powerful and terrible group of a gorilla carrying off a woman, for which he received the medal of honor in sculpture at the Salon of 1887.

These are some of the most notable men and their works in this part of the French collection. There are many others of which I should like to speak, interesting both on account of the merits of the work or the fame of the artists; but enough has been said to show that there is no falling off in the excellence of French sculpture, nor any diminution of activity in producing on the part of the artists. The great art of sculpture has reached its highest development in modern times in France, and it may safely be asserted that it is better now than ever before. There is no Rude and no Houdon among the men of to-day, perhaps, as we their contemporaries view them near by; but it is quite possible that among those named posterity will find a greater than either of these. For the American who hopes for a great future for our own art, there is nothing to wish for more ardently than that a knowledge of the work being done by the French sculptors to-day may be widely spread among us. Such a knowledge would add to the dignity, the honesty, and the beauty of our art.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON AND PROTECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When, in his spirited biography of Washington, recently contributed to the American Statesmen Series, Henry Cabot Lodge discusses the origin of the American protective system, he seems to present an excellent example of reversion to type. All through the first volume and the early pages of the second we evidently are reading the conclusions of an historian; but we turn a leaf, and, to our bewilderment, not to say disgust, we are confronted with the words of the campaign orator and Congressional special pleader. According to Mr. Lodge, Washington was a protectionist because his views of the national welfare were broad and far-seeing. After one or two preliminary remarks in this vein, our historian continues with the following candid statements:

"Washington was brought up and had lived all his life under a system which came as near as possible to the ideal of the modern free-trader. The people of Virginia were devoted almost entirely to a single interest, tobacco-growing, that being the occupation in which they could most profitably engage. No legislative artifices had been employed to enable them to diversify their industries or to establish manufactures. They bought in the cheapest market every luxury and most of the necessities of life. British merchants supplied all their wants, carried their tobacco, and advanced them money. Cheap labor, a single staple with wide fluctuations of value, a credit system, entire dependence on foreigners, and absolute free trade, according to the Manchester theories, should have produced an earthly paradise" (vol. ii, p. 114).

The intelligent mind stands appalled before such stuff as this. Is it humor? Is it satire? But even satire must contain an element of sense. In the last lines quoted, Congressman Lodge has been ingenuous enough to associate the chief features of the colonial system with modern free trade as equally ruinous from an economic point of view. Fortunately he does not stop there. Virginia, in common with the rest of the Union, soon got the advantage of all the "legislative artifices" which our early statesmen could invent. What was the result? Mr. Lodge shall tell us in his own perspicuous language. The condition of things was, he says, "bad enough in his [Washington's] time, but he did not live to see Virginia, with her wasted and exhausted lands, stand still, while her sister States to the north passed her with giant strides in the race for wealth and population. He did not live to see her become, as a result of her colonial system, a mere breeder of slaves for the plantations of the Gulf States." Can it be possible that protective taxes did not make of Virginia "an earthly paradise," despite slave labor, a speculative business, and an uneconomical credit system? Perhaps after all Washington did *not* live "all his life under a system which came as near as possible to the ideal of the modern free-trader." Perhaps not: we should like to say undoubtedly not, but Mr. Lodge is so sure; and who ever caught a protectionist Congressman in a misrepresentation or an exaggeration?

There is a little moral to all this, viz., let us have our history and our party speeches separately.—Yours respectfully, ELDRIDGE.

BOSTON, July 10, 1889.

ENGLISH WOMAN-BURNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondents who have recently discussed the question of witch-burning have not made it clear whether there is an authentic case of woman-burning for any offence in the penal records of England. While, as was pointed out by your correspondent in the issue of August 1, there were at least two crimes in Blackstone's day that were still punishable by burning alive in cases where they were committed by women, there is much doubt whether this extreme penalty was ever inflicted. Blackstone declares that there are "very few instances (and those accidental or by negligence) of any person's being embowelled or burned till previously deprived of sensation by strangling." That these persons thus "accidentally" burned alive were women is rendered highly improbable because of the existence of the same refined delicacy of feeling that forbade our forefathers publicly to expose and mangle the bodies of women culprits. This view is strengthened by the express declaration of Chitty, in his 'Criminal Law,' that "women who till lately were burned alive for high and petit treason, were always strangled at the stake before the commencement of the burning." It is, of course, possible that witchcraft, which was ranked with heresy, may have met with less mercy than treason or the killing of a husband. That under the English law women might be condemned to be burned alive for witchcraft admits of little doubt (IV. Blk., 60, 47). but is there an authentic instance where this sentence was literally carried out?

E. W. H.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., August 5, 1889.

SHAKESPEARE'S "MARRIAGE BOND."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been asked by letter to explain the nature of Shakespeare's "marriage bond." "What was it? and why was it given?" It was a bond for good behavior, so to speak. William Shakespeare was a minor, betrothed to a woman eight years older than himself. On the 28th of November, 1582, the Bishop of Worcester granted him a license to marry with *one* proclamation of the bans, instead of *three*, which last would have delayed the marriage a month. In return, the Bishop received Shakespeare's bond of indemnity for £40.

As a minor could not be surety for himself, and as the friends of Anne Hathaway had reason to desire the marriage to be speedily brought about, John Richardson of Shottery, witness to Richard Hathaway's will of the previous year, and Fulke Sandells, executor of that will, also of Shottery, became Shakespeare's sureties to that amount. John Shakespeare had been bondsman for Richard Hathaway in 1566, sixteen years before, so there had been long intercourse between the families.

The bond, etc., may be found in the seventh edition of Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines,' but it seems to me there is a singular want of candor in admitting and explaining its true nature. CAROLINE HEALEY DALL.

Notes.

MR. PAUL LEICESTER FORD, whose address is No. 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., will have ready in September 'American Bibliography: A Check-List of Bibliographies, Catalogues, Reference Lists, and Lists of Authorities of American Books and Subjects,' a quarto volume printed on alternate pages, and containing 1,070 titles, arranged by subject under 19 divisions and 150 subdivisions, with a classification of contents and an author's index. At the same time Mr. Ford will bring out his 'Franklin Bibliography: A List of Books written by or relating to Benjamin Franklin,' an edition of 500 copies uniform in size with Bigelow's octavo edition of Franklin's Works. No fewer than 1,500 titles and references are promised, the list of works wholly or in part written by Franklin numbering 600, and his pseudonyms amounting to 60. There will be chronological, classical, and general indices, and mention of the libraries where the works may be consulted.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue next month a 'Handbook of Psychology: Senses and Intellect,' by James Mark Baldwin, Professor of Philosophy in Lake Forest University.

'Problems in American Society,' by the Rev. Joseph Henry Crocker, will be published in a few weeks by George H. Ellis, Boston.

Frederick Warne & Co. announce that the forthcoming volume of "The Cavendish Library" will be 'William Hazlitt, Essayist and Critic,' being selections from his writings, with a memoir, biographical and critical, by Alexander Ireland.

Mr. Richard Le Gallienne, the author of a little volume of bookish poems, is preparing 'George Meredith, Novelist and Poet: A Series of Essays,' which will be published in London

by Mr. Elkin Mathews, with a bibliography by Mr. John Lane.

'With Friend and Book,' and 'In the Study and the Fields,' are the titles of two booklets by J. Rogers Rees, author of the 'Pleasures of a Bookworm,' which will be published in very limited editions by Mr. Frank Murray, of Derby and Nottingham.

The sixth volume of the 'Henry Irving Shakspere' (Scribner & Welford) adds "Othello," "Antony and Cleopatra," "Coriolanus," and "Lear" to the edition, with the usual introductions and notes. Mr. Marshall's illness has occasioned some changes, in consequence of which Mr. Joseph Knight furnishes the stage histories of the plays, except "Othello"; the Rev. H. C. Beeching is responsible for "Coriolanus," and Mr. Arthur Symons and Mr. Verity act as substitutes in two other plays. Mr. Oscar Fay Adams is also a collaborator. The new volume maintains the same general character as its predecessors, and the near completion of this useful and cheap edition is to be hailed with much satisfaction.

M. J. J. Weiss is one of the French authors whose great repute among the best French critics it is not always easy to understand. In the case of M. Weiss the reason is perhaps that his chief labors have been as a journalist, and only those on the spot can fully appreciate the merits of journalism. He has published very few books, but the latest of them, 'Le Théâtre et les Mœurs' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), is brilliant enough to justify the affectionate eulogies of MM. Sarcey and Lemaitre. Perhaps the most interesting passage is the autobiographic preface, in which M. Weiss describes his wanderings through France as a boy with his father's regiment, in which he had been enrolled as an *enfant de troupe*—just as Victor Hugo had done in his youth. It is pleasant to see that a writer as learned and as acute as M. Weiss has a good word to say for Scribe, whom the younger literary critics treat with undeserved intolerance.

The beautiful 'Almanach des Spectacles' appears for the fifteenth time, and the equally dainty 'Répertoire de la Comédie-Française' for the fifth, each with a portrait of Mlle. Muller, one etched by M. Lalauze and the other by M. Abot (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern).

The more or less edifying controversy over 'Christianity and Agnosticism,' begun by Dr. Henry Wace at the Manchester Church Congress last year, and prolonged in the *Nineteenth Century* and *Fortnightly Review* by Prof. Huxley, the Bishop of Peterborough, Mr. Mallock, and Mrs. Humphry Ward, has been gathered into a volume of 329 duodecimo pages by D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Wm. C. Collar's reputation among classical teachers would insure attention to his 'Practical Latin Composition,' just published by Ginn & Co. It may be briefly described as a method of connecting immediately the reading of the Latin text with exercises upon it, using the text as the source at once of vocabulary and construction. Its very unlikeness to the disgusting and impotent older method of a generation ago (and later) is a certificate of merit.

Old New York is the title of a monthly journal relating to the history and antiquities of this city, edited and published by W. W. Pasko at 19 Park Place. The first number is dated August. It is typographically tasteful, and illustrations are promised hereafter. The hither term of "old" New York is defined as "a period within the recollection of middle-aged persons." The table of contents reads as follows: Notes on the History of Printing in New York; An Englishman's View [the Rev. Isaac Fidler, 1831]; Index to Engravings in Valentine's Manual [a serviceable performance by an unpractised hand]; Extracts from Early Newspapers; The Introduction of Methodism; Death of Dr. Alexander Anderson [extracts from the journals of "the father of American wood-engraving"]; The Claims of Nicholas Jones; Editor's Notes. The stream seems likely to run full for an indefinite time.

In the London *Academy* for July 20 there is a note from Mr. G. C. M. Smith, which gives a list of parallel passages in Fitzgerald's version of the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám and the new prose translation by Mr. McCarthy. Fitzgerald dealt with his author as the potter deals with his clay, and one might imagine Omar's "half-obliterated tongue" protesting at his treatment of him. Nevertheless, Fitzgerald left a better Omar Khayyám than he found.

The *Academy* also publishes a list of all pensions granted during the last year, ending June 20, and charged upon the Civil List, among which, as possessing a certain literary interest, we note the following: Mrs. W. G. Palgrave, £50; Mrs. R. A. Proctor, £100; the widow of Prof. F. Guthrie, £50; Miss Emily Faithfull, £50; and two or three other grants of £50 each to the widows or daughters of men eminent in some branch of learning or science. All these are not only in recognition of service done, but also on account of the recipient's inadequate means of support. As compared with some other items in the Civil List, the ones that we have quoted seem very meagre and scanty.

The seventeenth number of the 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age*' (Philadelphia, No. 1135 Pine Street: Edward Roth) finishes the Geographical topics and begins on History, which is advanced into France. The divisions which now succeed the long one of Biography promise to be rapidly disposed of.

We make a somewhat tardy mention of the completion of the thirteenth volume of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut), and of the eighth volume of the compact 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte' issued by Grote in Berlin (New York: Westermann). The Cyclopædia is brought down to Rubinstein, and has its customary variety of excellent maps and plates in black-and-white and in color. In the 'Universal History' is concluded the story of the Middle Ages, by Julius von Pflugk-Harttung, the parts immediately before us dealing with the Lombard, Frankish, and Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, the Byzantine emperors, the Papacy and Islam. Here again the illustrations continue to be of a high order, and conspicuous among them are fine facsimiles of mediæval manuscripts.

Sun and Shade for July (New York: The Photogravure Co.) has a well-chosen group of plates after paintings and from nature—a smoothed out but otherwise characteristic portrait of Barnum, the Eiffel Tower, and the Sphinx, being most noticeable. In this last view, an American base-ball team using every coign of vantage on the front of the Sphinx serves at least to give a scale to the monument.

We have received from the University of Pennsylvania a sumptuous 'Handbook of Information' concerning the School of Biology attached to that institution. The equipment and courses are fully set forth, and the exterior and interior of the school buildings illustrated by heliotype (alias Levytype) plates which speak for themselves. The school was organized five years ago, and has a library of its own of 2,000 volumes.

We have on our table 'The Navajo Chant: A Navajo Ceremony,' by Dr. Washington Matthews, U. S. A.—a voluminous reprint from the fifth annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology, illustrated in colors and otherwise; and a 'Further Contribution to the Study of Consumption among the Indians,' by the same excellent and entertaining writer. Dr. Matthews is confirmed in his view that the Indians most in contact with civilization perish most largely from consumption, for causes some of which are certainly preventable.

A very interesting subject is attacked in Prof. A. S. Packard's memoir on the 'Cave Fauna of North America,' with remarks on the anatomy of the brain and origin of the blind species, and with numerous plates, printed in vol. iv of the Memoirs of the National Academy of Sciences. A map of the Mammoth Cave is given.

—Nearly twenty years of the life of Washington are comprised in the second volume of his Writings edited by Mr. Worthington C. Ford. It opens amid the preparations for the capture of Fort Duquesne, in 1758, and ends with the Commander-in-Chief's address to the New York Provincial Congress on his way to Boston, June 26, 1775. In this interval he marries the widow Custis, and furnishes their home with liberal orders from London, where his clothes are also "made by one Charles Lawrence, in old Fish Street," and much of his wife's attire is procured. There, too, he sends for a new stylish chariot, on which he makes bold to paint the Washington arms. He did not appear to be ashamed of this dependence on a foreign country, not being yet a full-fledged American protectionist and Harrison Republican; but he joined heartily, in 1769, in urging non-importation as a check to British oppression of the colonies.

"I have always thought," he wrote to George Mason, "that by virtue of the same power . . . which assumes the right of taxation, they may attempt to restrain our manufactories, especially those of a public nature, the same equity prevailing in the one case as the other; it being no greater hardship to forbid my manufacturing than it is to order me to buy goods of them loaded with duties, for the express purpose of raising a revenue" (p. 265).

A Life of Mason, by the way, Mr. Ford announces on p. 263 as in preparation by a descendant, Miss Kate Mason Rowland of Baltimore.

—There are many glimpses of Washington the planter in letters and diaries. On April 9, 1760, the plantation "Doctor Laurie came here, I may add, drunk." The negroes that year had the smallpox. On July 2, 1766, Washington sold to the West Indies the boy Tom, who was rogue and runaway combined, and whom the captain was enjoined to handcuff till the vessel got to sea. Tom's equivalent was to be a hogshead of molasses and another of rum, a barrel of limes, a pot of tamarinds, and two of sweetmeats. In 1770, Washington "went over to Col. Thomas Moore's sale, and purchased two negroes, to wit, Frank and James." In 1775, he sent some of his imported indented servants to the Ohio with his land-agent, whom he supplied with minute descriptions of each one in case they should run away and it should be necessary to "advertize a good reward" for them. On April 23, he had to advertise $40 reward for a Bristol joiner and a Scotch brickmaker, who thus gave him the slip "on the 19th instant at night," "in a small yawl." On another side Washington appears as guardian of the unstudious Jack Custis, and as the benefactor of William Ramsay's son, whom he offered to educate at Princeton.

—We have received from Macmillan & Co. a small 12mo of 272 pages, being a translation of

three dialogues of Plato, the Phædrus, Lysis, and Protagoras. It is by J. Wright, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge. There is no preface or prefatory note of any kind. The title-page claims that it is a "new and literal translation chiefly from the text of Bekker." Each dialogue is preceded by a rather full and very well executed summary of its contents. Otherwise, there is no note or comment whatever. If Mr. Wright and most of the other authors of literal translations were asked to define exactly what they mean by the word "literal," they would, we think, find it somewhat difficult to answer. Mr. Wright's translation is characterized by a remarkable, not to say surprising, fidelity to the Greek text. At the same time the English is so idiomatic, so easy and flowing, that a person who did not know it was a translation might often read half-a-dozen pages without suspecting the fact. This is particularly the case where the interlocutor speaks in the manner of disquisition rather than dialogue, as for example, in the famous discourse on love which Socrates "preaches" in the 'Phædrus.' Where the dialogue assumes a really conversational form, with a more equal distribution of the amount of talk between the interlocutors, Mr. Wright seems a little less "literal" and, it appears to us, a little less happy. However, even in this case, we think the translation one of unusual merit. In its mechanical make-up the book is a gem.

—In 1881 Prof. G. A. Wentworth of Phillips-Exeter Academy published his 'Elements of Algebra,' a work very extensively used since that time in our academies and high schools. The next year he published his much larger 'Complete Algebra,' not, as the title might imply, an entirely different work from the 'Elements,' and really to be called a 'Completed Algebra.' The new 'College Algebra' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is constructed on a different plan. Although it begins at the beginning in its development of the science, yet it practically assumes, on the part of the student, a previous acquaintance with algebra as far as quadratic equations. What the work contains up to this point is designed rather for the purpose of rendering it complete in itself, and to enable the student, by a brief review, to refresh his recollection of his former studies, than to be used by those who have never studied the subject at all. This course is very proper in a work on algebra designed especially for college use, because no student can enter college at all without having previously studied algebra to that extent. From quadratic equations on the treatment is very full. We have no space for detailed criticism, and can only mention one or two peculiarities of the work as distinguishing it from the author's previous treatises and from other works. The number of examples and problems for solution, although quite sufficient, is not so superabundant as in most of his text-books. There is throughout the work an evident attempt at novelty, an endeavor to say old things in a new way, which we do not think is in all cases an improvement. Among matters not usually treated in algebra we may mention a chapter on the "Graphical Representation of Functions," a subject which the student usually first meets with in Analytic Geometry, and a chapter on Determinants. The latter, which is very good, is, however, not by Prof. Wentworth himself, but by Prof. Sawin of Harvard University. On the whole, the book is a very good one, but we do not think it will greatly add to the reputation which Prof. Wentworth has already acquired.

—Those who wish to obtain some knowledge of Old High German at a minimum expenditure of time and money will find their reckoning in Wright's 'Primer of Old High German (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). In this little volume of 170 pages the editor gives a full and clear outline of the phonology and grammatical forms of the language, some extracts in prose and in verse, from Tatian to the 'Muspilli,' and a glossary. The grammar is based, of course, upon Braune, and is therefore trustworthy. We notice that at page 56 the pronoun *iz* (modern neuter *es*) is defined as 'it,' '*there*'! Would a grammarian of modern German define *es* in *es giebt* as 'there'? The distinction (p. 83) between *wesan* and *werdan* in forming the passive is not put very scientifically. Vowel length is marked throughout, an excellent feature in a book of the sort. We have to find fault with the glossary. It is altogether too meagre for the needs of a beginner, and is not accurate. Thus *agaleizi* is put down as feminine. How will this enable the pupil to read *in managemo agaleize* in the first line of Otfried, where the adjective shows plainly that the noun cannot be feminine? Braune's glossary gives a feminine in *-ī*, and a neuter in *-i*. The editor would have done better to follow Braune's example and enter all *gi-* compounds under the uncompounded form. His present arrangement is exasperating. And in general the vocabulary should be at least twice as large, with fuller definitions and copious references to both text and grammar. An editor can scarcely help the beginner too much in this direction. We hope to welcome the primer in a second edition, with the glossary recast as we have indicated.

—M. l'Abbé Fourrière, of whom we know only the name, has just published at Amiens a little book called 'Les Emprunts d'Homère au Livre de Judith,' acquaintance with which we have made only in a brief notice, with extracts, in the *Revue Critique*. Some of the Abbé's opinions are amusing enough. Of Homer he says: "The authors comprised under this name were of Jewish origin." "There were Jews in the Troad, especially in the country about Mount Ida, the inhabitants of which were called Idæans, a name almost identical with that of Judæans, or Jews." "When Homer says that an object bears two names, one in the language of the gods, the other in that of men, he means by the first tongue Hebrew, by the other, Greek. . . . If one compares the Æolic dialect with the Hebrew, striking resemblances are found between them." One of these is the resemblance of the Hebrew *vau* to the Æolic digamma. "Looked at from the religious point of view, the work of Homer is a battering-ram against Biblical monotheism, against the religion of the Hebrews." The author reserves all his rights of translation and reproduction. "Nothing is fair or good alone," as Emerson says, and Mr. Ignatius Donnelly may never know what argument his creed to the Abbé's book has lent.

—The national museum of Egyptian antiquities at Bulak contains a very interesting collection of plants which have been found in the catacombs and sepulchral monuments of the country. Dr. Schweinfurth was the first to study this ancient flora, which, according to the *Revue Scientifique*, contains no example of a plant that does not grow to-day in the Nile valley. Nor does the most minute examination show the least difference between the vegetation which flourished fifty centuries ago and that of the present time. In some cases the color of the flowers can be clearly distinguished, as, for instance, the purple larkspur, the red poppy, the reddish-brown saffron, and the blue lotus. "The leaves of the watermelon contain grains of chlorophyll perfectly visible in the microscope." All these were found in great numbers in the burial-places of the fifteenth dynasty, 3000 B. C., and in one tomb of the same time some ears of barley. In later monuments were discovered mustard, flax, cucumbers, lentils, pine-cones, juniper-berries, dates, hollyhocks, chrysanthemums, figs, olives, onions, and grapes. Around the necks and upon the breasts of the mummies of 1100 B. C. were garlands of celery-leaves and blue lotus-flowers. In regard to the various specimens of grain discovered, it may be added that no attempt to make them grow has ever succeeded, the plants having been subjected to great heat at the time of the embalming and burial, which, while it preserved them, destroyed their germinating power. The cases in which mummy wheat is said to have been raised are due simply to the fraudulent mixture of modern with the ancient grains.

—The tenth number of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, while it contains perhaps nothing which any one need feel that he positively must read before eating or sleeping, is still fairly interesting, or at least will be thought so by the votaries of the cult which it represents. The archives at Weimar have been made to yield up the usual batch of hitherto unpublished letters, the best of those given this year being some letters written by Goethe and his wife in 1808-9 to their son August, who had lately entered the University. These missives give us a pleasant glimpse of the poet in his capacity of paterfamilias, promising more money, counselling temperance, and making suggestions upon the art of living wisely in one's youth. In view of his own early disgust with academic life, such a passage as this is suggestive: "I also approve your taking but few lectures. In study, everything depends upon one's mastering, step by step, that which one purposes to acquire. As soon as the instruction offered grows over one's head, one becomes stolid or disgusted and is easily tempted to reject the whole." So, too, the bitter outburst of *Faust* upon the study of history, the "book with seven seals," and upon the futility of the efforts of the learned gentlemen to "transport themselves into the spirit of past times," is provided with a needful commentary by this passage: "I am pleased that your studies are taking an historical turn. To learn how things have come about in human, earthly fashion, what has been lost, and what has remained as a living force, is as instructive as it is delightful; and the young man whose fortune it is to lay hold of the Past in that way anticipates old age and prepares for himself a pleasant life." Of the letters of Frau Goethe one finds little more to say than that they are sensible, affectionate, and, on the whole, pretty well written. Some things in them have a strange sound to modern American ears, as where, for example, after bidding her son be at his ease with respect to money, assuring him that his father will not be close if he only spends his allowance properly, and promising to send an occasional remittance on her own account, she adds: "But I have only won 75 gulden at the lottery; with these I shall take a new chance, and this time I shall surely win."

—Of the essays contributed the most valuable is one entitled "Classiker und Romantiker," by Jacob Minor. It is really an inquiry into the origin of that far-famed antithesis. It is well known that there was an excellent understanding at first between Goethe and the Romanticists. The members of the "school"

admired him and sang his praises, and it was not until after 1805 that any breach became apparent. Minor attempts to trace the influence of the Romanticists upon Goethe's work, maintaining among other things that the First Part of "Faust" was strongly affected by the new movement, and really took on the form of a "romantic" drama in Tieck's manner. Finally, we observe that the *Jahrbuch's* eighty pages of bibliography testify abundantly to the world's—more especially Germany's—unwearied activity in the production of Goethe literature.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.

The First Three Years of Childhood. By Bernard Perez. Edited and translated by Alice M. Christie. With an introduction by James Sully, M.A. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.

Lectures on Pedagogy, Theoretical and Practical. By Gabriel Compayré. Translated, with an introduction, notes, and an appendix by W. H. Payne, A.M. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Occasional Addresses on Educational Subjects. By S. S. Laurie, A.M., LL.D., Professor of the Institutes and History of Education in the University of Edinburgh. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Notes on the Early Training of Children. By Mrs. Frank Malleson. Third edition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Sonnenschein's Cyclopœdia of Education. A Handbook of Reference on all Subjects connected with Education (its History, Theory, and Practice). Edited by Alfred Ewen Fletcher. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.

Two classes of books mark the progress of education: first, original contributions to pedagogy and the kindred sciences, such as psychology and ethics; second, books that recast old pedagogical truth and attempt to bring the maxims of common sense into the working consciousness of teachers. The work by M. Perez that heads our list may fairly claim a place in the former of these classes. The book is already too well known to require extended comment; but the appearance of an authorized American edition of the English translation is a sign of the interest of our teachers in the scientific study of babyhood. The author has not, like Darwin, written a biographical sketch of a single infant; but he has observed and compared the activities of many children, tracing the development of perception, the sentiments, will, memory, imagination, and the other mental activities in the early years of childhood. No one observer can see all there is in child nature, but M. Perez has seen a great deal that is of psychological interest; and, "not blushing to descend to petty details," he has recorded his observations with scientific thoroughness. Moreover, he has studied his material carefully, and presented the results of his study in the lucid French style that lends itself to intelligible translation. The translator, too, deserves praise for reproducing in English the clearness and simplicity of the original. It is a pedagogical commonplace that the art of education is a practical application of the science of psychology, and psychogenesis is now one of the most important chapters in psychology. Thoughtful teachers, then, do well to study works like this and Prof. Preyer's 'Die Seele des Kindes,' for they form the best text-books in infant psychology.

'Lectures on Pedagogy' is another good translation of the work of a well-known French writer. These lectures, originally delivered by M. Compayré at the normal schools of Fontenay-aux-Roses and Saint-Cloud, give a good résumé of the theory and practice of education. The book is enriched by judicious selections from eminent writers. It is well written, scholarly, and interesting. The part devoted to practical pedagogy is especially sound. The author is no advocate of that pedantry of method that would have every lesson taught by scholastic formulæ; nor does he deem it necessary to stuff the memory of teachers with the "pedagogic nonsense" of those writers who divide instruction into many *forms*, as the *achromatic* form, the *erotomatic*, *catechetic*, *analytic*, *synthetic*, *paralogic*, and the like; and then subdivide into a score of *processes*. Modern education is said to approach nature. "Alas!" he exclaims, "we are far from nature with these distillers of pedagogic quintessence, who split hairs, who distinguish and analyze the simplest things, and invent several barbarous terms to designate identical operations."

One criticism may be made upon this book. While the author bases the science of education upon psychology, his sections upon Will, Attention, Memory, Habit, and the like lack the emphasis and suggestiveness that modern physiological and experimental psychology has imparted to these subjects. The author, however, has handled the facts of introspective psychology unusually well, and presented their pedagogical aspects in a suggestive manner. Prof. Payne's translation of Compayré's 'Histoire de la Pédagogie' is the best history of pedagogy in English; and he has again rendered valuable service to education by this translation of the 'Cours de Pédagogie, théorique et pratique.'

The book just noticed and Prof. Laurie's 'Occasional Addresses' are none the less valuable for belonging to the second class of books mentioned above. Most pedagogical truths are commonplace; but platitudes usually contain the genuine ore of wisdom. They are like old worn coin, not valuable because old and worn, but old and worn because valuable. One who can recoin them, stamp them with his own individuality, and make their original value recognized at the world's counters, does a service well-nigh equal to that of one who makes an original contribution to science. This is, in great part, the work of Prof. Laurie in these addresses. Much of the book consists of what if said in a different way would be commonplace. But the author has caught an inspiration from his philosophical studies, and nothing to him is common. Few writers put so much life into the discussion of such subjects as "The Organization of the Curriculum of Secondary Schools," "Free Schooling," "Examinations," and the like.

The essay upon "The Respective Functions in Education of Primary, Secondary, and University Schools" is one of the best. According to Professor Laurie, the idea that should dominate instruction in all these grades is *nutrition*. But in the secondary schools there must also be the special aim of discipline. The youth are in the turbulent period of adolescence. "The chief lesson to be taught now is the lesson of law and duty, and of personal effort." The aim of the university likewise is *nutrition*—"the nutrition of ideas." The discipline, however, should be self-discipline, which is possible only through the utmost freedom. The following passage will indicate the author's radical position:

"The essence of university life is freedom for the student and freedom for the professor. It is simply because the university has become a certifying and graduating body that even the calling of class-rolls is justifiable. Even as a graduating body I doubt, after all, if it is justified in calling them. The professor offers to show the student the way to knowledge, and to teach him how to use the instruments of knowledge, whether they be books or microscopes; and there his function ends. If any parent is unwilling to send his son to the free life of a university, let him keep him at home and call in a trained nurse or a paternal tutor."

In Prof. Laurie's opinion, the curricula of universities should be entirely elective. *Boys* have no place in the higher academic halls. They should remain in the secondary schools until they receive the moral and intellectual discipline that fits them for the ideal atmosphere of the university.

Mrs. Malleson's 'Notes' are the straightforward utterances of common sense in regard to the training of children. The critical reader may pronounce them commonplace, but there are plenty of mothers who will find the advice in this little book helpful. Such books are always useful if they are read by those for whom they are written.

The last book on our list is a valuable addition to educational literature. Among the contributors are such prominent educators as Principal Donaldson, Oscar Browning, Sir Philip Magnus, Arthur Sidgwick, and James Sully. A wide range of subjects is treated, including the various branches of study, school virtues, methods of teaching, main points in the history of education, together with biographical sketches of prominent educators and explanation of pedagogical technicalities. "It has been the aim of the contributors," says the editor, "to give a telescopic rather than a microscopic view of the educational facts and questions discussed, and to bring their purely pedagogical features into clear outline." Subjects of special importance, however—such as Schools of Antiquity, The Reformation, Universities, Technical Education, School Law, and the more common branches of study—are treated at considerable length. These longer articles are very valuable, and the biographical and miscellaneous sketches are convenient. The emphasis is placed upon education in England; but, on the whole, the subjects have been judiciously chosen and ably discussed.

Some omissions, however, are to be regretted. For example, no mention is made of the Church Fathers. St. Jerome at least should be noticed on account of his letters on the education of girls. And among scholastic teachers, while Alcuin, Abelard, and Roger Bacon are noticed, there are no sketches of Capella, whose 'Satyricon' was the great text-book for a thousand years, nor of Peter Lombard and his famous 'Sentences,' nor of Thomas Aquinas, whose philosophy has dominated the higher Catholic education for the last 600 years Among women eminent in education, Jacqueline Pascal and Madame de Maintenon are noticed; but Madame Necker and Madame Guizot are slighted.

The view of American education presented is astigmatic rather than "telescopic." No adequate account of our public schools is given, and little attention is devoted to higher education in this country. There is some account of Harvard and the University of Virginia. The post-graduate work at Johns Hopkins, Yale, and other prominent universities is barely mentioned; but we learn that the Illinois Wesleyan University has established non-resident and post-graduate courses of study. Isabella Graham, Ezra Cornell, Peter Cooper, and James Garfield (*sic*) are the subjects of separate biographical sketches; but Benjamin Franklin, Alex. Dallas Bache, and Thomas Jefferson are

not mentioned. Even the proof-reading of American literature in the bibliography has not been entirely accurate. "H. *R.* Adams" stands for H. B. Adams (p. 559), and Charles Francis Adams would hardly recognize his Φ B K polemic on the Greek question by its new title, "A College Fetch" (p. 552).

When the editor turned his telescope towards the past, the images of Rome and Judea must have fallen on his mental blind-spot; for, while the long article devoted to "Schools of Antiquity" gives an interesting account of education in Assyria, Babylonia, China, Egypt, India, and Persia, there is no mention, except incidentally, of Greek, Roman, and Hebrew schools. This omission is in part supplied by separate articles devoted to Athenian and Lacedæmonian education. But one looks in vain for sketches of such men as Pythagoras, whose famous school at Crotona certainly deserves mention, and Quintilian, whose 'Institutes' presents in detail the Roman ideal of an orator's education from the cradle to the forum, and Plutarch, the first, so far as is known, to write a special treatise "On the Training of Children." In short, the account of Greek education is incomplete, and both the practical education of the Romans and the domestic and religious education of the Israelites are entirely neglected.

The book, for the most part, is written in plain English, but the author of the article on "Pedantry" (p. 258) begins with slovenly rhetoric, as follows: "Pedantry is an awkward ostentation of needless learning, or an obstinate addiction to the forms of some private life, and not regarding general things enough." The typography is generally good; but the book is cheaply bound, and the insertion of advertisements between the pages of the text is unpardonable. Teachers will be grateful, however, for so good a cyclopædia of pedagogical information in any form, and the value of the book is enhanced by an excellent bibliography of thirty-four octavo pages.

MADAME DE STAËL.—I.

Madame de Staël: her Friends and her Influence in Politics and Literature. By Lady Blennerhasset. 3 vols. 8vo. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

Sainte-Beuve, who had a weakness for Madame de Staël, says that "the best good fortune for an immortal memory is to have, long after death, two or three of those revivals and magnificent awakenings which astonish new generations, and convince them that a great man lies dead there, still powerful in his shade and silence." Such revivals are brought about by the posthumous publication, after the lapse of many years, of autobiographic memoirs; of correspondence, published as it was written, unchanged, simply in order of dates, which can show the writer as he really was—not dressed up for the public; and more rarely by a well-written biography, especially if it be based on unknown or little known materials.

Mme. de Staël has had none of this good fortune. Unluckily for her, and for us, too, her son died childless; her only daughter married a Duc de Broglie, and one of her granddaughters a Comte d'Haussonville; and the proprieties of these noble families might suffer by allowing the public to see Mme. de Staël too closely. Not even the correspondence with Mme. Récamier has been printed, though it was read by Sainte-Beuve. Much has been written about her, but seventy-two years have elapsed since her death, and there has been no adequate biography of her. The book before us is an effort to supply this want. The authoress, though the wife of an Irish Baronet, is a German by birth (born Countess von Leyden), and the book was originally written in German. The translation acknowledges some omissions which are generally unimportant, and it is a pity there are not still more, and that the book has not been reduced in size from three volumes to one. To those who are but superficially acquainted with those times, the history of the French Revolution, the account of Necker's financial and political schemes, and the biographies of every one whom Mme. de Staël met or knew, will be instructive and interesting; but there are probably few who are really interested in Mme. de Staël, who have not read memoirs and correspondence enough to have previously made acquaintance with all these people. Full as it is, the book does not take in everything even of what is printed; and although the authoress has consulted unpublished letters of her heroine in the library of Upsala and in private hands, she has evidently not had access to the family archives at Coppet. Some points in Mme. de Staël's life are even thus left misty, and such is the wealth of extrinsic detail that it is only by picking and choosing and putting together detached bits of the book that we arrive at any idea of Mme. de Staël herself.

Born in 1766, when her father was still only a Swiss banker in Paris, Anne Louise Germaine Necker was brought up among the literary celebrities of the day who frequented her mother's salon. Her education was directed by her mother, who was herself almost a learned woman, but strict and severe, and a great believer in method and rule. She was convinced that everything could be learned, and that study was the chief thing in education. Had her daughter not possessed originality and a mind of her own, as well as a remarkably quick intelligence which replaced perseverance and application, she would have broken down under the system. As it was, her health gave way, and the great Tronchin prescribed a country life, continuous exercise, and fresh air, with the complete cessation of all mental exertion. Mme. Necker could not accustom herself to this, and lost her interest in her daughter when she found she could no longer make her as she wished. Years after, when some one was praising Mme. de Staël's extraordinary gifts, Mme. Necker characteristically replied: "They are absolutely nothing to what I intended them to be."

Her surroundings made her as a child precocious, priggish, and pedantic, and she early developed her love for conversation. From her earliest years she wrote, first, sketches of character in the fashion of the time; then verses, essays, and plays—one of which, "Montmorency," written when she was about thirteen, is said to have been clever, and she loved to read it aloud long afterwards; but, as Gouverneur Morris says, "She writes much better than she reads." Before she was fifteen she had annotated 'L'Esprit des Lois,' had written a treatise on the Edict of Nantes, when the Abbé Raynal flattered her by proposing to incorporate it in the next edition of his 'Histoire des Indes'; and at about the same time she reviewed her father's 'Compte Rendu,' pretending that it was done anonymously, although he recognized the style.

All her life Mme. de Staël had need of loving and of being loved. At first she spent this feeling on her father, whom she always admired and idolized. Morris, writing in 1789, says: "I think that in my life I never saw such exuberant vanity as that of Mme. de Staël upon the subject of her father. Speaking of the opinion of the Bishop d'Autun upon the subject of the church property, . . . she says, 'It is excellent, it is admirable, in short, there are two pages in it which are worthy of M. Necker.' Afterwards she says that wisdom is a very rare quality, and she knows of no one who possesses it in a superlative degree except her father." It was this admiration which led her into some of her political errors.

Mlle. Necker's marriage was beset with great difficulties. Both she and her parents preferred a French alliance; but, although the sons of great noble houses did not scruple to marry the daughters of financiers, Necker was a Protestant, and it was not till 1788, on the eve of the Revolution, that the ban of the law was removed from Protestants, their civil rights restored, and their children legitimized, for in the eye of the law they were all bastards. When she was seventeen, she might have married William Pitt, then twenty-four years old, whom she had met at court at Fontainebleau. The proposal was made by Pitt after his return to England, and was warmly supported by the Neckers. But their daughter refused, as she could not tear herself away for life from Paris, which to her was equivalent to France. Her mother, who was then dying, scarcely forgave her. It was only after his rejection, if at all, that Pitt said he "was already wedded to his country." The successful wooer was Baron Eric Magnus von Staël-Holstein, Secretary to the Swedish Embassy, who was already a favorite in French society. Supported by the Comtesse de Boufflers, he had for five years sought the lady's hand; but Necker's conditions, in consideration of his position and his large fortune, were very hard. They were:

"(1.) A life appointment of Staël to the French Embassy; (2) a pension of 20,000 francs, should unforeseen events deprive him of his post; (3) the title of Count—especially to obviate any confusion between Baroness de Staël and another lady of the same name who bore a doubtful reputation; (4) a solemn promise on Staël's part only to take his wife to Sweden for a short time, and then only with their consent; (5) investiture of the Order of the Polar Star for the Ambassador; (6) an explicit declaration from Marie Antoinette in favor of this marriage."

Such conditions show Necker's immense conceit with himself and his belief in his great importance. King Gustavus, however, did not seem inclined to accept them, and it was only on the personal request of Marie Antoinette, and after the island of St. Bartholomew had been ceded by Sweden to France, that he agreed to everything except the title of Count and the life appointment. He named Staël Ambassador for six years, and promised him an additional term of six years. Two other suitors had meanwhile appeared—Count Axel Fersen, who had made the proposal only to please his father, and readily gave way to his friend; and Prince George Augustus of Mecklenburg, a brother of the reigning Duke, who described himself as a posthumous son with many debts, but used as an argument that Mlle. Necker would thus become related by marriage to the King of England. Finally the marriage contract was witnessed by the King and Queen of France, and the marriage itself was celebrated in the chapel of the Swedish Embassy at Paris in January, 1786, about three months before the bride had attained her twentieth year.

In Paris, Baron de Staël was overshadowed by his brilliant wife; but his recently published letters and despatches prove that he was by no means the nonentity which her friends accounted him. He was sincerely fond of his wife, but he was unable to express his feelings in that gushing manner which seemed so necessary to her nature. She continued to live un-

der the same roof with him, though, while her parents were in Paris, the most of her evenings were spent with them, and her real salon was at their house. After some time she became entirely indifferent to her husband. In the well-known chapter in 'De l'Allemagne,' on love in marriage, she hints that he had displayed too little sentiment—or sentimentality, perhaps—in married life; and in 'Corinne,' she also hints that he could not retain her esteem because he possessed so little intellectual distinction. Bollmann heard her say one day: "With a man who is only clever I assert myself, and I do the same with a man who is only learned; but a man who is both makes me feel that I am only a woman." De Staël felt keenly this desertion, and, only three years after his marriage, when to a great extent given up to mysticism, he wrote to a friend:

"I have spent many bitter hours since your departure. If I knew how to bear my cross, my fate would be more endurable; but the old Adam prevails. . . . I have deserved my present sufferings. I am punished in my innermost feelings, but I still dare to think that, notwithstanding all my faults, my heart has remained steadfast. Pray for my wife. May she never suffer from the torment I endure."

The marital relation, however, continued, and it was not until 1798, when Mme. de Staël, by her meddling in French politics, and by the disfavor in which she was held by the Directory, threatened to wreck the Ambassador's career for a third time, that a formal separation—*de facto*, if not *de jure*—took place. Staël was at that time considerably in debt, partly through the great expenses necessitated by his position, partly through large amounts spent to carry out the orders of his sovereign, and partly from his wife's extravagance, which had needed even the Queen's warning. Some small debts were paid by Necker, who otherwise refused to have anything further to do with his son-in-law. Napoleon, we know, had his own reasons for disliking Mme. de Staël, and yet it is difficult not to agree with him in a letter written to his brother Joseph from Aosta, March 19, 1800:

"M. de Staël is in the greatest misery, and his wife gives dinners and balls. If you must continue to visit this woman, would it not be as well to persuade her to bestow a thousand or two thousand francs a month on her husband? What is to happen next if decent people allow not morals only to be trampled under foot, but duties more sacred than those that bind children to their parents? Supposing Mme. de Staël were to be judged as if she were a man, and as one who had inherited Necker's fortune, enjoying all the advantages of a distinguished position, and yet leaving his wife in a state of misery, while he was living in luxury—I ask if such a man would be received in society?"

In 1802, finding that her husband's health had entirely broken down, and willing at last to show him the kindness which she was so ready to bestow on others, she wrote to him in Sweden that she would condone the past and would return to him. They started together for Paris, but he died suddenly when only fifteen miles from Coppet.

It is to be supposed that the poor Baron had tacitly condoned the faults of his wife. She was always a believer in friendship, especially with the male sex. Wherever she was, her house was full of men—either as protégés in the paths of literature, politics, and virtue, as recipients of her bounty, as friends, as admirers, or as something more. Her first great passion was for Narbonne, who was credited with being a son of Louis XV. Their intimacy had lasted during their residence at Paris; she had saved his life in the Reign of Terror, and she had subsequently given him hospitality in England. Their relations had then ceased, and "what had been a mere episode in his life was closed with the same indifference with which he had begun it." She kept up an outward friendship, though she suffered long from the wound he had inflicted on her heart, and had many a bitter pang at his death in 1813. Next followed Benjamin Constant, who, after her husband's death, offered to marry her. This offer she refused unless she could retain her own name, as she was unwilling to confuse Europe (*désorienter l'Europe*) by changing it.

There were probably many other reasons, for their relations were not altogether happy ones, and Constant was always trying in vain to break loose from the chain which bound him to this masterful woman. He revenged himself long afterwards with his little masterpiece, 'Adolphe.' In this he had so changed all outward circumstances as to make himself think that she would not be recognized. But all near friends who had been spectators of their intimacy—especially the simple-minded Sismondi—knew at once who was meant by Ellénore. On reading the book, one has the utmost contempt for the weak and despicable character of Adolphe, in which Constant has faithfully painted himself; but one realizes that the position of a lover of Mme. de Staël must have been an Inferno. Nevertheless, even after the Restoration, Mme. de Staël lent Constant 80,000 francs, so that he could purchase property in Paris in order to qualify himself for election as a Deputy, on condition that half of it should be repaid on her daughter's marriage. When this took place, she was obliged to remind him more than once; and he wrote in his private journal, which has just been published: "Furious letter from Mme. de Staël. I am lying in wait for her, and shall crush her. I have all that is necessary for it." The threat, however, was not carried out.

When in Italy in 1805, Mme. de Staël, as is is evident from her letters, fell desperately in love with the poet Monti, but as she tried in vain to induce him to join her band at Coppet, and submit himself to her influence for his literary improvement, there was apparently nothing which could be called a *liaison*. In 1810, after she had gone through a period of mysticism, from the religious part of which she never recovered, when she was about forty-five and had said and believed, "The door of my heart is shut," she gave sympathetic and tender care to a young patrician of Geneva, Jean de Rocca, who had served with distinction in the French army in Spain, had been shot through and through by guerrillas, and whose life had been preserved almost by a miracle through the care of a pitying Andalusian girl. Rocca was so much impressed by the mistress of Coppet that he said to a friend that he "would know so well how to love her that in the end she would marry him." "When he was told that she was old enough to be his mother, he replied that he was glad to have another reason for loving her. What seemed improbable took place. The woman who had never been beautiful, and who had never awakened any lasting affection in her youth, became the object of a passionate attachment ennobled by constancy, at a period when she had renounced all hopes in that direction." Still, with her ideas of her social rank, and with the thought that the eyes of Europe were fixed upon her, she refused to change her name or drop the title of Baroness, and hated to have it known that she had had the weakness to marry a man so many years younger than herself. The marriage, therefore, was kept secret, although in Sweden, for the sake of her children, it was revealed in confidence to the King. Elsewhere, and even in England, rather than be called Mme. de Rocca, she preferred to let people suppose that she was travelling with her lover and her illegitimate daughter. It was only after her death—shortly followed by that of Rocca—that the marriage was made public.

WINSOR'S ABORIGINAL AMERICA.

Aboriginal America. [Narrative and Critical History of America, edited by Justin Winsor. Vol. I.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

In presence of a book like this, the seventh issue in the important series to which it belongs, the critic finds it difficult to remain faithful to his duties as a "critic." There is so much to laud and so little to animadvert upon that he feels himself exposed to the reproach of partiality. Of course, no man is ever completely satisfied by the work of any other man, and the first thing one does, in examining the doings of somebody else, is to try and find out wherein that somebody "seems" to display less knowledge, less experience, less depth, than he—the critic—might have displayed under similar circumstances and in face of the same exigencies. But it must be said of the work which Mr. Winsor has undertaken, that he has left less room for fault-finding of this narrow kind than any one who ever trod the difficult path of ancient American history.

It is natural that the bibliographical introduction should be furnished by the editor himself, since nobody was better fitted than he to give an idea of the Americana extant in libraries. It is pleasant to read the praise which he accords to Mr. H. H. Bancroft as a collector of sources. Whatever may be one's opinion in regard to the use which Mr. Bancroft has made of these sources—whether his own conclusions suit us or not—the mere fact that he has gathered and stored them should entitle him to our lasting gratitude. Nobody has ever paid a higher tribute to Mr. Bancroft on this score than Mr. Winsor, and nobody was better fitted to do it. It is somewhat regrettable, however, that the list of libraries rich in Americana does not extend beyond the United States. The libraries in Mexico, for instance, like the Biblioteca Nacional and the private libraries of Don Joaquin Garcia Icazbalceta, José Maria Agreda, and of the Cura of Amecameca, Fortino Hipolito Vera, contain rare treasures.

The paper on "The Early Descriptions of America," also by Mr. Winsor, is an admirable piece of work. Beautifully and appropriately illustrated, and supplied with bibliographic notes of the highest importance, it is without parallel as yet for fulness and careful criticism of sources. The reader is made acquainted, in a manner as scientific as it is vivid, with the development of literature pertaining to the New World in the earliest times. It is the best existing guide to preparatory studies in American history—studies which, to our great regret be it said, have been until now largely neglected.

After these two introductions follows the chapter on "The Geog raphical Knowledge of the Ancients considered in relation to the Discovery of America." Mr. W. H. Tillinghast, to whom this chapter has been committed, exhausts the subject as far as is now possible. Splendid copies of almost forgotten maps accompany the article, and the Atlantis tale, the legends of Saint Brandan and Saint McLeod or Malo, as well as the question of the mythical island Antillia, with its seven cities, are very thoroughly ventilated. It strikes us, however, that, in regard to this kind of myths and hypotheses, the author might profitably have consulted the second edition of Garcia's

"Origen de los Indios," so largely amplified and transformed by its editor, Andres Gonzalez Barcia. Not only would he have found therein references to numberless speculations concerning the origin of the Indians which are to-day lost sight of, but he would have met with notices of manuscript sources extant at the time. He, perhaps, also passes too lightly over the "montagna bruna" of Dante. It should not be forgotten that this allusion may stand in the same light as the remarkable passage,

"All' altro polo, e vidi quatro stelle";

and that, while the latter appears prophetic in regard to the subsequent discovery of the Southern Cross, the former may be equally so with respect to a geographical fact. In all these legends and myths there is probably a diminutive grain of truth, and whenever they show an exceptional persistence, it is a sign that we cannot absolutely discard them. Among the elder descriptions of the earth we miss the one given in 825 A. D., by the Irish monk Dicuil, under the title, 'De Mensura Orbis Terræ.' This little book (printed with an elaborate commentary by Letronne in 1814) is not a "first-hand" source; still, it is valuable, and the more so because it contains the positive statement that Irish monks had gone to Iceland prior to the year 800. (See cap. vii, par. i, 6.)

In "Precolumbian Explorations," Mr. Winsor gives a résumé, accompanied by the usual abundance of notes and bibliography. He, too, is silent on the subject of Dicuil, and does not mention among the sources the valuable book of Christoph Friedrich Muenter, 'Kirchengeschichte von Daenemark und Norwegen.' That author gives among other things, on p. 576 of vol. i, the text of the bull of Pope Gregory IV., wherein the words, "Gronlandan—Islandon," etc., occur. It is needless to insist upon the general excellency of Mr. Winsor's monograph, by the side of which such slight omissions are truly insignificant. The cartography of Greenland is a masterpiece.

Chapter iii, on "Mexico and Central America," is a very careful review by the editor of what has been written and suggested as to the past of the Mexican and Central American tribes. He is wisely non-committal in regard to the differences of opinion concerning the stage of culture of these tribes at the time of the conquest and previously. It is not so much an historical as a purely ethnological question. The two "schools" that have arisen since Morgan's first radical but necessary efforts are distinguished from each other especially by the methods of research. The "men of Morgan," as H. H. Bancroft calls them, claim that ethnological study will enable us to reëstablish the original condition of the Indian anywhere, and some even go so far as to assert that ethnological research will prove a very useful check on the statements of Spanish chroniclers, whose testimony they do not reject, but regard as reliable in many cases, provided a just and careful scrutiny precedes their use. In this consists the fundamental divergence of the two groups. The others separate documentary study from ethnology altogether, and even frequently fail to apply the most simple rules of criticism to the study of sources. But history can no longer be divorced from ethnology, especially in America, where the types of primitive mankind are still found, and may be investigated with comparative ease.

The monograph on "The Inca Civilization of Peru," by Mr. Clements R. Markham, suffers to some extent from want of ethnological data. Hardly any part of the American continent is so neglected by ethnologists as Peru and Bolivia, and there is no section of the western world where studies like those initiated by Morgan, Powell, and Cushing, upon existing tribes, are more needed, and would, at the same time, be more profitable. Our knowledge of ancient Peru and the adjoining regions is as yet wholly based upon books and ruins, with but the slightest sprinkling of observations casually made upon the natives.

Dr. George E. Ellis's "The Red Indian of North America in Contact with the French and English" will surprise nobody who has read his book on 'The Red Man and the White Man in North America.' Still, there is some improvement upon the latter in the short essay embodied in Mr. Winsor's volume. But lack of practical acquaintance with Indian nature is here also the great drawback.

In chapter vi, "The Prehistoric Archæology of North America," Prof. Henry W. Haynes has undertaken a very intricate, delicate, and difficult task, but the manner in which he has fulfilled it is certainly worthy of the book in which it appears. To give anything like a detailed sketch of his valuable paper would go beyond the limits of a review. Very cautious and guarded, Prof. Haynes has handled this subject with as much tact as learning, keeping aloof from any hazardous speculation of his own, giving due credit to every one for what he has said or done, and thus in each case throwing the responsibility where it properly belongs.

His monograph is a fit transition from preceding ones to the interesting essay by Mr. Winsor on "The Progress of Opinion Respecting the Origin and Antiquity of Man in America." In this the editor proceeds, in his calm, dispassionate, and objective manner, to exhibit the course taken by public and learned opinion regarding the origin of the Indians of America. It is in keeping with his previous monographs. But we fear he has done injustice to old Father Garcia when he says: "He goes over the supposed navigations of the Phœnicians, the identity of Peru with Solomon's Ophir, and the chances of African, Roman, and Jewish migrations, only to reject them all, and to favor a coming of Tartars and Chinese." By referring to chapter xxv, book 4, of the second edition, it becomes plain that Garcia favors, in fact, hardly any theory in particular, but admits that there is a likelihood in each and absolute certainty in none. In this respect the old Dominican has set an example that might have profited a great many of his successors, among whom he has had not a few detractors.

Lastly, there is again a bibliography, a sketch of archæological museums and magazines, and a condensed paper on the "Myths and Religions of the Aborigines." All three are by Mr. Winsor, and breathe the spirit of learning, research, and honest criticism which characterize his and most of the other papers. In short, sincere gratitude is due to Mr. Winsor for this valuable and in many respects model publication, which to the scientist is indispensable, to the intelligent general reader an ornament and a priceless guide. We will add but one word, in regard to the illustrations: they are all "to the point," and useful accompaniments of the text. The reproductions of title-pages are excellent, and the copies of ancient maps also. Like the preceding volumes, this one has a special index, and a general index is promised in connection with the eighth and final volume.

A Text-book of General Astronomy for Colleges and Scientific Schools. By Charles A. Young, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: Ginn & Co.

FEW astronomers possess the marked qualifications of Prof. Young for the task of writing a general astronomy. His eminence as an original investigator in many branches of the science, his success as a popular writer and lecturer, and his wide experience as a teacher, have all, in particular the latter, contributed to his special fitness. Historical and descriptive, rather than philosophic and speculative, the book displays excellent judgment, and is a thoroughly competent exposition of the complex astronomy of to-day.

In the arrangement of his material, Prof. Young has not been less careful than in the widely varied choice of it. Everywhere there is evidence of a study of relative importance, and the whole is full, fair-minded, and judicious. Not a chapter but is written with an enthusiasm begotten of complete and accurate knowledge. To quote a few lines on the intensity of solar attraction (p. 267):

"If it were attempted to replace by bonds of steel the invisible gravitation which holds the earth to the sun, we should find the surprising result that it would be necessary to cover the whole surface of the earth with wires as large as telegraph wires, and only about half an inch apart from each other, in order to get a metallic connection that could stand the strain. This ligament of wires would be stretched almost to the breaking point."

And in the following page, of the problem of three bodies, he says:

"Its difficulty lies simply in the inadequacy of our present mathematical methods, and it is altogether probable that some time in the future this difficulty will be overcome—very possibly by the invention of new functions and numerical tables which shall bear some such relation to our present tables of logarithms, sines, etc., as these do to the old multiplication table of Pythagoras."

The book will not, however, be mistaken for mere entertainment for that sort of popular reader who must not be bothered to think while he reads. Prof. Young's literary style is well known and fully appreciated, and this text-book is easily his best work. His calm, perhaps over-judicial, way of stating things may often make it seem to the uninformed that astronomers know very little, any way, about the celestial spaces; but slight error on this side is better than on the other. If thorough instruction is attempted, the entire work will be found too exhaustive for the average elementary collegiate course; and for some teachers the necessary omission of much will prove a delicate task. But the treatise is excellent in every particular, and will be an inspiration to both teacher and taught.

No two writers would fit together such a mass of material alike—there is, in fact, no such thing as an absolute arrangement; but the general order adopted by Prof. Young seems in every way well advised. First, the practical side of the science is insisted upon. The definitions are logically developed, and must help much in precision of thought and speech. The treatment of precession is better than we remember to have seen elsewhere, and the precession in declination, usually overlooked in works of this sort, is here given proper prominence.

Prof. Young appears at his best in the chapters on the physics of the sun—where he is most at home. The treatment is clear and succinct. The so-called reversing layer is judicially dealt with, and the observations and theories of others are generously set forth, though contrary to his own. The chapter on eclipses, solar and lunar, is full and clear, though compendious. In the chapter on central forces, mathematical formulæ are freely used, and the expression of the semi-axis major in terms of the velocity from infinity is very neat. The exposition of the lunar perturba-

tions is excellent, and the phenomena and explanation of the tides are well and sufficiently elaborated. The planets' apparent motions in loops always interest the student, and it would seem wise to have made a little more of them. Planetary perturbations are briefly dwelt upon, but very clearly; and an entire chapter is reserved for the determination of the distance of the sun, wherein the various methods are carefully classified, and the precision of each is prominently brought out. This is, in fact, one of the best chapters in the book. Comets and meteors are difficult subjects to handle, and Prof. Young's success with them is the more worthy of note.

In taking up the stars in the three concluding chapters, the author remarks the entrance upon a vaster subject, and, he might have added, a vastly more satisfying one. The treatment is peculiarly felicitous. In dealing with the popular notion of central suns, the solar system is contrasted with the stellar in these terms: "The *solar* system is an absolute monarchy with the sun supreme. The great *stellar* system appears to be a republic, without any such central, unique, and dominant authority." Of the triple and multiple stars known to constitute physical systems, he writes: "As, for instance in the multiple star θ Orionis, we have a number of stars not organized in pairs, but at more or less equal distances from each other, we are confronted by the problem of n bodies in its most general and unmanageable form. Nature challenges the mathematicians." Prof. Young concludes the cosmogony as follows:

"To use the technical language now usually employed, energy is unceasingly *dissipated* by the processes which maintain the present life of the universe; and this dissipation of energy can have but one ultimate result—that of absolute stagnation when a uniform temperature has everywhere been attained. If we carry our imagination backward, we reach at last a 'beginning of things' which has no intelligible antecedent; if forward, an end of things in stagnation. That by some process or other this end of things will result in 'new heavens and a new earth,' we can hardly doubt; but science has as yet no word of explanation."

For astronomical text-books, there is much that is novel both textual and illustrative. Sumner's method in navigation is lucidly set forth (p. 87); the additional matter about the achromatic objective is welcome (p. 25-6), and a few lines relative to the tests of lenses by the simple method of spectral images would here have been a further assistance; it is an excellent thing to express the masses of the planets in terms of the earth's instead of the sun's mass; star spectra are simply and effectively presented; and among other novel and helpful illustrations are the equatorial coudé (53), Pickering's meridian photometer (473), and the photographic telescope of the brothers Henry at Paris (454). Also the new methods of observing the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, photographic and photometric, are not forgotten.

The student is now and then referred to the sort of observations he may advantageously attempt, even without instruments—variable stars for example; and occasionally there are directions for the use of the telescope in practical observation. It seems a mistake not to have made more of this, as the pupil may enter more fully into the spirit of the science by actually making observations of his own, crude though they be, than by cramming the information with which the book is so amply supplied as to be in parts encyclopædic.

Sundry fallacies receive a merited exposure. A frequent popular blunder relates to the lunar cusps, where it is only necessary to notice that "the *horns are always turned away from the sun*; so that the precise position in which they stand at any time is always predictable, and has nothing whatsoever to do with the weather. Artists are sometimes careless in the manner in which they introduce the moon into landscapes. One occasionally sees the moon near the horizon with the *horns turned downwards*, a piece of drawing fit to go with Hogarth's barrel which shows both its heads at once" (p. 158). There is little that could have been omitted, the amount of repetition is trifling, and even the professional astronomer will rarely consult the book in vain. Some notice of the method of least squares might well have been included, as also of the almucantar. In dealing with direct and retrograde motions of the bodies of the solar system, there is no need of the distinction between inferior and superior planets made in all text-books: the phenomena are simplest explained as a case of parallax, and a single rule then suffices for all the planets—that when furthest from the earth they advance, and when nearest regrade.

All matters are well brought down to the date of issue. Here and there an insignificant error is a blemish. There was no lunar eclipse in 1886, and 1884 is apparently intended; on page 439, the name of Thomsen is incorrectly printed. Occasionally the types are at fault in grammar, and a dozen or more cross-references are wrong, which a subsequent edition may well correct. On page 519, in dealing with the abandoned rings in the nebular hypothesis, they are said to be "thrown off," although three pages earlier the author has wisely cautioned the student against the use of this expression. On page 325, too, the engraver has blundered in cutting the phases of Venus in the precise way explicitly pointed out before as incorrect.

The typography is attractive. The arrangement of the pages, the variety of type, and the illustrations, well-chosen and engraved, make up an inviting book. In a few instances the engraver has been unfortunate in cutting planetary details too baldly, and a comet or a nebula is occasionally a failure. The proof-reading has been pretty thoroughly done, and the publishers have afforded a strong, serviceable binding, with ornament eschewed. Great care has been exercised in the preparation and arrangement of a most ample index, which makes the whole easy of access for reference; but slovenly alphabetization detracts appreciably from otherwise perfect workmanship.

Prof. Young's success in attempting a clear, accurate, and justly proportioned presentation of the principles, facts, and methods of his science merits the widest recognition.

Deductive Logic. By St. George Stock, M. A. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 356.

One of the author's friends who looked over this book in manuscript advised him not to publish it because it was too like all other Logics; another advised him to cut out a considerable amount of new matter. We cannot help being of the opinion that both of these friends were persons of a great deal of wisdom. In spite of the fact that the latter advice was followed, a good part of the new matter which is retained is, as we shall presently show, erroneous, and the old matter is, to say the least, not better set forth than in several other text-books which we could name.

This is not saying that it is not, at many points, fresh and admirably expressed and fully mastered by good sense. It would be impossible for a man who has been studying and teaching logic at Oxford for seventeen years to write a thoroughly bad book on the subject. It is merely saying that the teacher who should decide to adopt this book in his class-room instead of Bain, for instance, would be doing his pupils an injury. The trouble which the student usually has with his book on Logic is that it seems to him too much like a mixture of dry bones and sawdust. The best exposition of the subject is one which forces him, at every step, to see that there is an intimate connection between its formal rules and the trains of thought which actually go on in his own mind. Mill is still the only book for "the gentleman and the scholar" to read; but, for the young person who must be put quickly through the drill established by the schoolmen, and who must at the same time see that it has a close bearing upon the present perplexities of the scientific man and the practical thinker, hardly anything is so good as Bain. Bain, it is true, is open to plenty of objections of another kind; and there is no subject in which there is more urgent need of a new book which shall embody the recent improvements in the science, and which shall at the same time exhibit a kindly consideration for the weaknesses of immature minds.

Mr. Stock, as far as appears from his book, is wholly unacquainted with Symbolic Logic. That is a subject which throws so much light on logical theory that a brief treatment of it ought to be introduced into every text-book; but even if that is not done, no one who writes a book should be content to be ignorant of it. The conventions which Symbolic Logic finds absolutely essential are a source of very great simplicity and consistency in ordinary Logic. Mr. Stock does not mention Venn among the writers who have helped him, and he can hardly have read his persuasive plea for the thorough-going introduction of De Morgan's idea of a limited universe, and of the convention that particular propositions must imply the existence of terms, and universal must not. With this convention, it is true that we must "accept the awkward corollary" of the collapse of the time-honored jingle about opposition; but worse things than that have been lived through. If it has been shown that black swans are not found in Africa, and that they are not found anywhere else, what follows in real life is that there are no black swans; but what the old-fashioned logician wishes us to believe is that one or other of the two statements must be false. It is evident that the former is the more reasonable conclusion.

Mr. Stock calls the statement "If a is b, c is d" a complex proposition. It should be called a compound proposition, that is, a proposition about propositions, or, better still, a sequence. The term complex proposition is needed for such as have subjects or predicates that are to be broken up in the course of the reasoning, as when we infer from the statement, "Citizen-students are always revolutionists," the other statement, "All students are revolutionists, or else they are not citizens." The three things which logic considers would then be the concept, the judgment and the sequence, the last being defined to be the statement that one proposition *follows* from another or from several others, either logically (that is, as inference), or materially (that is, as matter of fact).*

Mr. Stock's introduction, on the whole, is good, though a more psychological account of the concept might have been given; and good, also, is his treatment of extension and intension. But he has a curious idea of what constitutes induction. The concluding from "All the metals which we have examined are fusi-

* The distinction between the logical and the material sequence is very much the same as that between the verbal and the real proposition.

ble" to "All metals are fusible," he gives as an example of what induction is *not*, and then he argues that it is a mistake to talk of inductive reasoning as though it were a species distinct from deductive. The above kind of reasoning he stigmatizes as a "vague instinct," but he forgets that before the days of Aristotle the strictest syllogistic reasoning was vague instinct in everybody's mind, that it is so now in the minds of all but a very few, and that it is so even in their minds in all but a very few hours of their existence. Another "curiosity of literature" Mr. Stock furnishes when he argues, under fallacies, that it is wrong to ask your opponent to grant the point under dispute, because it is violating "the first of the general rules of syllogism, inasmuch as a conclusion is derived from a single premise, to wit, itself."

But the most original part of the book is the treatment of immediate inference as applied to compound propositions, and this, unfortunately, is almost wholly erroneous. In the first place, the treatment is totally inadequate on account of the fact that it applies only to singular propositions. The denial of "No kings are tyrants" is "Some kings are tyrants," not "All kings are tyrants." "If all men are gentle, all women are brave" is the same thing as "If any women are not brave, some men are not gentle," but it is far from being the same thing as "If no women are brave, no men are gentle." But even for singular propositions, in which "The sun shines" and "The sun does not shine," for instance, contradict each other, Mr. Stock is still chock-full of error. His mistakes are due to two causes—to his ignorance of the fact that particular propositions necessarily imply the existence, real or logical, of their terms, and to his ignorance of the fact, admirably set forth by the late Prof. O. H. Mitchell, in the 'Studies in Logic,' that propositions in two dimensions are necessarily six and not four in number. The reason for this latter fact is, that "All rivers are sometimes dry" may mean either that there are times when every river is dry, or that every river is dry at one time or another; and that reasoning cannot proceed with safety until it is known which of these two things is meant. We shall not take time to set forth the effects of these two fundamental errors. It is sufficient to point out that no one but a hardened logician would suppose the statement, "Either operators must be careful, or telegrams will sometimes not be correct," to be the same thing as "Either telegrams are correct, or operators are sometimes not careful"; nor would he suppose that in order to deny the statement, "Either men fight, or tyrants reign," we say "Either men fight, or tyrants do sometimes not reign." It gives one a distinct feeling of dizziness, if not of nausea, to be told that these two statements are the denials of each other. To refute him who says, "Either corruption ceased, or the country went to the dogs," it would be necessary to establish *both* that corruption did not cease *and* that the country did not go to the dogs. It happens that statements in *either or* and in *if* are abbreviated forms for *universal* sequences, and that it is impossible to express with those words the particular sequences which are necessary for denying them. All this is as plain as daylight to any one who has been trained in Symbolic Logic, as well as to any one who has not studied Logic at all.

If this author showed greater strength than he does in plain questions of Logic, more interest would attach to the fact, which appears from an advertisement in the end of the book, that he attributes "importance to spiritualism, and gives a degree of credit to its phenomena." There is an admirable collection of examples.

Days Out of Doors. By Charles C. Abbott. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, 323 pp.

In considering books such as those of Thoreau, John Burroughs, and other literary field-naturalists, the critic mindful of the rights of readers and the aspirations of authors will be led to inquire what is their purpose or function, and to judge any particular book by its efficiency measured in terms of this ideal standard.

It would seem impossible in adopting such a standard to omit the element of accuracy of statement in regard to the facts of nature. For us this must take its place as the essential framework, the indispensable foundation of the literary edifice. The most charming style, the most enthusiastic description of wood and vale, and all that dwell therein, when based on misconception of that Nature the author would teach us to appreciate, become little better than meretricious frippery. In proportion as error enters in, so far must the effort be deemed a failure. Fiction may hold itself untrammelled, may give a seacoast to the kingdom of Bohemia, and lions to the wood of Arden, heedless of the smiles of critics. But when an author says, "Come with me and see the hidden treasures of the pasture, the woodland, or the brook," and we follow, let him beware if he leads us astray. The hope that through his agency we may attune ourselves more truly to the music of insect wings and the clear voices of the birds; that we may read, rightly or wrongly, into the microcosmic tragedy and comedy of the lives which animate the brooks and hedges, something of the pathos or joy which gives interest to our own, and feel more keenly our relationship to the great world of nature—these desires may not be idly trifled with. The ignorance of laymen may preserve them from the disheartening recognition of tinsel among the author's gold; but with those who know the wilds and their inhabitants, wilful or careless misreading of the book of Nature will always present itself as a literary crime.

In previous reviews of Dr. Abbott's books we have endeavored to applaud his enthusiasm and recognize the merits of his style, while deprecating a carelessness of statement, and a tendency to occasional gross inaccuracy, which spoil much of his work for thorough naturalists. In the present work the pleasant diction and the hearty enthusiasm are the same, and previous criticism, though treated with audible contempt by the author, seems to have had the effect of rendering him somewhat more careful. Dr. Abbott seems to feel strongly the existence of a greater amount of intelligence and individuality among animals, even of lowly types, than they are usually given credit for. In this contention we are in sympathy with him; but he does not seem to realize the danger of loose interpretation of the action of animals to the establishment of his hypothesis. The nurse who attributes to a suckling infant reasoning and logic which belong to an adult, commits a similar error, without very serious consequences. But when the attitude of mankind in general towards the inferior creation depends largely on an accurate understanding of their respective positions, the avoidance of a *non-sequitur* has more importance. When the author boldly sets his unsupported opinion against the facts gathered by a host of observers not less careful, earnest, and devoted than himself, he may exemplify his courage, but hardly can be said to exhibit discretion. He may be right, but his point-blank refusal to use the ordinary means of proving it, in a pure matter of fact, would hardly lead an unprejudiced reader to that conclusion.

The History of Ancient Civilization. A Handbook based upon M. Gustave Ducoudray's 'Histoire sommaire de la Civilisation.' Edited by Rev. J. Verschoyle, M.A. With illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 295.

The term "history of civilization" is used in two quite different senses. We are most familiar with it from Guizot, who designates by it a philosophical analysis of the great currents of history, with the especial aim to trace their influence upon one another and upon the fortunes and condition of humanity, in the workings of cause and effect. This is what Ozanam and Buckle, for example, have meant by the term, following Guizot. But it may be taken, as by the author of the book before us, as the equivalent of the German *Kulturgeschichte*, which is more descriptive than analytic, giving details of the life of society rather than characterizing it as a whole. This is no doubt as useful a work as the other, and, indeed, must be preliminary to it: there can be no large analysis, of any value, which does not rest upon an exhaustive study of detail. But we should prefer to reserve the term for the other and higher work—the meaning which is most familiar to us.

The present work, indeed, consists so much of detail that it does not fall far short of being a complete history: even political events and military campaigns are given at some length. It consists of three books—The Nations of the East, Greek Civilization, and The Roman World. There are fourteen chapters in all, the scope of which can be judged by the titles of the four chapters in the Greek portion, viz.: The Greek Religion, Greek Politics, Greek Literature and Art, The Diffusion of Greek Genius.

It will be seen that this treatise covers a wide ground, and must rest upon the basis of very varied and extensive scholarship. In general the scholarship is sound and accurate, but it cannot always be trusted. For example, the *princeps senatus* is called (page 230) the "President of the Senate," and is represented as presiding in that body—the duty of the consuls. On the following page the Assembly of the Tribes, presided over by the tribunes, is said to be that "where the whole people took part"; but the tribunes, officers of the plebeians, could preside only in an exclusively plebeian assembly. On page 256 we are told that Gaius Gracchus "had incautiously given up his tribuneship"; there was no more lack of "caution" about it than in Mr. Cleveland's retiring from the Presidency. On page 248 it is said that Hannibal, having expected aid from the Cisalpine Gauls and others, was "everywhere . . . disappointed"; but the Gauls gave him substantial aid—it was the people of Lower Italy that disappointed him. We believe that Otfried Müller's theory of the fundamental antagonism of the Dorian and Ionian races, with Sparta and Athens as their respective types, is not now held in so distinct a form as is presented on page 130. The elegant and luxurious Corinth was a Dorian city; the peculiarities of Sparta were rather Spartan than Dorian.

We note as misprints *Jupiter Olympus* (for *Olympius*, p. 114), and *Dracaii* (for *Diacrioi*, p. 134). Most astonishing and inexcusable of all, we have, on page 181, a hexastyle temple in a plain presented for the Parthenon! There is no index.

The Scientific Papers of the late Thomas Andrews, M.D., F.R.S., Vice-President and Professor of Chemistry in Queen's College, Belfast. With a Memoir by P. G. Tait, Sec. R.S.E., and A. Crum Brown, M.D., F.R.S., Professors in the University of Edinburgh. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THE handsome volume before us contains a complete record of the life-work of a man who labored long and effectively in the border-land between physics and chemistry, but who is perhaps less known in this country than many who have done less valuable service. Profs. Tait and Brown have given us an interesting though somewhat colorless memoir of Dr. Andrews, who seems to have been a man of very sterling worth.

Thomas Andrews was born at Belfast on the 19th of December, 1813. He belonged to the Scotch-Irish race which has produced so many distinguished men, and appears to have been a clever and precocious boy, with an inborn taste and faculty for scientific pursuits. At the age of seventeen he went as a student to Paris, where he worked in the laboratory of Dumas. Returning to Ireland, he spent four years in Trinity College, Dublin. He then studied medicine at Edinburgh, graduating in 1835, and settled in Belfast as a physician, but during the next ten years gave instruction in chemistry, and, though in successful practice, found time for valuable investigations, chiefly on the heat of chemical combination. He soon made the acquaintance of other chemists, notably of Graham and Faraday, with both of whom he became on terms of intimate and lasting friendship. In 1845 Andrews gave up his private practice, and became Vice-President of what is now Queen's College, Belfast. Here his really active scientific life began, and here he worked unceasingly till, in 1885, on the 26th of November, the final summons came.

The place of Thomas Andrews among scientific men, if not among the highest, is still very high. Though his papers were numerous and varied as regards subject, he will be remembered by three prominent investigations. Of these the first is on the heat evolved during chemical action, and it embraces three series of very important papers. Others had worked in the same field of study, but the work of Andrews so far surpassed what had been done before him that we can hardly hesitate to call him the founder of the new science of thermochemistry, at least from the experimental side. Subsequent investigations have shown that Andrews's work was excellent in quality. Good, says a French proverb, is the father of better, and the work of Andrews will in due time be superseded; but we doubt if that time has yet arrived, though far more elaborate and extensive investigations have since appeared.

About the year 1856 Andrews began the second great work of his life, the investigation of ozone, the beautiful discovery of Schönbein. The subject was at the time almost in its infancy. It was not known whether ozone contained only oxygen, or whether it was a higher oxide of hydrogen, or again whether there was not more than one kind of ozone. Andrews proved that ozone, from whatever source derived, is one and the same substance, having identical properties and the same constitution, and is not a compound body, but oxygen in an altered or allotropic condition. The investigation was continued in conjunction with Prof. Tait, and led directly to the true theory of the constitution of the new form of oxygen.

But the crowning work of Andrews's life was that on the continuity of the liquid and gaseous states of matter—a work which, if he had done nothing else, would alone have given him a permanent reputation. Cagniard de la Tour in 1822 observed that ether, alcohol, and water, when heated in sealed tubes, were reduced to vapor in a space between two and four times the original volume of the liquid. Faraday, in the following year, liquefied chlorine and some other gases by pressure alone. It was reserved for Andrews, by a careful study of what was then called carbonic-acid gas, to clear up the whole subject of the passage of a liquid into a vapor. For the beautiful and simple methods of investigation and for the purely scientific details of the results, we, of course, refer our readers to the original memoirs. It will be sufficient to state that these results rendered it possible to liquefy oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen gases, and that, without the direct experimental application of Andrews's work, the liquefaction would have been impossible.

Profs. Tait and Crum Brown have done the work of editing most carefully, and have erected a noble monument to the memory of a man of remarkable endowments, who has written his name permanently upon the history of physical science.

The Problem of the Northmen: a Letter to Judge Daly, the President of the American Geographical Society. By Eben Norton Horsford. 4to.

THIS letter appears to have been published because Prof. Horsford was "stung" (as he terms it) by the charge of "perversions" made by Mr. Justin Winsor, in the 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' in a disparaging estimate of the value of Horsford's 'Discovery of America by the Northmen.' Hence his endeavor to place his critic in a ridiculous light. To accomplish this he institutes a comparison between the fruits of his own researches, enumerated under nineteen heads, and the results derived from Mr. Winsor's methods, of which he gives a single illustration, accompanied with his reasons for supposing the result to be erroneous. The Professor's methods are epigrammatically described by himself in the words "Prediction and Fulfilment." The most striking instances upon his list are the discovery of Fort Norumbega (No. 15) and the identification of the remains of Norse houses, huts, fish-pits, etc. (No. 19). Both of these sites are on the Charles River, the former being in Waltham, and the latter just below Mt. Auburn, in Cambridge. Mr. Winsor's conjecture that the ditch at Waltham might possibly mark the site of an early attempt to found the town of Boston, is first contrasted with results like those we have selected above, then characterized as a guess, then demolished in an argument abundantly fortified with italics.

The Massachusetts Historical Society comes in for a share of the Professor's satire. A committee of that society ventured to dissent from some of his conclusions. He alludes to a "tone of conscious infallibility" and "an undertone of recognized authority" in their report, and buries them under the weight of the question, "Is Massachusetts a preserve?"

This is not the place to discuss the questions suggested by the weighty claims made by Prof. Horsford, nor can we at this time attempt to measure the relative values of the methods of research pursued by himself and Mr. Winsor. Mr. Winsor's history is fitly described by Prof. Horsford as a monumental work, and he himself can rest assured that his name will become famous if but a small part of the nineteen results which he enumerates shall be accepted by students of American history (or, as he, perhaps, would prefer to put it, American geography). Before leaving the subject, however, we wish to call attention to some points to which the Professor has briefly alluded, but which he may perhaps treat more fully in the forthcoming papers which he promises.

And, first, is he not in error in seeking to identify Verrazano's C. St. Margarita through the abundance of the daisies in a neighboring field? Bigelow thinks this weed was introduced here from Europe. Reliance upon Thevet and an analysis of the alleged Indian word Norumbega lie at the foundation of the discovery of Fort Norumbega. Yet we are told that Thevet was in error in supposing that the fort was the work of the French; and the argument (formerly advanced by J. R. Forster, see 'Nar. and Crit. Hist. of America,' vol. i., page 98, note 13), that Norvegia and Norumbega are different forms of the same word, is held to contain the solution of the problem of the Northmen.

The photographs of the Norse canals with which the letter is illustrated, do not give a clear idea of their character; but such a system as is described seems to militate against Horsford's fort almost as much as against Winsor's conjecture of the intended site for Boston. The minute identification of the site of Leif's house, of Thorfinn's house, of the huts and of the fish pits, on a spot continuously occupied since the day when Saltonstall landed near there, can readily be proved by archæologists. If Prof. Horsford's confidence is as great as it seems to be, he can afford to wait for the triumph which will follow this proof. The more severe the language of his critics, the greater will be their discomfiture. Meantime, those who do not blindly accept his conclusions will prefer to wait for this proof.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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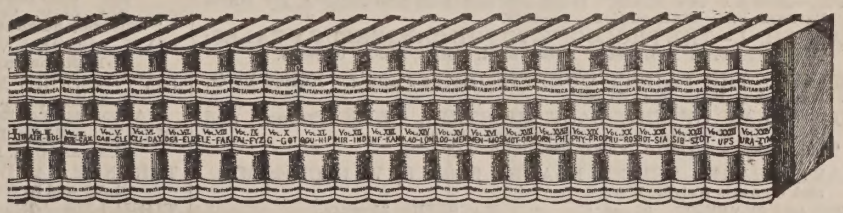

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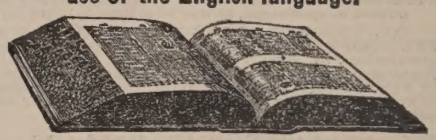

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 22, 1889.

The Week.

THE platform upon which Gen. Harrison was elected President, declared that "the reform of the civil service, auspiciously begun under the Republican Administration, should be completed by the further extension of the reform system, already established by law, to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable." This committed the Republican party, and its candidate in case of his election, to the extension of the reform system to such grades of the service, for example, as the hundreds of clerks to be appointed in the Census Office. The Republican candidate was elected, and it is now announced from Washington that President Harrison has decided to break this pledge, by refusing to place these clerks under the civil-service rules, although such "extension of the reform system" was earnestly urged by Mr. Roosevelt and the other members of the Civil-Service Commission.

The New Albany (Ind.) *Ledger* says that Postmaster Godfrey, the Republican recently appointed, has discharged all the letter-carriers, and, upon their asking what were the charges upon which they were thus turned out in disgrace, replied: "Gentlemen, there are no charges against your official conduct. You have done your work well, performed to my entire satisfaction every duty required. You are gentlemen, and I wish you well and hope you will have success in life; but you know, boys, you are Democrats." The Indianapolis *News*, an independent journal, which, it is interesting to recall, supported the President who now appoints the Godfreys, on the ground that he was a civil-service reformer, says of this performance: "The New Albany Post-office is not under the Civil-Service Law, and hence no law was violated by this barbarous deed; but the instincts of fair play, the promptings of common sense, considerations for the public service, and the whole spreading spirit of the time are affronted by such a ruthless act. It is a plea for the extension of the civil service such as President Harrison said he would favor."

We are glad to announce that the Post-office Department has at last removed from office the burglar who was appointed Postmaster at Shushan, N. Y., about three months ago. Congressman Quackenbush, the Republican Representative for the district, was responsible for this disgraceful appointment; but the Troy *Times* says that he had no personal knowledge of the criminal, but secured his appointment "upon the advice and recommendation of many of the most prominent Republicans of Washington County, including those holding responsible positions and bearing a character for highest integrity." There is hardly any sign of the times more alarming than the readiness of men "holding responsible positions and bearing a character for highest integrity" to recommend the appointment to office of rascals.

The *American* of Philadelphia, which rather startled us the other day by demanding the repeal of all duties on articles whose producers had gone into Trusts, now has a withering blast on Boss Quay, accompanied by a side-blow at President Harrison. It declares that the recent Republican State Convention at Harrisburg was a mere mustering of the followers of Quay, men "without prominence in the party, without independence of opinion, without any such political force of character as gives a convention vitality, directed by drill-sergeants in the execution of a programme already fully prepared." This abject and humiliating condition of the party is due, it says, in the first instance to its own pusillanimity, and it has been intensified by the acts of President Harrison, who has accepted the situation as he found it, and has made of Quay a more despotic boss than he was before. "The party," says the *American*, "had accepted Mr. Quay with all his methods of tergiversation, intrigue, corruption, and barter, and had made him not only its manager, but its public representative. Gen. Harrison then bound it fast to its own iniquity by making Mr. Quay his Pennsylvania deputy. *Finding the party in evil ways, he put it in convict's dress.* It is true that this has seemed a betrayal of the principles to which he was believed to be devoted. It is true that he was expected to help carry the party's standards to higher ground. But when he did not choose to do this, he had, as we have pointed out, the plausible if immoral defence that he took Pennsylvania at her own estimate of herself, and gave her a Federal ruler in the person of the man whom she had already designated as her party leader." Under the circumstances, the action of the Convention, "its conclusions, its nominations, have practically no claim to respectful consideration."

The Washington correspondent of the New York *Times* makes a statement of the highest importance as to Secretary Windom's policy regarding changes in the Treasury Department. It is as follows: "Certain chiefs of division and a few higher officers have been marked for removal on the ground that they are inefficient. The number is very small, and, indeed, insignificant, compared with the number to be retained. The total number of such officers is forty. The intention is to retain in position, at least until Congress meets, those who are competent, without regard to party. The Secretary is not anxious to make changes even then in the personnel of the Department, but is prepared, in view of his political experience and the great pressure on him for place, to yield up a goodly number of the Democratic chiefs, who shall give way to men of the party in power." Mr. Windom's reasons are represented to be that the Department as now manned is about equally divided between the two parties; that the organization is very nearly perfect, a few men having been displaced whom the Secretary regarded as less efficient than their successors; that the great column of office-holders in the Department are faithful, trained, and able men; and that to disturb this model organization would be, in his view, to impede the free movement of a great and splendidly equipped machine.

Secretary Windom is reported as saying that he found the Treasury Department in most excellent condition, and as willing to admit that the men appointed by Mr. Manning and Mr. Fairchild were a distinct gain on the old order, and that the personnel was improved under the late Administration. Naturally, he wants to preserve the good fruits of his predecessors' work, and to leave an equally creditable record behind him, and he is shrewd enough to see that he cannot do so if he turns the Department over to the spoilsmen. It is a great satisfaction to find that the head of this important Department has such sound ideas as Mr. Windom is represented to hold. If he lives up to them, he will receive the heartiest praise of every friend of civil-service reform in the land.

The Republican State Convention of Iowa adopted two resolutions on the subject of Trusts. One of these demands of Congress "the protection of American industry when *it* does not foster Trusts or trade conspiracies." The other declares that it is "the duty of the State and Federal Governments to enact and execute laws to punish trade conspiracies, Trusts, and combines designed to limit the production of the necessaries of life, unnaturally raise prices, and interfere with the natural course of trade." The admission in the first resolution that protection does in some cases foster Trusts and trade conspiracies is valuable, and the implication that it should be withdrawn in such cases will have a good deal of influence, we judge, in shaping events in the next Congress. This is the first formal recognition in a Republican State convention that Trusts and trade conspiracies are or may be fostered by the tariff. It is also a flat contradiction of Mr. Blaine's maxim that "Trusts are largely private affairs." It is a declaration that they are public affairs, to be dealt with by public bodies, and that one way to deal with them is to abolish the tariff duties which "foster" them.

The Iowa Republicans followed the example set by their Ohio and Pennsylvania brethren in ignoring the subject of civil-service reform. Four years ago the Iowa Republican Convention adopted the following resolution:

"The Republican party inaugurated civil-service reform and enacted the present Civil-Service Law. It will faithfully maintain it, and cheerfully aid in any needed amendments to give it full force."

This year the Iowa Republican Convention says not one word about civil-service reform, while Iowa Republican organs publish without rebuke assaults upon the Civil-Service Law.

The Virginia Democrats appear to have nominated a strong ticket in their Convention on Thursday. The one issue in the campaign which attracts attention, both within and without the State, is the question whether control of the commonwealth shall again be handed over to one of the worst demagogues ever developed in this country. The platform declares that "the men who were disabled in the service of the State during the late conflict between the States, and the widows of those who lost their lives in such service, are deserving of aid and protection," and favors "liberal appropriations" for this purpose. The Philadelphia *Press* (Rep.) thinks that "the Republicans of Virginia who were Unionists during the war, can hardly be expected to view this proposed addition to their taxes with entire complacency." The *Press* apparently forgets that the Republicans of Virginia are now led by a man who was *not* a Unionist during the war; that four years ago Mahone's Republican State Convention adopted a resolution in favor of generous appropriations by the Legislature for pensions to disabled rebel soldiers, and that throughout the campaign of 1885 the Republican organ at the State capital insisted that the "Bourbons" ought to be defeated, among other reasons, because they had killed a bill to establish a home for Confederate veterans, while "the Republicans did their best to pass it."

The last summer session of a New Hampshire Legislature ended on Saturday, a constitutional amendment adopted last spring having changed the time for assembling in future to January, after the fashion which is rapidly becoming universal throughout the country. The most important action of the Legislature was the election of "Bill" Chandler to the United States Senate, and, as was to be expected after such a performance, it rejected a ballot-reform bill, this being as objectionable to the "Bill" Chandler school of Republican politicians in New Hampshire as to the "Joe" Manley school in Maine, which defeated a similar measure in that State. An unexpected degree of favor was shown to a bill licensing the liquor traffic, which at first secured a narrow majority on a test vote in the House, but was finally defeated.

The Boston *Advertiser* has been making an investigation into the workings of the local-option, restrictive, high-license law that went into effect May 1, which appears to justify its conclusion that this "is proving the most successful experiment ever entered upon by the people of Massachusetts in their endeavors to cope with the liquor traffic." Reports from sixteen cities which license the sale of liquor show that the number of such places licensed (drug-stores excluded) has been reduced from 3,022 to 1,257, or considerably more than one-half, while the revenue received from this source has been raised from $1,097,706 to $1,448,425, or nearly one-third. There is also a general agreement that the laws in regard to prompt closing, Sunday sales, sales to minors and to drunken persons are much more strictly complied with than ever before, the fear of losing so costly a privilege through misconduct proving very effective.

The recent Waterways Convention in West Superior was attended by delegates from Buffalo and all lake ports westward. Its aim was to unite the Northwest in pressure on Congress for securing a better waterway as soon as possible from the head of the lakes towards Eastern markets. Deep-water navigation is admitted to be the only competitor strong enough to keep down railroad rates, and hence is the best friend of farmers. All the commerce of Lake Superior passes through a lock at the Soo (Sault Ste. Marie). The depth of water there is properly sixteen feet, but, owing to an accident, all vessels drawing more than fourteen and one-half feet are obliged to transfer a portion of their cargoes to lighters. A lock is there in making which will receive vessels drawing eighteen feet, but the annual appropriation is so small that it is not likely to be finished for four years or more. The endeavor of the Convention is to rouse the people of the Northwest to demand of Congress money enough to finish the lock speedily. A further aim is to strive for a lock of twenty feet capacity and to improve the approaches to it, as well as to get Lake Superior harbors dredged to such a depth that all vessels which can pass the lock can enter the harbors. The appeal is in behalf of a tonnage of more than seven millions passing the Soo last year, and which will soon be doubled.

The waterways movement would have little to fear but for the abominations which make the river and harbor bills a stench in the nostrils of the public. But it is better that ten guilty escape than that one innocent perish. The Convention had nothing of a party or partisan character, but one speech at least is worth heeding by all parties. "We once," said Mr. Hill, "had an ocean commerce, but it is all gone, and now we have a commission travelling about the country to see whether we can preserve our internal commerce from the lines north of the boundary. The time was when American enterprise could feel sure that it would reap the fruits of its labor. But now it is bound and manacled. Ten years ago boats on Superior were 1,000 tons and rates five cents a bushel. Now, on boats of 3,000 tons wheat rates have dropped to three cents. These boats draw fourteen feet. Give me assurance of full eighteen feet, and I will have courage to build boats of 5,000 tons which would carry freight at half the present cost. If you shall at this Convention drive the entering-wedge for eighteen feet of water, you will serve the country better than you know."

The resolution adopted unanimously by the Electrical Convention at Niagara Falls, that the duties on copper ought to be repealed, and the appointment of a committee to prepare and circulate a petition to Congress for that purpose, constitute a very important movement towards the emancipation of industry. Most of the speakers who took part in the debate declared themselves protectionists, but said that the copper tariff was inconsistent with the principles of protection. In this they were right, if it can be said that protection has any principles. There never was any reason for putting a duty on copper or copper ore, except to promote a speculation in mining stocks, and to enable the owners of mines to hold the price of American copper at a higher figure than the price of their own copper in foreign markets. Henry Clay and all the fathers of the protective policy in this country would have stood aghast at the idea of putting a duty on an article which we habitually export. The only effect of such a duty is to enable the producers to form a combination against the consumers, and this has been done repeatedly. The last reported combination was formed in Boston last week, and it had the effect to advance the prices of mining stocks very materially both here and abroad.

If protection is an object to be sought for, then certainly the greatest good to the greatest number should govern in apportioning its gifts. The number of persons employed in the electrical industries exceeds the number employed in copper mining by ten to one, at a low calculation. Electric power is second only to steam power as a factor in the national wealth and industry, while electric lighting has probably overpassed gas lighting already in the number of lights and the number of hands employed. Copper is the prime raw material of this great and expanding industry. If the electricians will go to work systematically, and circulate their petition thoroughly among their producers, employees, and customers, they can secure the repeal of the copper tariff this winter. Public opinion, even in protectionist circles, was never much in favor of a duty on copper. Whatever toleration was accorded to it has been mainly demolished by the impudent attempt at Paris to monopolize the world's supply of this article, to which the American producers lent themselves, and from which they have reaped enormous profits, although the Paris syndicate came to grief.

A correspondent, writing to us in good faith, asks us what is the average rate of wages paid for mining coal in Pennsylvania. During the Presidential campaign we received similar questions even broader in scope and less intelligible, as, for example, what is the average rate of wages in Europe, or what is the cost of living in England, or what are the prices of the common necessaries of life in Germany? All such general interrogations are as incapable of answer as the question how many years ago the Glacial Epoch occurred. There is no more sense in coupling

anthracite and bituminous coal or eastern and western Pennsylvania together to obtain an average rate of wages than in coupling either of them with the ice trade on the Hudson River. Nor is the average daily wage a measure of the remuneration of labor unless accompanied with the average of days of active employment per annum. When the great strike took place in the Schuylkill region in the year 1888, Prof. R. W. Raymond, a perfectly competent authority, made an investigation, in which he had the help of four accountants for two weeks, to ascertain what had been the wages paid for mining during eighteen months by a single company. The rate was fixed on a sliding scale, determined, above a certain minimum, by the market price of coal. Moreover, the miners worked by contract, not by the day. For the period named the average received for every day worked by any miner, good, bad, or indifferent, was $2.72. The contract miners averaged twenty-two days' employment to the month. Outside of contracts the wages paid (with a somewhat higher average of time per month in most cases) were: Miners, $1.93; miners' assistants, $1.66; ordinary underground laborers, $1.52 per day; outside labor, $1 to $1.25—*i. e.*, the usual country rates.

Objection has been raised to New York as a suitable place for holding the world's fair on the ground that it is "a foreign city." This means that New York has a larger proportion of citizens of foreign birth or foreign descent than most American cities. Seeing that Christopher Columbus was himself a foreigner, and that the celebration is in honor of his discoveries, the objection seems to be not very well founded. But if the question is to be decided on such grounds, it is quite certain that Chicago has nothing to boast of in superiority of blood. According to the last national census the population of New York was 1,206,299, of which 727,629 were of native and 478,670 of foreign birth. Almost exactly two-fifths were foreign and three-fifths native. The population of Chicago was 503,185, of which 298,326 were native and 204,859 foreign. The proportion here was almost the same, two-fifths to three-fifths. In St. Louis the ratio of native-born to foreign-born is slightly greater, but not sufficiently so to warrant boasting. The same ratio holds good within small limits for Cincinnati, Cleveland, Detroit, Milwaukee, and St. Paul, while San Francisco has, or had in the census year, a larger foreign population in proportion to her total than any other American city, the number of natives being 129,715, and of foreigners 104,244. It is time to disown the distinction so freely bestowed upon New York, of being "a foreign city."

What *did* Mr. Bruce Ismay mean when he said on board the steamer *Teutonic* that being a member of the British Parliament was different from being a member of the American Senate or House of Representatives? Commodore Bateman pricked up his ears when this remark fell from Mr. Ismay's lips. Then the *Herald* pricked up its ears. Then the *Commercial Advertiser* and the *World* did likewise. Reporters scoured the city on Friday to interview Mr. Bateman and other passengers, and to worry Mr. Ismay as much as possible. In the latter endeavor they have met with some success, but the main question is still without a satisfactory answer. Mr. Ismay says that he was only joking, but he must now perceive that it is possible to carry a joke too far if Bateman is about. Bateman does not like jokes at the expense of Congress. Other passengers were found who thought that the incident had been greatly exaggerated. Mr. William J. Demarest was one such. He thought that "appreciation for one's country should be allied to common sense." This shows that Mr. Demarest is not a journalist, and has never been through a dry season of news. Every day brings its torment to the sensation editor, and when the crop of sexual irregularity languishes, the chance remark of some foreigner on board a steamship in mid-ocean may serve the turn till a new divorce, or prize-fight, or dog-fight cheers the hearts of our tired veterans. Who shall say that the freedom of the press is not the bulwark of our institutions?

The surrender of the British Ministry to the Opposition on the tithes question, after a division on which they were nearly beaten, must give a heavy blow to their prestige. The tithe question in England and Wales is substantially, but in a much less aggravated form, what it was in Ireland fifty years ago. In that country the bailiff or "proctor" of the Protestant parson used to go about every year and take a tenth of the Catholic farmer's produce for the support of a church to which he did not belong. The Catholics, after they had recovered a little of their independence, began to resist this as monstrous injustice, but it was only abolished after several years of furious and bloody agitation, in which Paddy's turbulence and lawlessness shocked the English public terribly. The same state of things has ever since prevailed in Wales. The Anglican Church is there established by law, but the bulk of the people are dissenters, and have to pay tithes for the support of the Anglican clergy, with whom they have nothing to do. Within the last year or two they have begun, as the Irish did, to resist by force, and, it having become evident that the question needed some sort of settlement, the Government brought in a bill mitigating the system somewhat both in England and in Wales, by taking away from the clergy the power of distraint. The Liberals thereupon demanded a radical change, on the Irish precedent, by making all tithes chargeable on the landlord in a fixed annual sum, and they have carried the day. The tenant will not much longer have to support the landlord's clergy, for in Wales as in Ireland it is only the upper classes who go to the Episcopal Church. The indignation excited among these classes by the unwillingness of the poor to support the ministers of the rich has been a marked, and somewhat comic, illustration of the power of prejudice.

One of the most striking features in the Maybrick case was Mrs. Maybrick's admission, when she came to make her "statement" to the Court at the close of her defence, that she had put the arsenic in the meat-juice which was discovered by the chemist, but had done so at her husband's request, and that she only knew it was a "white powder" which he was in the habit of taking. He told her, she said, "that it would not harm him if she put it into his food, and she consented." Unfortunately, however, she had at an earlier period of his illness spoken to several persons about the white powder which her husband was in the habit of taking, and which she was sure was injurious to him, and yet, when he wanted it again, and was desperately sick, she did not know what it was, and made no effort to keep it from him. She also told the Court of the devotion with which she had nursed him, and the agony with which she had witnessed his sufferings, and added: "In conclusion, my Lord, I have to say that for the love of our children, and for the sake of their future, a perfect reconciliation had taken place between us, and that on the day before his death I made a free confession to him of the fearful wrong I did him." Unfortunately for this, she was down to the last in correspondence with her paramour, making arrangements to cover up the traces of a trip they had made to London together, and giving him the assurance that the husband could not recover before the doctors had given him up.

Judge Stephen's remarks in his charge on "expert testimony," medical and other, were very sharp and characteristic. He warned the jury about the uncertainty of medical science, or rather art, and reminded them of the old saying which described "a doctor" as "a man who passed his time in putting drugs of which he knew little into a body of which he knew less." He also had a fling at the experts in other fields who appear before parliamentary committees and the like. He said a man going on the stand, and "calling himself this, that, or the other, by no means qualified him to receive unhesitating belief." "A great deal of what he might call scum had to be taken off the testimony of skilled witnesses, for—of course, probably insensibly to themselves—they were apt to become advocates rather than witnesses." As a matter of fact, the number of drugs which the doctors tried on Maybrick was something terrible. The list has been published by a London medical journal, with the remark that it was a disgrace to the profession. He was evidently subjected to a process of experimentation which would have been enough to bring a man in health into a very low condition, much more a man who, in addition to what the doctors were giving him, was getting little daily doses of arsenic from somebody else. What makes expert testimony unreliable is a nice question of psychology. Most experts go on the stand perfectly honest men, but the influence of their retainer on the mind, though subtle, seems in most cases to be overwhelming.

AVAILABLE SUPPLIES OF MONEY.

THE reduction of the surplus reserve of the Associated Banks to barely three and a half millions in the middle of August calls general attention to the position of our money market, and to the money locked up in the National Treasury. The movement of currency to the West, and even to the South, has begun; the past week was virtually the first in this year's movement, and it ended with a bank statement which shows a very narrow margin of reserve. At the same time, the rates for money on call ruled comparatively low, not over 3 to 4 per cent., and the rates for time loans on collateral security and for the best commercial paper were about 5 per cent. These rates are fully 1 per cent. higher than those recently current, but they indicate no anxiety as to the supply of money to lend, and, as a matter of fact, the feeling among borrowers and lenders seems to have been unusually free from anxiety so far. Higher rates are generally anticipated before long, but most bankers appear to think that an active 6 per cent. market would bring all the funds needed, and quicken the public confidence in a prosperous season by showing the substantial character of the demand for loans. But all opinions make one reservation, the familiar one of nearly a generation, namely, that much would depend on the action of the Secretary of the Treasury. And much will depend upon it, beyond a question.

At the present time the Treasury has what it calls an "available balance" of about $70,000,000, of which it has some $43,000,000 on deposit in national banks, and holds Government bonds as security for the same. Some of these deposits are for the convenience of the Treasury, a kind of working capital necessary in the prosecution of its daily business; the amount is a matter of estimate, but is known to be larger than it was a few years ago, and is probably from $20,000,000 to $30,000,000. The remainder consists of deposits virtually or actually solicited by the banks, and it has been a great help to the money market, though it has enabled speculators, individual and corporate, to carry Government bonds at artificially low rates of interest even while the Treasury itself was the chief buyer of bonds. But the total of such deposits is much less than the Treasury's available balance, and the excess is withheld from productive use, and serves chiefly to tantalize the business community.

How to get this idle hoard into circulation is the constant puzzle. Mr. Windom is reported as asking how he is to get bonds if people will not sell them to him, and other people echo the question as if it were an answer to the difficulties of the situation. If money should really become close, a useful preliminary step would be to prepay the interest on the public debt for a twelvemonth. The great bulk of the debt is now in registered form, so that, when the books are closed for the quarterly payment of interest, it would be easy for the Treasury to order the checks made out for a whole year's interest. Notice would be given at the same time to holders of coupon bonds that the Treasury would cash, without rebate, their coupons for a year's interest. The time for payment of interest on the 4½ per cents is immediately at hand, and the much larger payments on the 4 per cents are due on the 1st of October.

The Secretary might also consider the character of his deposits in the national banks. Where the deposits are made for his convenience in the transaction of public business, it may be well enough to consider the services of the banks as an equivalent for the use of the money. But where the deposits are for the convenience of the banks and their customers, he need not hesitate to demand 2 per cent. interest upon them. The law empowers him to make such deposits, with security of Government bonds and under such regulations as he may prescribe. If he will observe that these deposits without interest enable the holders of bonds to withhold them from sale, he will be in a position to judge whether the exaction of a little interest would not serve him better as a buyer of bonds.

Here are two steps, then, which it can do no harm to bring forward for consideration, both by Mr. Windom and by the business community; and the first of them, the prepayment of interest for a year, would give time for decision upon the second as a separate matter. Both are within the Secretary's own control, and in this they differ from the purchase of bonds under present conditions, since sellers are needed in the latter case. Rumors arise from time to time of a large parcel of bonds to be offered, publicly or privately, to the Treasury; but people who have blocks of bonds to offer can postpone their offers until tight money has enabled them to buy stocks in Wall Street at depressed prices, which they could certainly sell out to great advantage after disposing of their bonds, and it would be a pity if the inaction of the Treasury should thus endow Government bonds with the pecuniary advantages of loaded dice.

It seems probable that, by the methods indicated, Mr. Windom would not only give large and early relief while the crops are moving, but also make bonds more easy to buy, for the purchase of bonds is at present his only means of really reducing the surplus, and, therefore, it is to be kept in view as the aim of any expedients suggested; and in this manner the time would be well spent until Congress meets, when the business of reducing the Government's income will once more be in order.

In speaking of the present available balance in the Treasury, we have neglected the money just set aside for next month's pensions, because it is not to be disbursed until September, and by that time about as much will again have accumulated, unless there is a sudden increase in the quantity of bonds purchased.

THE KILLING OF TERRY.

DAVID S. TERRY, who was shot last week by Marshal Nagle when committing an assault of the grossest character on a judge of the United States Supreme Court, belonged to a class who all deserved sudden death by the pistol, and who generally got their deserts. Terry's long survival must be considered a piece of rare good luck. He was a desperado of thirty years' standing, who during all that period carried his life in his hand, and lived among other desperadoes as bad as himself. Their failure to murder him long ago is only explicable on the ground assigned by the Irish car-driver in *Punch* to a land-agent for the great delay in killing the agent's predecessor—that "what was everybody's business was nobody's business." Somebody ought to have killed Terry a quarter of a century ago—if not the public executioner, some friend of civilization—but the obligation was so general that nobody in particular felt bound by it. But the delay was fortunate, inasmuch as it led to his dying most suitably, when in the act of committing one of his worst offences, an assault on a judge who had decided against him. Attorney-General Miller is entitled to the thanks of the community for furnishing the Judge with proper protection, and the Marshal for doing his duty in such a manner as to save us the shame of seeing a ruffian get off with a short term of imprisonment for publicly beating a judge of our highest court. We must be thankful that Terry did not begin his violence, as he undoubtedly would have ended it, with Justice Field's murder.

Terry was really a very interesting specimen of a class which may now be considered almost extinct, even at the South, where he originated and got his notions of honor and morality—a class which we have heard admirably described by a witty member of our bar as a "regular ante-bellum blackguard." He was, as most of them were, more than a blackguard. He had force of character, great courage, and doubtless some knowledge of the law, for he was a Chief Justice in the early days of California, but a person as much out of place in our modern industrial and busy communities as a tiger in a barnyard. The whole tribe owed their existence to the inordinate value attached in the South, in the slavery days, to personal courage as one of the social virtues, and which they accordingly soon learned to use as a cover for every variety of social defect—drunkenness, quarrelsomeness, idleness, and general business untrustworthiness. They had, in fact, to be quarrelsome in order to bring their peculiar virtue into play and make it tell on their social standing; but it was a virtue which, of course, has comparatively small value in any community in which the administration of justice is efficient and the police reasonably vigilant.

Terry's death reminds us forcibly of the changes all parts of the country—New York, as well as the Southern States and the Pacific Coast—have undergone since he rose into fame by killing Broderick. Broderick, though a man of good character and considerable ability, was simply a ward politician and saloon-keeper and the foreman of a fire company when he emigrated from New York to California, and yet his death convulsed the public in New York as a great political calamity. But the community which was convulsed was not shocked by see-

ing one of the most notorious ruffians of the day—the leader of more than one riot—Isaiah Rynders, occupying the place of United States Marshal, and gave Bill Poole, a political pugilist killed in a bar-room fight, one of the most imposing funerals ever seen in the city.

Terry was, in fact, in his beginnings a man of his time, but must have felt himself ever since the war the member of a rapidly disappearing variety of the *Homo Americanus*. In the South his congeners are nearly all gone. Almost every month carries one of them off, either through wounds received in "battle," or through the action of alcohol on his mucous membrane. What their ideas of post-mortem existence were it would be interesting to know, but we have never heard that any of them published his views on a future life. They were seldom men of a speculative or meditative turn of mind, and probably occupied themselves with no subject of a metaphysical character, except the nature and requirements of "honor." But certainly heaven as a place of peace and rest, with no bars, no "difficulties," and no "code," and no "gentlemen of the old school," cannot have had much attraction for them.

The killing of Terry has called forth some, but not much, discussion of the law of the matter, owing to the fact that it was not Nagle that Terry attacked, but another man, and that therefore Nagle did not act in self-defence. But the justifiability of Nagle's act is a question for a jury, and a jury will take all the circumstances into consideration, including Terry's reputation and his threats. The question jurymen will inevitably ask themselves is, whether a Federal police officer was bound to stand by and make perfectly sure that Terry was going to murder Judge Field before drawing a weapon against him; and also whether, after becoming satisfied in his own mind that Terry did mean to commit a murder, he was bound to make an attempt to disarm him by means of a personal tussle before using his pistol. What would have happened if Nagle had waited was, that Judge Field would instinctively have risen and attempted some resistance to his assailant, and then the assailant would, as usual in such cases, have "believed" he was drawing a knife or pistol on him, and have killed him on the spot. There will not be in the mind of any juryman the smallest doubt that Terry contemplated murder, and no American juryman will hold that a United States marshal is bound to witness a murder which he has every reason to expect before interfering by the only means which he is warranted in thinking likely to be effectual. The great use of juries in our system of jurisprudence is to apply to situations of this sort the common sense of every-day life. All unpremeditated killing is surrounded by circumstances which constitute justifiability or unjustifiability, and of the weight of these jurymen are the sole judges.

APPEALS IN CRIMINAL CASES.

THERE is a great outcry just now, apropos of the Maybrick case, over the absence in England of appeal in capital cases. As a matter of fact, there is an appeal to the full bench if the judge who tries the case certifies that any points of law have been raised in the course of the trial about which there is reasonable doubt. In addition to this there is a very much more valuable appeal than we have here—to the Home Secretary, not on points of law only, but on the merits of the case; that is, an appeal against the verdict of the jury. It is a mistake to suppose that this is in practice an appeal to one man, who may or may not be a lawyer, and may or may not be fitted to pass on complicated questions either of law or fact. In the present instance the Home Secretary happens to be a lawyer of considerable experience, who would have been fully competent to try the Maybrick case himself.

But even if he were not, he would not pass on a capital case, and no Home Secretary ever does, out of his own head. He calls into consultation everybody who is likely to give him efficient help in arriving at a decision—lawyers, doctors, and chemists—and he goes over not only the law, but the evidence. He does, in fact, more than any court of appeals would do or is ever likely to do in such circumstances. As a general rule, all that our Court of Appeals does is to examine the procedure in the trial for the discovery of technical defects, and it is on technical defects that new trials are almost always ordered. We do not speak with authority, but we do speak with considerable confidence, when we say that within the last twenty years no murderer has obtained a new trial from our Court of Appeals on points directly affecting the question of guilt or innocence. If anybody convicted of murder has secured any such reëxamination of his case as Mrs. Maybrick's is now receiving, and has been accorded a fresh trial because material evidence for or against him was either excluded or slighted, we should be much obliged to anybody who will cite the case to us.

In truth, we have no veritable appeal in criminal cases. We have no court which undertakes to revise the verdict of the jury. What the Court of Appeals does is to see whether the case was put before the jury in a technically correct manner, and this is not the real appeal which the Maybrick public is clamoring for. What it seeks is a court which will protect the prisoner against the jury, and discover "reasonable doubt" where the jury could see none. Is it possible to set up such a court in this country or in England without reducing trial by jury to a mere form or abolishing it altogether? We think not. We do not see where the materials for it are to be found. It would not be possible to establish any court which would be able to withstand waves of popular excitement about a criminal trial. All such popular attacks on the verdict of a jury or the rulings of a judge are in the nature of a plébiscite or *referendum*—that is, of a withdrawal of the whole case from professional examination and its submission to a mass-meeting.

The confidence with which the Liverpool public is now demanding Mrs. Maybrick's pardon or the commutation of her sentence is based on exactly the same peculiarities of human nature which dictated one of the telegrams received by a United States Senator during the Johnson impeachment trial: "Kansas has heard the evidence, and demands the conviction of the President." If we substitute Liverpool or London for "Kansas," we get a fair idea of the value a court of criminal appeal would have if Liverpool or London took it into its head to "hear the evidence" and deliver judgment. Why should the decision of two or three or four judges have any more weight against 1,000 merchants, brokers, members of Parliament, and mothers of families, than Judge Stephen, the jury, and Mr. Matthews? We know of no reason. We are witnessing to-day on a smaller scale the same sort of *referendum* in Sullivan's case. He has been convicted on the clearest evidence of having fought a prize-fight in the State of Mississippi. There is no doubt about the facts, nor is there any about the law, but he is appealing just the same, in the belief that Mississippi, or the United States, or some other large body of people, "has heard the evidence" and demands an acquittal, and that the Court of Appeals will take this into account.

THE SUMMER BOARDER'S FUTURE.

SOME years ago we discussed in these columns the rapid expulsion, which was then going on, of the American Summer Boarder by the Cottager from nearly all the choicest resorts on the eastern coast. At the time when we wrote, the Boarder had been totally driven out of Newport, and was threatened with a similar fate in Lenox and Bar Harbor, and had sought a precarious refuge in the White Mountains, the Catskills, at Northeast Harbor, and some other points along the shore of Mt. Desert Island. Since then his disappearance from Bar Harbor may be said to be complete. There are Boarders there still, but they are only a feeble and disheartened remnant of a once powerful and jovial tribe, and try in every way to escape observation or conceal their real character. There are one or two very expensive hotels in which the guests all live in "suites" of rooms, in which they still present a bold front, and try to feel at ease, but their smiles are like light on graves. As to the large old hotels like Rodick's, in which whole armies of Boarders once led a happy and careless existence, and from which they sallied forth proudly, and even ostentatiously, on fine mornings, there are now few indeed who are willing to enter or leave them without seeing whether the street is clear of the Cottagers' wagons and victorias.

At Northeast Harbor, to which a great many Bar Harbor Boarders have retreated, their career, which for a few years was very peaceful and undisturbed, is rapidly drawing to a close. The Cottager there grows yearly in numbers and power. He has bought up nearly all the land along that portion of the coast, and holds it himself at high prices for sites, or has taught the once simple-minded, but now astute and sophisticated,

native to do so. Moreover, many Boarders there are simply Cottagers in embryo, so to speak. All Boarders are by no means ready either to submit to extermination or fly to the mountains, like the ancient Britons. Very large numbers prefer the Saxon method of letting themselves be absorbed by their conquerors. That is, as soon as they begin to perceive that the invasion of the Cottager is inevitable and not far off, they shrewdly make preparations to become Cottagers themselves by purchasing lots in the neighborhood which, as Boarders, they have learned to know and love. Many a Boarder lives for years in this status of inchoate Cottager, leading to all outward appearance a Boarder's life, and taking to his friends and to the companions of his walks and drives and picnics a Boarder's view of life, while all the while a Cottager at heart, and determined when the time comes to throw off all disguise and openly abandon his brethren and build on his lot. We do not mean to say there is anything discreditable in this. Very few of us, indeed, who are over thirty years of age have been always Cottagers. There are very few Cottagers who have never been Boarders; fewer still who were born Cottagers. Therefore, there has been in nearly every Cottager's existence a transition period, a process of evolution—so to speak—which converted him from a Boarder into a Cottager, and this process must necessarily have been in most cases a slow one, with more than one stage in it. It is not every character which could support a process of sudden conversion. Even the strongest natures are best prepared for the responsibilities of Cottage life by holding, for a longer or shorter period, a Cottage lot, with the intention, concealed or expressed, of building on it—with the *animus ædificandi*, as the jurists would say.

In Lenox, the Boarder is holding out rather longer than a few years ago seemed likely, owing to the existence there of one of the most remarkable hotels in the country, around which there has hung for half a century a tradition, now to many memories a tender one, which Mrs. Kemble's recent little book, 'Far Away and Long Ago,' will do much to freshen—the tradition of a time when any one who spoke of Lenox called up the association of simplicity with refinement, of high thinking with plain living, of good company with small outlay. As long as there is a "Curtis's" in the village, the Boarder will there probably be able to surround himself with a certain dignity, and make for himself "a season" in which the Cottager will be willing to participate; but even there his extinction cannot be far distant, because he is abusing his privileges. He now goes there, in too many cases, on the pretence of enjoying the air and the scenery, when his real aim is "to get into society" among the Cottagers. Now this has the seeds of ruin in it. The Boarder's strength lay in the simplicity of his habits, and what we may call the austerity of his mind. His chance of survival rests on the general belief that he seeks in boarding an escape from the social frivolities of city life. It is this, and this alone, which can either support his self-respect or win the respect of the Cottager. As soon as it becomes plain that he is really a social sycophant, and that he goes to the country in quest of pomps and vanities which were not within his reach in his city home, his doom is sealed; his disappearance from the saloons and dining-rooms of the Cottager is not far distant.

We have said that the Boarder has until now enjoyed comparative peace and security in the Catskills and White Mountains. Considering how great the natural charms of both these regions are, and how pure and invigorating the air, the failure of the Cottager to pursue him into his fastnesses can only be explained on the assumption that the Cottager has thus far been fascinated by the seashore, and has therefore not turned his attention to the mountains. But that this period of security is likely to come to an end before long is, we think, shown by the success of such novel combinations of cottage and boarding life as Tuxedo Park, and the proposed trial of two or three similar experiments in the Catskills—that is, the experiment of a club-house, surrounded by cottages, and supplying them, if need be, with food, in a park of its own. Should these Catskill experiments succeed, the Boarders who now in that region hold the most attractive sites without disturbance may well shake in their shoes. When the Cottager acquires a taste for the mountains, he certainly will not be satisfied with spots where there is no view, and where there are no attractive walks or drives, and he needs as much space for himself alone as would satisfy a hundred Boarders.

Moreover, the Catskill boarding-house keeper is not enamoured of the Boarder. He does not welcome him in the summer because he enjoys his society, or loves to see him consume his fresh fruit and vegetables and his pure milk, and sit under his shade trees. On the contrary, he hates him, and would, if he could, strip him of everything he possesses in the world, and, in fact, makes such vigorous attempts in that direction that, under Darwin's great law of natural selection, the Catskill Boarder now generally belongs to that race whose wits have been so sharpened by ages of oppression that they are better fitted than any other to meet the extortioner in the gate, and foil his nefarious designs on the purses of the industrious and economical. The boarding-house keeper will, therefore, be restrained by no sentimental considerations from selling houses and lots to Cottagers and clubs, and moving with the proceeds into the adjacent village to lead a life of leisure in his shirt-sleeves. Where the Boarder will then go, it is hard to say; probably further back from the river into remoter mountain ranges, after the fashion of all defeated and despondent races. His tale is the ancient tale of wrong, "chanted from an ill-used race of men."

BOULANGER'S INDICTMENT.

THE case of the Government against Gen. Boulanger, as stated by the Procureur-Général before the High Court of Justice, has reached us, and, if even half its allegations were supported by proof, it is enough to make every Frenchman hang his head for shame over the fact that such a sorry charlatan should ever have obtained a majority in any constituency whatever, much less have become a sort of popular hero.

The charges are, in brief, that when he was in command at Tunis he employed secret agents, of whom one was an old prostitute and the other a journalist several times convicted of swindling; that he shared a commission of $40,000 with a disreputable lobby agent in an army coffee contract; that he was concerned in the job of an epaulette contractor; that, while Minister of War, he maintained an advertising bureau which distributed forty-one different chromo-portraits of himself; that he spent, for the same purpose, $60,000 of the secret-service money of the War Department on the newspapers; that he took money unlawfully out of the treasury of the Department; that he spent $30,000 of the secret-service money on a military club; that just before leaving the War Department he took $6,000 for himself; that he had paid off, while in office, $12,000 of debts without any visible accession of fortune; that he furnished an apartment handsomely with the public money; that he conspired with Rochefort, Soudey, and others to get up a riot at the Lyons station when he was leaving Paris; that he came secretly to Paris from Clermont-Ferrand without leave; that he prepared a coup d'état when M. Grévy was going out of office; that he got up a plébiscitary campaign after leaving the army; and that he was in possession of large sums of money, the source of which he dared not reveal.

To some of these charges Boulanger opposes a flat denial; but he does not deny his drafts on the secret-service money: he simply says that other Ministers of War had done the same thing, and he makes the astounding explanation that part of the money was used to procure the theft by night of the private papers of the military attaché of one of the great Powers ("faire enlever, une nuit, sans qu'il s'en doutât, les papiers secrets de l'attaché militaire d'une grande puissance").

The account given by the Procureur-Général of Boulanger's principal followers is so bad as to be positively diverting. His chief lieutenant is, as everybody knows, "Count" Dillon. The popular legend about Dillon was that he was the lineal descendant of the Dillon who once commanded the Irish Brigade, and added an illustrious house to the French noblesse; that he was also a man of very large fortune, which he was spending in the most unselfish manner in promoting the General's cause. The Procureur's story is, however, and he appears to have supported it with abundant documentary and other evidence, that Dillon is no count at all, but a man of humble origin, who in 1882 married his mistress, a disreputable singer at the Grand Theatre; that he was for some years in the army, but left it in 1869, in consequence of bad repute in his regiment; that after leaving it he lived extravagantly in

Paris, but was sold out by his creditors and dismissed by his mistress, who had contributed handsomely to his support; that he tried to buy carriages on false pretences; that he returned to the army in 1870, but, having cheated several persons, including a female hotel-keeper, he was dismissed the service again. After this he had some other disgraceful adventures in London.

Dillon is not, however, the worst of the lot. The account given of some of the other agents, particularly Buret, the swindling journalist, and his female colaborer, is still worse, but too unsavory for reproduction. The Procureur dwelt strongly on the fact that Boulanger's known income was only $2,500, and yet he was spending enormous sums of money, part of which undoubtedly came from abroad, and possibly from Germany. The most crushing thing among the proofs found among his papers was letters from officers in the army, whom he had corrupted into adhesion to his plans, and one of which asked for "a Second of December." In fact, both in the means used to promote his designs and in the character of the men who surround him, Boulanger bears a striking resemblance to Louis Napoleon in 1849.

Dillon is a trifle more disreputable than St. Arnaud and Persigny or Fialin, as described by Kinglake; but the main lines in their character and career are curiously alike. In truth, the whole Boulanger movement seems to have been another attempt of a parcel of penniless adventurers to get at the public treasury, and they have achieved an amount of success which may fairly be called startling, in view of the experience the French people has already had.

SIR CHARLES RUSSELL'S OPENING SPEECH FOR THE DEFENCE.

PORT BANNATYNE, August 4, 1889.

AMID the enchanting scenery of the Clyde, in one of those pleasant hydropathic establishments which owe their success to the homogeneous and temperate character of Scotch middle-class society, and in this delightful summer weather, I have read over Sir Charles Russell's great six-day speech as published in attractive book form by Macmillan. A plain, business-like arrangement of facts and evidence, generally with little attempt at oratory, it shows what first-class human intellect is capable of when trained and tempered by a first-class forensic education. Masterly as the *speech* was, the *book* is, however, somewhat disappointing. The speech answered its purpose as an address, but it does not bear reading like one of Burke or Sheridan or John Bright. We shall be disappointed if we take it up as an exhaustive mine of information regarding contemporary Irish history, or a satisfactory commentary on the politics of our time. The field of evidence and fact Sir Charles Russell had to review was so immense that any other than his treatment of the subject would have defeated his object as an advocate. Twenty pages of notes of illustrative facts and figures drawn from the Devon, the Bessborough, the Cowper Commissions, and the Reports of the Land Commission established by the act of 1881, would have made this an invaluable handbook to current Irish history. As it is, it is merely a well-printed issue of a great speech, delivered in one of the most peculiar and important trials ever conducted before a bench of English judges. More attention to its preparation in book form was, in the middle of the Commission, doubtless out of the power of Sir Charles, and if he had waited for the termination of the case (perhaps next Christmas), it would have fallen flat on the public.

The perusal recalls vividly the long agony of the last ten years in Ireland—a period easily reviewed, but which was difficult enough to live through for those who, while acutely sympathizing with the Irish cause and understanding the necessity for and the inevitableness of the struggle, were yet impelled to measure its incidents and conduct by theories of right and wrong perhaps too narrow for the circumstances. It is easy now, surveying the battle-ground, to see the justification of the struggle in the acts of Parliament wrung from an unwilling Commons, a hostile House of Lords, and an unsympathetic sovereign, and in the work accomplished by Mr. Parnell by changing the temper of the islands towards each other, and rendering possible a settlement honorable to both, without compromising the sensibilities or historic pride of either. The Irish attitude ten years ago is fairly expressed in a manifesto then circulated in opposition to Parnell, portions of which are given at page 219 of the book before us:

"It is inconsistent with the principles of true nationality for any patriotic Irishman to accept a seat in an alien parliament, because by so doing he surrenders his rights and the rights of his country into the hands of men who are opposed to its best interests, and becomes a participator in the alien system which keeps Ireland enslaved. The Irishman who becomes a member of it is either the victim of some mental delusion, a slave, or an enemy."

The feelings of most Irish Nationalists at home and abroad were then bitter and hopeless. Without outraging these feelings or ostracizing any party, Parnell insisted upon being allowed to try the experiment of working the cause his own way; and we have the result, at least so far as sentiment is concerned, when he—the unquestioned representative of the Irish people at home and abroad—fêted a few days ago in Edinburgh, could speak of the freedom desired by Ireland being "all that Ireland can justly and legitimately claim"; "legitimate Irish freedom"; "such freedom as will enable us to promote our own prosperity, while on the other hand no danger can follow to your greater and far more important interests in this country." In the magnitude of the achievement it is unnecessary to dwell too much on the means and events which led to it. Many a man who would have given his heart's blood for the results now attained, could not fully endorse and join in the movement as it proceeded. If Ireland and England could have been drawn together as they now are by a five years' war, in which half a million of lives were sacrificed and half a million sterling added to the national debt, history would hardly have considered the cost excessive.

The impeachment of Parnell and his associates for their work is a strange paradox. Would their accusers desire to revert to the *status quo ante bellum?* Stranger still are the charges upon which they are tried—vague and unformulated charges, which Sir Charles Russell has set forth under nine heads in chapter xxii of his speech. The Attorney-General and his associates, after the labor of months, with all the powers and resources of Government at their disposal, have been unable to bring to light anything of importance with which readers of the ordinary newspapers for the past ten years were not conversant. A prominent question with unbiassed thinkers on the subject must be: How could the Conservative party, a few years ago, negotiate upon the friendliest terms with men whom they now regard as guilty of the most heinous offences, seeing that those offences preceded the negotiations? Setting aside party motives, the answer is not far to seek. The charges and allegations are the outcome of the opinions of the Irish minority regarding Parnell, his followers, and their movements. The Irish Loyal and Patriotic Union, the mouthpiece of that minority, the instigator of the whole business, was roused to life and action by the imminence of the danger, as shown by Gladstone's formulation of home rule. The Conservative coalition with the Parnellites was before that event. Conservative fears and prejudices had not then been worked upon, as they have been latterly, by the Irish minority. The English Conservatives could act in accordance with their own supposed interests at the time, considering the Irish Nationalists simply as a political party. On this question they have since been biassed by the I. L. P. U. The Nationalists, apparently within reach of their goal in the spring of 1886, were in reality, so far as English opinion was concerned, only entering on their real difficulties. They appeared at that time at the point of gaining their desire, to some extent, through having made themselves an intolerable nuisance. They have since then had to undertake the far more difficult task of argument and enlightenment. An organized Irish propaganda in Great Britain, through speakers and the dissemination of campaign literature, dates from the defeat of Mr. Gladstone's measure. The Irish minority was nowhere in England. The Parnellites the English had ever with them. The lesson in the parable of the importunate widow seemed about to be strikingly exemplified.

The bitterness shown in the conduct of the Commission is due mainly to the heartfelt convictions of the Irish minority regarding the character and intentions of the majority of their fellow-countrymen and the national leaders. The ease with which Houston and Maguire and their backers (honest and sincere men, I believe) let themselves be duped by Pigott, arose from the fact that they were already convinced that Parnell and his associates were guilty of all Pigott could lay to their charge. The letters fell in with preconceived ideas. I knew Prof. Maguire personally. The rôle he assumed was against his interests and natural instincts. One of those at least who supplied Houston with funds I know to be a fair-minded, high-principled gentleman. The acquittal as to the letters in the minds of all reasonable men has made no appreciable difference in the attitude of the Irish minority towards the Irish party. This is proof, if any were needed, that hostility depended not on the guilt or innocence of the accused regarding the letters, but on the conviction that the only chance for the maintenance of ascendancy lies in the destruction of Parnell and his movement.

Nothing more inflames the passions than the danger of losing power; nothing more inclines men to hold their opponents guilty of every crime under the sun. The surest warrant that the present struggle, be it long or short, must be fought out to a successful termination by the Irish majority, is that the minority, most of the wealthy, many of the best educated, most enlightened, and conscientious, can live with and by means of the majority in utter ignorance of their real character, proclivities, and desires. No falser estimate was ever made of a body of men than that formed by the Irish minority (and expressed in the charges

and allegations) regarding Parnell and his party. If ever a political movement was necessary, the present Irish movement is so; if ever a movement was justified by results, it has been justified. To its necessity and inevitableness the minority remain blind. They regard the majority, among whom they live, as men restrained only by coercion and bayonets from compassing the destruction of the ascendancy class. In spite of the clearest facts to the contrary, they, from year to year, conjure up the hallucination that the Irish people do not think what they profess to think, nor trust those they profess to trust; that they are not actuated by the instincts and motives of other races. If only for the sake of the minority, the fence must be removed which separates them from the majority, and which alone made it possible to cherish such unmanly conceptions regarding the mass of their fellow-countrymen. This Commission and the I. L. P. U. pamphlets and campaign in Great Britain against home rule bring before the Irish people more clearly than ever the real sentiments of the ascendancy class towards them. When conscientious and able men (like Mr. T. W. Russell, who for years devoted himself to philanthropic work for the benefit of the Irish people) can take the attitude they have assumed towards the majority, what must be the views of half-educated, ignorant Orangemen? All this has, I believe, increased an undying determination in the people not to submit to government by a suspicious and scornful minority.

The Commission has not been an unmitigated evil. It may prove an important factor in the political education of the Irish people. Ireland in the vice of British power, face to face with British stolidity, Irish society permeated and dominated by the Castle system—I do not believe effectual land reform could have been attained without a severe struggle and the perpetration of horrors; but the Commission has shown us as in a mirror the dangers of such a contest, the demoralization inevitably entailed upon a population that resorts to or tolerates outrages. Should the report of the Commission and the exertions of the I. L. P. U. so influence the English people as to secure a majority against home rule at the next elections, the resources and determination of the Irish people will not be exhausted. They must sooner or later in some way assert their wishes and accomplish their desires. Their again resorting to questionable means has, however, been rendered less likely by the sitting of the Commission and by Sir Charles Russell's masterly exposition of the Irish case. D. B.

ITALY'S ALLIES AND WAR SCARES.

LENDINARA, July 27.

EVER since the "fatal year" of 1870, rumors of "war for certain," "war inevitable," have come as regularly as swallows in the spring. With the exception of the Eastern disturbance of 1877, no wars have followed on these rumors, and this spring their echoes were fainter, further off, and lasted fewer weeks than usual. The fact that the French people were bent on making their exhibition a success left fewer idle hands for mischief; the fear that the young Emperor of Germany would prove a fire-brand was, like most prophetic fears and hopes about heirs apparent, unfulfilled.

The war cloud lifted, but the rain clouds emptied themselves, dashing the wheat, just as the ears were swelling, to the ground, where the bind-weed, serpent-like, enfolded and held it prostrate; tempests of wind and hail denuded the almond, cherry, peach, and pear trees of their flower-promise wealth of fruit, washing off the early grapes and fostering every disease to which the vine is heir. Hence the one question for the owners was: How shall we pay our taxes? and for the farmers: How shall we pay our rent? And a bad, sad harvest we have had, "more straw than corn," the hemp and flax crops ruined, fruit at a price unheard of in Italy, and polenta (the staple food of the people) a third dearer than in ordinary years, the price increasing instead of decreasing in the present wheat-harvest month. Still, the maize crops had benefited by the rains, and the vines were looking up; the year with a bad beginning might end well after all! Now, suddenly, like the hurricane that swept over Ferrara the other day, comes a war panic in midsummer—whence, none but the initiated know, but it is real and widespread, nor do people pooh-pooh it as in the springtime.

A fortnight since, the bright, stalwart young peasant who works in the orchard came in at his usual hour, five A. M., with clouded, sullen face. "I am summoned for the military exercises; I must go." "Why, you only finished your full term last year!" "Surely, or I should not have married this spring." "But Angelo is in for his three years!" (There are four brothers, so the State takes the first and the third, the second and fourth passing into the "second category.") "Yes! Angelo has just served six months and has twenty-four more to finish his term. The father is only just recovering from a dangerous illness; he can't follow the plough or carry sacks into the granary; he must take on an extra hand for a month; how shall we pay our rent?" I fancied there must be some mistake till the post brought in a letter from a young professor of natural science, a year-old husband and a month-old father—master in the Lyceum of Teramo: "Adieu, visions of home and keeping father company [the writer is of Mantua, and his father, one of Garibaldi's Benjamins, is slowly dying of a torturing disease]. August and September we are called out." The writer had done his duty as a volunteer, paying the 1,300 lire premium for the privilege of getting through his term in a year and run the risks of the "calls." "So!"—the only word expressive of the situation—"So! it looks like war," is the trite observation of every one you meet. "The King has actually left San Rossore." "Crispi has not accompanied his family to Naples, or Castellamare, but, after six months' uninterrupted work and anxiety, remains alone in Rome."

To put the popular scare clearly: Take a provincial paper of Padua whose correspondent has interviewed a personage of great weight in political circles:

"'Why has the King returned to Rome?'

"'Summoned by state duties. Most alarming news has come from Vienna. Austria has decided to put a curb on the Servian agitators egged on by Russia, and she means to take the initiative. She will not proclaim war, but, at a given moment, will cross the Servian frontier; Russia will accept the challenge by crossing the Bulgarian frontier; the rest goes of itself. In Galicia, the Austrian and Russian troops may find themselves face to face, armed to the teeth, from one minute to another.'

"'Well, what's all this to Italy?'

"'Italy is bound to place at Austria's disposal all the troops that are not necessary for the defence of her own territory—some 250,000, probably under the orders of Gen. Cosenz. Whether these troops are to fight or only to keep a portion of the enemy in check, I can't say. What is certain is, that she is bound to lend her contingent.'

"'And France: will she mix herself up in the quarrel?'

"'Who knows? If the Boulanger troubles increase, as likely as not. France is far more fully prepared than we think. For Alsace and Lorraine the war material has been kept ready on the railroad; 200,000 can at once cross the frontier. If France goes in for war, she will at once occupy the Alpine passes.'

"'Can we defend them?'

"'Yes, if we spend $20,000,000 on fortifications! I fear that the immediate occupation of the frontier towns would be inevitable, and that our camp of defence will be the classic Franco-Italian battlefield. Piedmont.'

"'Ho! he! And on sea?'

"'I believe the English fleet will be with us. The preparations for the naval manœuvres [after the passage of the Defence Bill] for inspection on the 3d of August by the German Emperor is not an ordinary naval review; the mobilization of the fleet is just the same as it would be in war time.'

"'When will the fight come off?'

"'Oh! I expect the first shot will be fired in September.'

That all sane readers on your side of the Atlantic will think the above lines an attempt to make April fools out of date, I can quite believe. Yet, even while I am writing the above, arrives from the province of Brescia a tall, pale lad, just one and twenty, the second son of the widow of one of Garibaldi's best officers, with the unwelcome news that he is "in for his three years." Now, this young follow, owing to illness, general debility, and narrowness of chest and shoulders, was considered so safe from the conscription that he declined his mother's offer to pay the deposit which would enable him to go as a one-year volunteer. Last year he drew his number, and it was a low one, but at the medical visit he was dismissed "for want of breadth in the thorax." This year, though he has not gained a hair's breadth, he is passed as "able," and must rough it as a common soldier in the ranks for the next three years, even if peace endures.

The war scare will pass, but meanwhile the normal life of peaceful citizens of every class is disturbed, and the millions on millions squandered "on calling out all the classes," on summoning and retaining all the conscripts of the year—*i. e.*, all those born in 1868—must come out of the people's pocket by hook or by crook. And if not to-day, "to-morrow" is the now universal conviction, for although the text of the Triple Alliance has never been officially published, it can no longer be doubted that if Germany be attacked by France, or Austria goes in for a war with Russia, Italy is bound to support either or both of her "allies," to offend their enemies even as to defend their actual possessions. How she drifted into the Triple Alliance is a curious psychological episode for disinterested students of national problems, but the alliance itself is a harassing fact for those who remember the fable of the earthenware and copper pots. Italy, whose greatest statesman and patriot had warned her to keep her hands free, tied them both fast, and found herself compelled to spend right and left to place her army and her navy in a condition worthy of her membership in the Triple Alliance.

Bismarck's failure to induce Russia to join the alliance proved how fallacious was the foundation on which the hopes of universal peace were built. At the expiration of the five years' term, the intense irritation on the part of France had somewhat subsided, her armaments on land and sea, brought as nearly to perfection as an unlimited budget could make them, were avowedly directed towards "revindication," and there seems to have been a hope on her part that Italy would let the alliance lapse, seeing that it had been productive of nothing but increased taxation, and that a strong minority against the alliance was visibly on the increase; that the commercial relations between France and Italy were steadily growing. The sympathies of the Italians for

the Prussian alliance, enhanced by Bismarck's earlier ecclesiastical policy, had been cooled considerably by the fact that he had induced the Pope to cast all his influence, nay, to lay his commands, on the deputies of the Centre in the Reichstag, to abstain from all opposition to the septennial military bill, and it was feared that a high price at Italy's expense would be the equivalent. But the alliance was renewed for five years—on what precise terms none but the initiated could say—the public was assured that its only aim was peace; that in case war should break out between Austria and Russia, Italy would preserve strict neutrality, not, however, in the case of a European conflagration; but that even then her position on the Mediterranean was insured, the integrity of territory guaranteed, her participation in any territorial changes in the East pledged.

The country at that time thought of nothing but of how to avenge the "glorious disaster" of Dogali. Five millions for reinforcements had been voted instantly, other twenty millions were accorded, but the Cabinet of Depretis was shaken to its foundations; his overwhelming majority reduced gradually to seventy, to thirty-four, to fifteen; Robilant, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ricotti, Minister of War, were made scapegoats; Crispi assumed the portfolio of the Minister of the Interior, Depretis taking the Foreign Office, Bertolè-Viale the War Office. At the end of July, Depretis died, and Crispi became his natural heir. He could make no fundamental change in the situation—simply seek to make the best of it, although from the first he had disapproved of the African policy, and blamed Mancini and Depretis for declining England's second overtures for a joint policy in Egypt. He could not withdraw Italian troops from Massowah, nor could he, had he wished so to do, break up the Triple Alliance. Once assured that under no condition whatsoever would Germany assist the Pope to recover his temporal power, he flung himself heart and soul into strengthening the Triple Alliance, and in so doing embittered the relations with France, who seized on the fact that Italy was pledged to fight with Germany for the preservation of Alsace and Lorraine. From that moment to the present all her efforts have been and are directed to fetter, embarrass, and cripple Italy. The refusal to renew the commercial treaty was her first direct act of hostility, her latent threat being, "If Europe comes to blows, Italy's weak point is the temporal power, and we shall avail ourselves of it without stint or scruple."

For this state of things all are to blame, and none in particular; but the naked fact remains that Italy, a young and poor nation, is compelled to use and exhaust all her resources to keep up a standing army and navy, to the detriment of all other departments of national prosperity. From the abolition of the grinding tax, a portion of the salt tax, the renunciation of two-tenths of the land tax—measures absolutely necessary for internal peace and material progress—an equal necessity for rigid economy resulted; by the Government's cession of the railways to private companies (a measure opposed by competent technical authorities as disastrous) for a sum down, Italy's future is mortgaged; the sale of ecclesiastical property of State lands has come to an end, yet the army and navy must be kept up and increased. At the present moment Italy's deficit stands at least at forty millions of dollars. Mr. Gladstone, a competent authority, an optimist with regard to Italy, in his article in the *Nineteenth Century* of last May, puts his finger on the black point of Italy's horizon:

"The national debt of Italy [not having the original at hand, I retranslate from the Italian], which, on the 31st of December, 1861, stood at 120 millions sterling, has reached the enormous figure of 520 millions, with an annual charge of 23 millions, exceeding considerably that sustained by the debt of the United Kingdom, and forming almost two-fifths of the entire expenditure of the country. This expenditure for the present year was placed at 63 millions, but amounts, owing to the extra 5 millions voted for the army and the navy, to 68 millions—an expenditure far exceeding that of England in times of peace since 1868, exceeding considerably the charges of the Federal budget of the United States, which have a population more than double that of Italy, and the greatest amount of wealth existing in the world."

This magnitude of public debt, the increasing misery, the increasing deficit, the enormous taxation, appear to the eyes of this master of finance a terrible malady which must be cured at any cost. How can it be cured? Further taxation is impossible—the land can bear no more; the land tax, unequally distributed (as the territorial census, ever promised, is not yet forthcoming), amounts in certain portions of Italy to 87 and 90 per cent. of the estimated value. Hence small proprietors have been taxed out of existence; the larger ones, mortgaged up to their eyes, cannot spend sufficiently in manure or modern agricultural implements, still less in labor. After starving upon the impossible pittance of from fourpence to eightpence a day, rainy days and holidays excepted, the surplus agricultural population has emigrated, chiefly to Brazil and Buenos Ayres, whence come sad accounts and appeals for money to return. Every article of consumption is overtaxed at the gates of every city, so that if free trade exists, in name at least, for the produce of other nations, Italy's own produce in cattle, wine, poultry, fruit, etc., is taxed often at the rate of 20 per cent. Take, for example, wine: in the vineyards round Florence this year you could buy a hundred litres for five dollars; once within the gates, they cost seven.

As a proof that no other tax can be borne, that none of the old taxes "on a broad basis" can be renewed, you have the fact that when, during the present year, it was demonstrated to the House that fresh special, extraordinary credits must be accorded for the army and navy, Crispi, with all his energy and influence, could only extract an unwilling vote for the extra millions saddled with "a prohibition against levying any extra tax." In this lies the gist of the question. The Triple Alliance compels Italy, who, in 1879, had a standing army of some 700,000 men *on the rolls*, with a militia of other 900,000, to keep under arms permanently or temporarily nearly a million of men, her mobile and territorial militia, ready for call. Without going into tedious statistical details, it is easy to understand the cost of the equipment and maintenance of the permanent army of useless hands, of the equipment, travelling expenses, armament of the various categories called out for military exercises for from twenty days to one month or more every year. Add to this the expenses of war material, fortifications, etc., etc., and it is apparent that the country is and must remain crippled as long as such a state of things exists. I do not here allude to the navy, of which I have spoken in a former article, and which is on all hands admitted to be an absolute necessity for Italy as a defence.

As Crispi did not create the situation, he is not responsible for it, and it would be difficult to point to any person who could act differently or better than he does. If Italy's good star is still in the ascendant, and war be averted for the next three years, there can be little doubt that the wisdom gained by bitter experience will make her eager to release her hands; but the present outlook gives little hope of this. Should war break out under present circumstances, its unpopularity can hardly be estimated—I doubt whether the pledge of Trieste and Trent as a price for her services would reconcile the masses to the fact. Of course such a pledge will not be given; Austria, Germany herself, will never willingly yield Trieste, that only great seaport on the Adriatic. If, as seems certain, the Mediterranean in case of war should be manned with the Anglo-Italian fleet, a reverse is difficult to be imagined; yet the whole prospect is summed up in this: there is all to lose and nothing to gain by the participation of Italy in a European war; and, as France even to-day reminds her, her one vulnerable point is the question of the temporal power. That question touched, all Italy is one in heart, and, as the saying goes, "the very stones would rise in protest."

The last tidings are that the Czar is starting on his visit to the royal allies. If so, this will probably be the last war scare of 1889.

J. W. M.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

II.—THE ACADEMICAL PAINTERS AND THE PORTRAITS.

PARIS, July 31, 1889.

THE first time I walked through the thirty large galleries in which the fourteen hundred pictures composing the exhibition of the French in oil painting are placed, I was struck by two things—the remarkable diversity of the subjects and the great size of most of the canvases. In subsequent visits, and on closer examination of the pictures, I find in the confirmation of my first impressions proof that the painters of to-day are active, and let nothing go unobserved, finding subjects for their pictures in the daily life about them at home and abroad, in the streets and in the fields, while mythology, history, and religion, the nude, landscape, and portraiture are as assiduously followed as ever; and as regards the effect of large canvases on the painting, I am forced to the conclusion that the increasing tendency, traceable to the exigencies of the annual Salon, where a small canvas is almost lost, to paint everything (no matter what the subject) *en grand*, is gradually eliminating the all-important element of color.

This lack of color quality, it is worth noting, is not so much felt in the portraits, which are, taking it all in all, the best part of this exhibition; and this is probably the case because one cannot make giants and giantesses of one's sitters, and the painter is obliged to make his portrait of reasonable dimensions. It is most noticeable in the landscapes, in which, in the attempt to realize effects of light and air on a colossal scale, the artist finds it well-nigh impossible to make his picture "hold together," keep it up to the high key in which he usually starts in to paint it, and get handsome effects of color at the same time. It may be accomplished on an easel canvas, as is well shown in the best works of Corot and Daubigny and Rousseau; but when a simple motive is spread over a canvas ten or twelve feet long, as we find in so many of the pictures at the Champ de Mars, little else is obtained than a general truthfulness of effect, luminosity, and good drawing and modelling. In color these big pictures incline so much to gray tones that they are at times not very far removed from simple black-and-white.

In figure-painting (by which term I mean to include all those vast pictures of war and mur-

der, of the martyrdom and apotheosis of saints, of the loves and quarrels of the gods, that crowd the Salon every year, and the best of which are to be seen in this exhibition of the work of a decade), it is scarcely to be expected that we should find any pictures which would impress principally by beauty of color, as the works of the Italian painters of the Renaissance do. It is sufficient to say of these, that the level of the art is high, very high for this day; and whether we are interested in this sort of painting or not, we must admit that it is the backbone of the school. It must be painted and it must be exhibited, and the painters must be respected and honored by their fellows. Were the academic training which precedes it to cease, the bottom would fall out of the whole system that has produced the present admirable French school. It must not be forgotten that Millet and Bastien-Lepage were thoroughly trained in the Academy, and when they threw aside its traditions and fled to the fields for inspiration from nature, they carried with them a sound foundation without which they could never have made a picture worthy of serious consideration. If they had remained Academicians, the world would never have seen "Les Glaneuses" or "Les Foins," but they might have done some of these thoroughly well painted compositions which, as I have said, command respect at the Salons and at the Champ de Mars. It was a lucky thing for art that their temperaments led them into other roads, and there need be no fear that there will not be plenty more to do as they have done, though we cannot hope that many will reach their level.

These painters of the classical, of the historical, and the like take up a good deal of space in the galleries. Here is Cormon, for instance, whose picture, "The Stone Age," is a vast, round-topped canvas, the doorway of a cave, before which sits a patriarch with his daughters and grandchildren, while his sons, returned from the chase with a bear they have killed and thrown on the ground in front of the old man, form a group of figures of heroic size in the picture. These strong young men, brawny and brown, with unkempt hair and beards, have a savage and yet a noble air. The women, hardy and healthy, are fit companions for them, and the children, lithe of limb and with eager looks at the band of hunters and the prey, seem to have both the gentleness of childhood and a touch of savagery inherent in their surroundings. All this is well done. The figures are well drawn and stand up strong and vigorous. They are broadly handled, and there is no weakness of modelling, no prettiness of expression; all is dignified, sober, and *savant*.

There is the point: it is a *scientific* reconstruction, a representation of the life of other days. It is a thoroughly good performance, such as few other men living could equal, but wherein is the interest as a work of art? It is not to be found in any beauty of color—it is simply a big brown picture. It is not in its truth to nature, for it is a reconstruction. The original *may* have been like that, it is true, but we have not seen it, and that keen pleasure which comes from recognizing things painted, and bringing back the impression we have felt in seeing them, cannot be felt before this picture. It is not even a piece of painting of models in *plein-air*, which, if it were well done, would be interesting in itself. What then? It is a good museum picture, and nothing more. It will instruct by its good side in painting one class of people who have everything to learn, and should learn all sides of the art, and it will instruct, or at least interest, another who will look at it as they read a learned book. M. Cormon, in this phase of his talent, appears as a figure of considerable importance in contemporary art. If you wish to see more of it, you will find it in the Luxembourg, where his "Cain" and his "Victors of Salamis," enormous compositions like "The Stone Age," are hung. If you look at his portraits (there are four of them in the present exhibition), you will find that he is an able painter of character and a skilful technicist.

Look now at Albert Maignan's "The Voice of the Tocsin," another great canvas, a sort of fantasy this—innumerable figures, thoughtful composition, excellent technical qualities throughout; we have here a picture by a man of incontestable ability, but we are no more interested than by Cormon. The "Saint Isidore, Laborer," by Olivier Merson, a most artistic work of its kind; "The Youth of Bacchus," by Bouguereau; "Saint Agnes, Martyr," by Gabriel Ferrier; "Sacred Music and Secular Music," by Édouard Dubufe; "The Agitator of Languedoc," by Jean Paul Laurens, may be mentioned here as belonging in a general way to that sort of painting of which I have been speaking. It is not among these, however, that we shall find the work that shows the French school at its best nor in its most interesting phases. We shall find one of these phases in the portraits. There are so many fine ones that they cannot be noted in detail, but a few will serve as examples on which to make a few general remarks.

Bonnat, who, judging by the votes given him each year by his fellow-painters at the elections of the Salon juries, and the estimation in which he is held, may be fairly said to stand at the head of the French school, is represented by nine. The portrait of Cardinal Lavigerie, an imposing work, with the figure clad in red-and-black robes, seated full-face and square in the middle of the canvas; the bust portrait of Alexander Dumas, a remarkable piece of drawing and construction, but without color qualities, as most of Bonnat's work is; another bust portrait in profile of the painter Gigoux, very luminous and very real; and a full-length figure of a lady in a blue velvet dress, are the best of these. Delaunay, than whom there is no more conscientious and serious painter in the French school, shows ten. One of these is a half-length of a lady painted in the open air, "Portrait of Mme. Toulmouche." The head is not of the most distinguished type, rather that of a vivacious young matron of the middle class—an intelligent, "bright," and attractive face. The dress is of soft material, of a yellowish light gray, and there is a bunch of red roses in the corsage. The background is a flatly treated bit of landscape, consisting of a lawn, some slender trees, a garden wall, and a church tower, and a sky with a little blue showing through gray clouds. It is a delightful piece of sober color, color of the greatest distinction from its quiet reserve. A small head of a lady, Mme. D., a marvellous little piece of drawing; a bust portrait of a lady in black, Mme. Barboue; and a portrait of Gen. Mellinet, a scarred veteran in uniform, show Delaunay's best qualities as a portrait-painter. They are in no way "striking," and do not impress at first glance, but they are admirable in their simplicity.

Doucet, a young painter, whose success dates from 1880, when he won the Prix de Rome, but who has cast aside academical compositions for modernity, exhibits an artistically treated portrait of Mme. Galli-Marié in the costume of *Carmen*, in which there is exact drawing along with the greatest dash and freedom in the painting of the dress; and an excellent picture-portrait of a lady in a gown of blue-and-gray Japanese stuff seated in a room. Raphael Collin, with six portraits, is at his best in a small canvas showing a young girl in a modest, every-day dress of black, and the "Portrait of Mlle. ——," a young lady in a light robe, painted in full length out of doors. Carolus-Duran, whose fame as a portrait-painter is world-wide, has eight portraits in the exhibition. The earliest one is the best, for none of the others is so successful in ensemble nor so agreeable in aspect as this figure of a lady of middle age, with her white satin robe and long fur mantel—"Portrait of the Countess ——," painted in 1879. His portrait of Miss Lee-Robbins, his pupil, is pretty well known in New York through reproductions. It is a picture without the brilliancy of color that distinguishes most of his work, and lacking, too, in style. The two young girls on one canvas, "Portraits of Mlles. ——," are notable for color, quality, and brilliant handling.

There are two small portraits by Dagnan-Bouveret that are remarkable for their wonderful drawing, and two others by Paul Dubois, the great sculptor, both diminutive canvases. One head of a blonde little girl is admirable in every respect. A collection of seven portraits signed by Émile Friant is of great interest. Most of these, too, are small canvases. Though not so fine as the work by Dagnan and Dubois, they are quite worthy to be mentioned with them. Near these in the group of pictures by Gervex is this artist's excellent portrait of Alfred Stevens, the painter, the figure in half light, the forehead shaded by the rim of the hat, and the shoulders covered by a loose great-coat of black. Another portrait of an artist to be noted is that of Clairin by Paul Mathey, and it may be said here that some of the best portraits in Paris exhibitions are those of artists. They are often the subjects of "exhibition portraits," where the painter tries to do his very best for the sake of the work, no considerations of time or money entering into the question. When I have mentioned further the names of Roll, Humbert, Wencker, Henner, Debat-Ponsan, Machard, Rachou, Duez, Courtois, and Besnard as the authors of remarkable portraits, the ground is about covered.

Outside of this there is not much to note, especially for our purpose, which is to insist on the one quality which above all others distinguishes the best work of this sort by the French painters. This quality is character. It is impossible to look at these portraits and not see that in every case the artist, while he may have chosen to paint his sitter under what seemed to him the most favorable conditions, has never descended to flattery, or what English art-writers express by a term of their own—"idealization." The truth is paramount to every other consideration. In looking at them one feels, indeed, that the basis of all good art is truth to nature, and that from the old masters down there has been nothing painted worth preserving that is not founded on truth. The masters have had different ways of expressing it, and where some have insisted on detail, others have summarized and selected; but the foundation is always the same. It is, moreover, plain to see that the portrait, as it is considered and as it is treated by the best artists of all the famous schools, is one of the highest forms of art, and by simply painting a man in his every-day clothes a chef d'œuvre may be produced. We have, of course, long known this, for we have seen the great works of Rembrandt and Velasquez and Titian; but it is not as well understood at home as it ought to be. The conditions under which American art is pushing its way are altogether favorable to portrait-painting. We

have some excellent painters already, and we shall have more as soon as the portrait is generally recognized, as it is here, as a work of art *per se*. Then, too, we shall see fewer bad portraits brought to New York from Paris, for there are many tares among the wheat, though they have, with few exceptions, been excluded from the Champ de Mars, and far too many of them have found their way to us in America. The increasing excellence of the home work, it is to be hoped, will soon cause this sort of importations to cease, and the more good things that come to us the better. It is gratifying to find at this international exhibition that the good influence of the French in portraiture has made itself strongly felt in every country on the Continent, and it will be to our advantage at home if the same influence can be exerted. We have a good beginning, and it only requires recognition and encouragement for full development. WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

IRRIGATION AND SILVER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Happening a few days since to be in the pathway of one of the Senatorial junketing expeditions, I was favored with a chance to see how nicely business and pleasure are combined by great men.

In South Dakota lies a large part of the James River Valley, a very fertile tract, containing a large area especially adapted to the growth of hard spring wheat. Scarcity of streams and timber indicates comparatively light rainfall, and, since its settlement, more suffering has come of want of moisture than from all other causes. The true valley soil is peculiar in that a very small quantity of moisture (a quantity which would leave common soils almost fruitless) will mature an abundant yield of the early cereals.

The suffering from drought has never been general through the valley until this year, during which not enough moisture has fallen at any one time (the entire snowfall included) to wet down the depth of the ploughing. An area of perhaps 75x200 miles is underlaid by a water-bearing stratum, which, when tapped, delivers water at the surface at pressure as high as 180 pounds per square inch in some instances. The conditions prevailing this year have led to the advocacy of artesian wells as a source of supply for irrigation.

The Committee of the Senate who are going about inquiring into the feasibility of irrigating the arid tracts of the West, were invited to visit points in this valley; and Senators Stewart of Nevada and Reagan of Texas, with Maj. Powell and others, passed through. They reached a smart town of 5,000 or more people about noon of Sunday, August 4, and, having been duly heralded by wire, were met by the city officers, the fire department, and citizens, who escorted them first to an exhibition by the fire department, showing the capabilities of the artesian wells in throwing streams; thence to the pumping-station, where the sewage is raised by power from another well; thence to the public hall, where the Senators were one after another introduced to the audience.

It was Senator Stewart's turn first, and he began by telling of two sorts of irrigation—the agricultural sort and a kind of financial irrigation which the great man asserted existed in the East. The audience remained mystified as to this last sort while the Senator gave a not very lucid history of common irrigation, to which I had the honor of listening for a half-hour or more. Then the Senator warmed up to a degree better worthy of the occasion, and proceeded to expound the financial irrigation from which the country is suffering. As soon as I got the drift of his argument, I had such a powerful desire to go to dinner that I found myself unable to stay longer; but from what I heard, read in the newspapers, and gathered from diligent inquiry of friends who stayed, the argument ran about thus:

The sayings of Western people, when they represented the full wisdom of their authors, were wiser than the sayings of Eastern people, because they have brought West with them the wisdom of the East and added thereto the wisdom of the West. Financial teachings originating in the East are not therefore to be relied upon, and are of necessity subject to suspicion. The West furnishes not only the best financial theories, but also the material (silver) to back them up.

Silver is a much better thing financially than people have heretofore realized. If properly handled, it is capable of unsuspected blessings. The Government should not take the trouble to coin any more, or as much as now, but should secure all it can get in the form of bullion, and cast it in great "pigs," too large to be carried off by thieves, and then cord it up in full view, shutting it out from the public by a picket fence only. This pile could be made the specie basis of more silver certificates than we ever saw before, and need only be depleted in paying off the bonds. Silver as pay for bondholders is the article that is exactly good enough without being too good for them. England is now sending all the silver she can get hold of to India to buy wheat. A movement like that outlined above would compel England, for lack of silver, to buy wheat here, instead of in India.

This last crowning argument was the one that "brought down the house"; and when the great man exhorted the audience to see to it that the Representatives to Congress from the new States were men of broad views on the silver question, he received great applause.

C.

MINNEAPOLIS, August 10, 1889.

SELF-PRESERVATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I regret to trespass further on your space, but must ask room for a brief reply to Mr. Schuyler's misrepresentation of my letter of July 18. "A minister of the Gospel of Peace calmly defends lynch law as applied to his colored 'brethren in Christ Jesus,'" says Mr. Schuyler, but I beg his pardon; that is not my standard of Christianity. There are many colored men that I rejoice to call "brethren in Christ Jesus," but none of them are guilty of the crime of rape! Nor did I unconditionally defend lynch law in any case. I stated the conditions, and asked what could be done. The remedy I abhor; but I abhor the disease more. If any one that really understands the conditions can suggest a better remedy, no one would welcome it more readily than I. Of course the "elevation of this barbarism" by Christian education is the true method, but it works a little slowly, and meanwhile must innocence and virtue be allowed to fall a prey to passion and vice? Some of us are doing all we can in that direction, and would be glad of any assistance that Mr. Schuyler or his friends can render us.

But what I do maintain, absolutely and unconditionally, is that self-defence is an inherent right of man—before all human government and above all human law. No one questions this in the case of the individual. Is it any less the right of communities? Take an illustration that is not prejudiced by coming from a Southern latitude. To fill one's premises with armed men ready to shoot down in broad daylight any one who enters without permission is not, under ordinary circumstances, a very civilized proceeding; but in the presence of an armed strike, did Northern men hesitate to preserve their *property* in that way? Is not the existence of that organization known as "Pinkerton's men," and its approval by good men (*vide* columns of the *Nation*), a recognition of the fact that when law and government are powerless to protect, corporations and communities are justified in falling back on the inherent right of self-defence? Do they stop to consider whether the barbarism that requires force to meet force has been "imported," that they may "utilize its brute force in the service of their own laziness"—or avarice? Or do they wait to call in Pinkerton until they have tried to elevate the strikers by Christian influences?

I will not discuss with Mr. Schuyler whether the South alone is responsible for "importing this barbarism." There is sin enough all around without throwing stones. But I cannot close without saying that while he may sneer at our "precious civilization," it *is* precious to us, especially that part of it that consists in the purity of our wives and daughters—so precious that we will continue to defend it even at the cost of incurring the disapproval of some Northern philanthropists.

I regret that I cannot reply to Mr. Schuyler over my own name. He has full permission to obtain it from the editor of the *Nation*. But on account of certain local allusions in my previous letter I must sign myself as before.

A SOUTHERN PASTOR.

KENTUCKY POLITICS AND ILLITERACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Regarding the recent election in Kentucky, your exposure of the ignorance of the Philadelphia *Press* upon matters statistical was a misconception. The Republican vote of Kentucky is made up very largely, if not almost entirely, of negroes and mountaineers. As a Union soldier I was fond of the old chestnut about the mountains being cradles of liberty, because our volunteers in Kentucky were mostly recruited from those cradles. It is a current belief that the mountains of Kentucky are cradles of illiteracy and lawlessness, and that deadly feuds are rife in these Republican strongholds. The negroes now have schools throughout the Democratic portions of the State; but if education improves their morals and their gullibility as little as it does those of their white political brethren, we must not wonder at Democratic majorities in Kentucky. You see the *Press* was right. The Democratic majorities in Kentucky are due to illiteracy—the illiteracy of their Republican opponents.

MUGWUMP.

FOREIGN NOTIONS OF AMERICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for July 18th, "X. Y. Z." complains of "the reputed ignorance and ambition" of the Americans among the English—that all we know is how to make money. In Germany and Austria I have found the same opinion widespread—it might even be said, almost universal. Instead of merely complaining of the fact, it seems to me better to try to

seek the reason therefor. Two causes appear to be at the bottom of the matter: (1) that the American writings most generally read by the Germans are those of Cooper and Bret Harte, which naturally convey no idea of the life of the Americans who do know something higher than how to make money; (2) that vast numbers of travelling Americans seek to make a display of their money, and certainly do display a profound ignorance of many matters a knowledge of which is here taken as a matter of course by every educated person.

For example, one day I sat before Raphael's Sistine Madonna. The little room where it hangs was full of people hushed to an adoring admiration before this possibly the most widely known of all paintings. Three women enter, and, to my horror, one asks in a loud deep voice, "What is that?" The answer escaped me. After at most three minutes, the same voice remarks: "Very pretty. Come away; you're standing before the people"; and out they went, doubtless satisfied that they had "done" the greatest thing in Dresden. That is only one of many experiences in Europe which have made me blush for my mother country.

An instance of an entirely different sort may serve to show how easily false opinions may be formed. A graduate of one of the better American universities recently insisted that all Germans are stupid—and he thoroughly believed it. Yet he was a man who had spent much time in luxuriously seeing Europe, but was too lazy to learn the languages, and had seen nothing of German society, except one or two dinner parties, where he was limited in conversation to those who could speak English. The really cultivated Americans who travel try to employ their time usefully, and attract no attention to their nationality.

The *Nation* has done its utmost within the past year to demonstrate the tremendous rôle that wealth plays even in securing the highest offices in the country. The fact of our tremendous surplus was published all over Europe. Though it is as mistaken for the European to believe that making money is all the American cares for as for the latter to believe that *all* Germans are stupid, the former has certainly much better ground for his opinion than the latter.—Respectfully yours, A. B. C.

VIENNA, August 5, 1889.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO. have in press several elaborately illustrated works, viz.: Samuel Lover's 'The Low-Back'd Car,' with designs by William Magrath, in photogravure from copper plates; Tennyson's 'The Miller's Daughter,' with designs by E. H. Garrett, H. Fenn, and others; Dr. John Brown's 'Rab and his Friends,' with designs by Mr. Garrett and Hermann Simon; and 'Legend Laymone,' a poem by M. B. M. Toland, with designs by Hamilton Gibson, Church, Mowbray, and others. The same firm announce also 'Cycling Art, Energy, and Locomotion,' by Robert P. Scott, with illustrations; Pierre Paris's 'Manual of Ancient Sculpture,' edited and augmented by Jane E. Harrison, with 200 illustrations; 'Extracts from the Journal of Elizabeth Drinker,' edited by Henry D. Biddle; 'Half-Hours with Humorous Authors,' selected by Charles Morris; 'Justice and Jurisprudence,' an anonymous inquiry concerning the Constitutional limitations of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments; 'A Treatise on the Nature, Causes, Treatment, and Prevention of Crime,' by S. M. Green; 'Involuntary Idleness,' by Hugo Bilgram; 'Two Thousand Years After,' by John Darby; and the following novels: 'Gold that Did Not Glitter,' by Virginius Dabney; 'A Nameless Wrestler,' by Josephine W. Bates; and 'Rudderless,' by Julia D. Young.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish directly 'Recollections of the Court of the Tuileries,' under the Third Empire, by Mme. Carette; and later, in the "International Education Series," 'European Schools in 1888,' by Dr. L. R. Klemm, Principal of the Technical School in Cincinnati.

D. C. Heath & Co. publish at once 'The State; or, Elements of Historical and Practical Politics,' by Woodrow Wilson, author of 'Congressional Government.' It is designed to serve as a text-book for advanced classes in high-schools and colleges, and will be followed next year by 'The American State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics in the United States,' a text-book for grammar and high-schools, by the same author.

'Literary Landmarks,' by Mary E. Burt, announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., has for its explanatory title: "A Guide to Good Reading for Young People, and Teachers' Assistant."

The *Library Record* of Worcester, Mass., has just concluded its first volume, and professes itself assured of its future permanence. This is a Yankee notion worth imitating. Its primary object was to print a list of new books added to the Public Library. "This," says the editor, "renders it a most excellent medium for a certain class of advertising, for the reason that it goes directly into families and is preserved and cared for, that selections may be readily made from the books in making up cards from week to week without the necessity of going to the library for that purpose; so that no advertisement is likely to be lost sight of after once reading." We ought to add that judicious selections fill the space not occupied by the list or by the advertisements, and that fifty cents a year is the subscription price.

An important announcement from Rome is made known in the *Academy* of July 27. This is no less a piece of news than the approaching publication, in photographic facsimile, of the Vatican MS., Codex B. The work is being done under the auspices of Leo XIII. and the editorship of the Abbé Cozza-Luzi. One hundred copies of the New Testament are being issued, and may be had from the Fototipia Danesi, Rome, at the price of 200 lire. The first fifty subscribers will receive also four volumes of the Old Testament at the same rate. The New Testament volume will be of about 300 pages.

We must refrain from any but the barest mention of the great enterprise undertaken by the Clarendon Press of Oxford (New York: Macmillan), under the editorship of Bishop Wordsworth, namely, a text of Jerome's 'Novum Testamentum Nostri Iesu Christi,' based upon the most scrupulous comparison of twenty-nine well-chosen codices, and the occasional employment of as many editions. Use has also been made of Bentley's unpublished comparison of the New Testament in Greek and Latin, and a long list of his readings is given in the first part (the Gospel according to Matthew) of the present collation. For the Evangelists the Brixian codex is printed in full directly beneath the Vulgate. Eleven years have been spent by Bishop Wordsworth and his assistant, Henry I. White, Fellow of St. Andrew's, on this enormous labor. The Prolegomena are deferred to the close of the work, but the introductory matter is copious, and includes Jerome's epistle to Pope Damasus and the Prologue from his Commentary. The belief is expressed that this comparative exhibition of texts may be as useful to philologists interested in the history of the Latin language as to theologians. The typography is admirable, as of course.

C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, has made up a small but not meagre book, with the title 'Autobiography of Friedrich Froebel,' meaning by this his letter to the Duke of Meiningen, an English translation into English, and a shorter letter of a similar character to K. C. F. Krause, with other selections bearing on Froebel's career. A chronological abstract of the chief events in his life and in that of his Community, and a bibliography, complete the work.

The fourth and concluding number of the eleventh volume of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, accompanied by the title-page to the volume and an index of the titles of the papers contained in it, arranged according to the names of the authors, is before us. Throughout the volume the *Journal* adheres rigidly to its original plan of admitting only such contributions as are, either in their form or their substance, the result of original investigation. The present volume contains nineteen papers, twelve of which are in English, four in French, and three in German. As to the matters of which they treat, these papers may be classified, perhaps somewhat vaguely, as follows: three treat of subjects in the domain of mathematical physics, three of curves; six deal with the differential and integral caculus, more especially with differential equations; seven belong to those regions of the higher algebra which are closed to all except professional mathematicians, and, we suspect, to a large portion even of these. Most of these papers are so far in advance of our highest class text-books that their contents must for a long time remain inaccessible except as presented in the *Journal*, and hence the latter is indispensable to those who desire to occupy a place in the front rank of the ever-increasing army of mathematicians.

The second number of the *National Geographic Magazine* has made its appearance, consisting of the annual address of the President of the National Geographic Society, on the Past and Future of Africa, and four vice-presidential reports, called, rather fantastically, Geography of the Land, of the Sea, of the Air, of Life, respectively. Gen. Greely's paper is the most profitable of these. He tells of the discontinuance of the system of international simultaneous meteorological reports begun in 1873, and mentions a few of the results of the mass of observations. From the final editing of them he anticipates an approach to the ultimate formulating of the law of atmospheric changes, so that "from abnormal barometric departures in remote regions may be predicted the general character of seasons in countries favorably located."

The Moses King Corporation, Boston, send us a folding "annotated" pocket-map of Massachusetts, than which nothing could be more convenient to carry about the person, or cheaper in price. The back of the map is used for a great variety of historical and statistical matter.

Garden and Forest calls for the indexing of the reports of State horticultural societies, which are mostly printed as public documents and distributed gratis. It suggests that the Department of Agriculture undertake the work.

Mr. S. S. Rider, in his Providence *Book-Notes* for August 17, reviews the recent revela-

tions about Roger Williams in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. He concludes that the real trail has at last been struck, and points to some corroborative circumstances, as, that Williams's being a clergyman at High Laver in the County of Essex brought him under the jurisdiction of Laud, Bishop of London, who pursued him out of the land, as Williams wrote to Mrs. Sadlier; further, that his riding "Windsor way to take ship at Bristol," which enabled him to call on Sir Edward Coke at Stoke House, shows that he left England from London and not from Wales, since Stoke House is on the direct road from London to Windsor.

The London *Athenæum* reports that "all the capital has been subscribed for the new weekly which Mr. Wemyss Reid intends to edit when he has finished his biography of Lord Houghton. The journal will in some degree be on the model of the New York *Nation*. Prof. Bryce and Mr. Morley have been giving advice as to the literary part of the paper." We believe it is intended to replace the *Spectator* with the Liberals.

—Macmillan & Co. have commenced the publication of a series of text-books in Greek under the general title "Macmillan's Greek Course," and in size "Globe 8vo." The course commences with a 'First Greek Grammar,' by W. Gunion Rutherford, the Headmaster of Westminster. It is a small book containing only 185 pages in large clear type. There are so many peculiarities about the book that we should be utterly unable within any reasonable limits to give an account of them, and it would be useless to mention one or two. We may say, however, that the author seems to have taken almost as much pains to exclude from his book what will be of no use to the beginner as to include what is indispensable. The success of the little grammar has been very remarkable in England. The second volume of the course, 'Easy Exercises in Greek Accidence,' is by H. G. Underhill, Assistant Master of St. Paul's Preparatory School. It is a companion volume to the grammar, but even smaller, containing only 126 pages. We can give it an almost unqualified approval. Although its chief object is to give practice in the forms of words, yet it really introduces the pupil to many of the fundamental principles of Greek syntax. We have noticed the retention of a few of the absurdities of the old grammars. The third volume, containing 217 pages, fifty of which are occupied by the vocabulary, is entitled 'Stories and Legends: A First Greek Reader,' by F. H. Colson, Senior Classical Master of Bradford Grammar School. We believe the practice is quite extensive in England, and we know it is almost universal in the United States, to commence the reading of Greek texts with the 'Anabasis' of Xenophon. Formerly the universal practice was to begin with a 'Greek Reader,' a book made up of short pieces taken from various writers. The work of Mr. Colson may be regarded as a "reversion" to the old plan. In his preface the author discusses the merits of the two methods at considerable length. The book is for the most part made up of very short and very simple pieces, which Mr. Colson "has freely simplified and adapted." So it may be regarded as hardly more than a book of exercises. All three volumes taken together do not form a course longer than is usually pursued in this country before beginning the 'Anabasis.'

—The Rev. J. B. Lock, formerly Master at Eton and now Senior Fellow, Assistant Tutor, and Lecturer in Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, is the author of several mathematical text-books which, judging from their wide circulation as indicated by editions rapidly succeeding each other, must be alike satisfactory to himself, his publishers (Macmillan & Co.), and the pupils and teachers of English schools. His latest production is a small treatise on 'Elementary Statics,' a companion volume to his 'Dynamics for Beginners,' published less than two years ago, and which has already reached a second edition. The preliminary knowledge of mathematics necessary for the study of the two works seems to be reduced to the minimum. Hardly more algebra and geometry than is required to enter the freshman class of the least exacting of our colleges, as much of conic sections as is comprised in the definition of a parabola, and a little trigonometry, hardly more than is implied in a knowledge of the meaning of the terms *sine*, *tangent*, etc., of a few of the simplest formulæ, and of the use of the ordinary logarithmic tables, constitute, so far as we have been able to discover, the whole mathematical equipment necessary for the complete comprehension of both works. Indeed, by far the greater part of both books can be mastered without knowing anything at all about trigonometry. The books offer a remarkable example of how much can be done with a few tools skilfully handled. One of the most interesting features of each book, and of especial value to the professional teacher, is the addition to the Statics of twelve and to the Dynamics of sixteen examination papers. The questions contained in these papers can all be answered by means of the knowledge conveyed in the books. At the same time they are not papers constructed by the author especially for examination of students who have studied his works, but are papers composed by various professors and used in actual examinations of students in several colleges and schools in England.

—The author does not state which book should be first studied. We presume he took it for granted that the traditional order, first 'Statics,' then 'Dynamics,' would be followed, although this was not the order of publication. We believe, however, that the student, who is at liberty to choose, will find it to his advantage to begin with the 'Dynamics,' which, at least in the elementary parts, is quite as simple and comprehensive as the 'Statics,' and, having mastered the 'Dynamics,' he will find, when he attacks the 'Statics,' he has hardly anything to learn. In fact, we suspect that it would not require a great deal of argument to convince the author that the separate treatment of Statics and Dynamics is only a concession to traditional usage. Such was the opinion of Clerk Maxwell, and such is the opinion of Professor Macgregor, practically exemplified in his treatise on Kinematics and Dynamics which we reviewed a few months ago. The author coins a few new words, some of which we dislike, especially in the method of coining. He has, however, caught the disease in a very mild form and we have no space for comment.

—The mere fact that the 'Beowulf' of Harrison and Sharp has reached a third edition (Boston: Ginn & Co.) renders commendation almost superfluous. It indicates that the book is now a standard. The editors have been at pains to bring text, glossary, and notes up to date, and have succeeded, so far as was possible within their narrow limits. Just now there appears to be a lull in Beowulf articles. A few years hence, after the authorship and primitive shaping of the poem shall have got further out of the realm of the debatable, and when this third edition shall have been exhausted, we hope that the editors will give us an entirely new book, the text printed more in conformity with modern typography, and the glossary recast. The distinction between long and short vowels in the arrangement of a glossary is a hindrance rather than a help. The editors should also conform their word-entries more to the Wessex standard. To follow the Beowulf MS. spelling in the glossary is to give the beginner a false conception of the language. We have noted some slight errors. Pages 105, 106 sub *Brosinga mene*, there should be a reference to v. 1199, and the vowel lengthened, Brōsinga. To the reference *Haupt* xii. 304 add *Haupt* xxx. 221. Müllenhoff does not say that the A.-S. form is for *Breosinga*, but for Brīsinga. In treating of compounds in *eald-* it will be well to consider the advisability of regarding *eald-* as a mere intensive. The reference, p. 324*b* (sub *orud*), to v. 2524 is unintelligible, except to one who has Wülker's edition, or who knows in other ways that certain scholars have proposed to change *redes* into *oredes*. This edition gives no clue.

—To the credit of our national scholarship, it is to American missionaries that students are indebted for the two works which are indispensable for acquiring the Panjâbî, an Indian language of growing importance. We allude to the 'Panjâbî Grammar' of the Rev. John Newton, published in 1851, and to the 'Panjâbî Dictionary' of the Rev. L. Janvier, published in 1854, both of which are now difficult to procure even in India, where they were printed. On the former of these publications is based, as to its first part, the 'Simplified Grammar and Reading Book of the Panjâbî Language' of the Rev. W. St. C. Tisdall, lately issued by Trübner & Co. of London. If not elsewhere, yet in India, every one wishing to acquaint himself with Panjâbî is likely to possess already a knowledge of Urdû, with which it is in many respects nearly allied; and the author has, therefore, been well advised in referring everywhere to the equivalents of Panjâbî in the speech so much more generally current. In the Reading Lessons are included not only specimens of Panjâbî taken from a translation of the New Testament, but extracts from compositions—certainly somewhat too archaic, if we may interpose a stroke of criticism—written by natives of the Panjab. Mr. Tisdall's helpful book, which amply fulfils the purpose for which it is intended, that of assisting beginners, leaves nothing to be desired in point of typography, and is as low-priced as could be expected.

—We pass, for a moment, to the prevailing religion of the people of whom the Panjâbî is the vernacular tongue. In a lecture, entitled "Sikhism," by Mr. Frederic Pincott, lately published in London by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., will be found a succinct but lucid account of the doctrines taught by Nârnak, and modified, or, more strictly speaking, metamorphosed, by one of his spiritual successors, Govind Sinh. The lecture also sketches the lives of the ten Sikh hierarchs—of whom the two just named were the first and the last—and epitomizes the history of the Sikhs down to our own time. Sikhism, while, as being of Hindu origin, it could not but be pantheistic, was, at the outset, entirely pure of the exclusiveness which marks every orthodox sect of Brahmanism. In its second stage, its most salient characteristic was its hostile attitude as against Mahometanism. At present, owing to the influence of the cults of Vishnu and Siva, it has degenerated quite to the level of the superstitions by which it is environed. An attempt has of late been made to restore it to its pristine simplicity; but the fate that seems in-

evitably to await it is gradual extinction, and that, with some likelihood, not long to be deferred.

—The July number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is mainly devoted to Asia. Gen. Komaroff, an enthusiastic archæologist, gives an account of the ruins in the Transcaspian region which he examined during his campaigns against the Turkomans and the building of the railway. With the exception of several of the *kurgans*, or mounds, chiefly used as burial-places, they were not of special interest. One of these latter, however, contained, at a depth of some twelve feet below other remains, articles made of bone, a stone axe, and the bones of a cave bear. Gen. Komaroff made a large and valuable collection of ancient coins and golden ornaments, numbers of which can be found at some of the ruins after every rain. Dr. Heyfelder describes the different races inhabiting Bokhara, which has been within a short time incorporated into the Russian Empire as an *oblast*, or province. He says that the children of the Tadyiks, the aborigines, are never taken from the cradle during the whole period of their nursing, the mothers having a curious contrivance by which they can feed and care for the child without lifting it. The consequence is that the skull is flattened and drawn awry by the action of the light falling always upon one side of the head. It is singular that the Jews are handicraftsmen as well as merchants, having almost a monopoly in dyeing, while the Indians or Hindostanee are the usurers. These latter are non-producers, and live a wandering life, never bringing their families with them, but always returning to India when satisfied with their gains. Some interesting details of the gold-washing on the tributaries of the Amur in Eastern Siberia are given by N. Latkin. The washing of the gold-bearing sand began in a rude way in 1866, and up to the year 1886 the total amount of gold obtained was 3,113 puds, or 112,379 pounds (which, with gold reckoned at $16 an ounce, would amount in value to $21,576,768). Some of the sand is extraordinarily rich, but the cost of working is very great, on account of the high price of provisions and the lack of proper means of transport.

—A new volume of Russian Peasant Songs written down in the village of Nikolaevk, Government of Ufa, by Mr. N. Paltchikoff, is distinguished by a new and notable feature, viz., the music, which is noted for from six to eight voices. Mr. Paltchikoff lived for nearly thirty years in Nikolaevk, and was well acquainted with his subject, but his book cost him much time and labor. He began in the usual way, writing the music for the voice of *one* singer, and afterwards furnishing an accompaniment. Having written fifty songs in this manner, he supposed that his work was completed. But, by way of verifying his melodies, he had them all sung to him by a chorus. It then appeared that his notes were utterly unlike the songs of the peasants, the latter being fuller, better, more varied. After many vain attempts to understand the cause of this apparent contradiction, he came to the conclusion that the only proper way was to write down each voice of the chorus separately, and procure the full harmony by combining all the voices. The difficulty of the task was increased by the fact that there chanced to exist in Nikolaevk a second chorus, which differed somewhat from the first, and by the singers not all being satisfactory through indulging in vagaries. He finally contrived to attain his object. For the 142 songs in the book, 125 airs are given. The text of more than thirty songs does not enter into the chief collections of songs (a long list of which is furnished by the author); and about eighty of the airs have hitherto been utterly unknown. The book also contains a bibliographical index of its songs with references to similar texts in previous collections.

MADAME DE STAËL.—II.

Madame de Staël: her Friends and her Influence in Politics and Literature. By Lady Blennerhasset. 3 vols. 8vo. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

It is impossible to exhaust the list of Mme. de Staël's friends. Not to speak of her circle at Paris, August Wilhelm Schlegel lived with her many years, nominally as the teacher of her children, and more particularly as her instructor in literature and criticism; Sismondi and Bonstetten were constant visitors, while Oehlenschläger and Mme. Brun stayed with her at Coppet for a long time. There was scarcely a distinguished man in Europe whom she did not in some way know and have correspondence with. Wherever she went she found old friends. Among these were several Americans — Jefferson, Gouverneur Morris, Crawford, who, on leaving his mission at Paris during the 100 days and going back to America to become Secretary of War, was her intermediary with Lord Castlereagh in her efforts made to ward off an English attack on France. There was also M. le Ray (de Chaumont), who had invested for her in American lands, which were probably situated in northern New York, where he had a large property. Morris spoke of the investment as not being so advantageous as it might be, owing to the lands being in detached portions.

Mme. de Staël's goodness of heart was exhaustless. During the Terror she saved many of her friends from certain death, and tried in vain to save others. During one season in England she kept open house for the *émigrés*, and afterwards at Coppet; besides assisting many of them with loans and gifts of money. Although Roederer accused her of being ready to sacrifice a friend rather than miss the chance of an epigram, she never ceased taking an interest in and even rendering services to those who had once been her friends, no matter how base had been their ingratitude towards her.

Even in her youth, Mme. de Staël, according to Fersen, was "the reverse of beautiful, but very clever and amiable." Count Guibert, one of her warmest friends among the older generation, wrote: "Her large black eyes sparkle with the fire of genius, and her ebon locks fall in rich profusion on her shoulders. Her features are more marked than gentle; there is something in them which promises more than the usual fate of her sex." Bollmann said: "She is tolerably well made, but her face is not beautiful. Her complexion is not good, and she has rather a protruding mouth. Her open-hearted, frank nature, and kind of honesty and truthfulness, make her very attractive." Henriette Knebel describes her first appearance at the palace at Weimar: "Very lively, good natured, and talkative, extraordinarily voluble, but clear and pleasant. She is a woman of the world, and mostly addresses herself only to the most distinguished members of society; but she is very polite and friendly to everybody. Her eyes are fine and have an intellectual expression; but her face is rather of the negro type. She is of middle height and somewhat stout, dark eyes and hair." Sir Neil Campbell, who saw her at Stockholm in 1813, says: "She speaks English almost as readily and correctly as a native, only with a slight foreign accent. She appears about fifty; of middle size, and looks strong and vigorous. Her features are large and massive, the upper row of teeth projecting; her eyes dark and eyebrows strongly marked. She wore a dark-green silk pelisse."

Rogers saw Mme. de Staël often during her stay in England in 1813, and he wrote to his sister from Lord Lansdowne's place, Bowood: "Mme. de Staël makes a bustle here, but, having arrived only yesterday, we have as yet had no shawl-dance and no recitations." This is explained by a letter from Byron in June, 1814: "The Staël out-talked Whitbread, overwhelmed his spouse, was *ironed* by Sheridan, confounded Sir Humphrey, and utterly perplexed your slave. The rest (great names in the Red book, nevertheless) were mere segments of the circle. Ma'mselle danced a Russ saraband with great vigor, grace, and expression, though not very pretty." In his memoranda Byron says: "I saw Curran presented to Mme. de Staël at Mackintosh's: it was the grand confluence between the Rhone and the Saône, and they were both so d—d ugly that I could not help wondering how the best intellects of France and Ireland could have taken up respectively such residences." And in another place: "Her figure was not bad; her legs tolerable; her arms good. Altogether, I can conceive her having been a desirable woman, allowing a little imagination for her soul and so forth. She would have made a great man." Again he writes:

"Asked for Wednesday to dine and meet the Staël—asked particularly, I believe, out of mischief; to see the first interview after the *note*, with which Corinne professes herself to be so much taken. I don't much like it; she always talks of *my*self and *her*self, and I am not (except in soliloquy, as now) much enamoured of either subject—especially one's works. What the devil shall I say about '*De l'Allemagne*'? I like it prodigiously; but unless I can twist my admiration into some fantastical expression, she won't believe; and I know, by experience, I shall be overwhelmed with fine things about rhyme, etc., etc. The lover, Mr. Rocca, was there to-night, and C. said it was the only proof *he* had of her good taste. Monsieur l'Amant is remarkably handsome."

After visiting Mme. de Staël at Coppet, in 1816, he wrote: "She was a good woman at heart, and the cleverest at bottom, but spoilt by a wish to be—she knew not what. In her own house she was amiable; in any other person's you wished her gone and in her own again."

With the help of such notices of contemporaries, we can imagine this "large leonine woman," as Morris calls her, "with few beauties and no grace of gesture; in her favorite attitude before the fire, with her hands behind her back, animating, nevertheless, the salon by her masculine attitude and powerful conversation." We can see her dressed in that low-necked, short-waisted gown of blue and orange, with a turban of the same colors, as she is represented in most of her portraits, and, as the Priestess of Apollo, twiddling in her fingers a twig of laurel. In Vienna she was reduced to a branch of poplar with two or three leaves on the end, "the rustling of which (she told the Prince de Ligne) was the necessary accompaniment to her talking." In London, according to Bollmann, she was "rolling a bit of paper in her fingers, without which she cannot exist; she gets up with it in the morning and goes to bed with it." And—can one believe it?—in her anxiety to reconcile Bollmann, with whom she had had a quarrel, she continually sang soft Italian airs to him and played to him.

Although Mme. de Staël was a great talker, all admit that she was willing to listen to the

replies of others. But, according to Sismondi, one of her most intimate friends,

"In all her judgments she too often showed hate and contempt. Power seems to give everybody the same twist of mind. Her reputation, which is always becoming greater, has made her contract some of the faults of Bonaparte; she is, like him, intolerant of all opposition, insulting in dispute, and much disposed to say sharp things to people without any angry feeling, but solely to show her superiority."

"She is sometimes in bad humor; she judges with extreme severity, and does nothing on her part to repair all this: so that I am often very much bored with her; although the way in which she talks of the ennui of others makes me angry with her. Besides, the vanity which used to be unpleasant to her is unpleasant to me also. She likes to repeat the flattering things which have been said about her, as if she had not had enough of all that; and, when there is talk about the reputation of some one else, she always takes care to recall her own in a very awkward way."

And again, "Mme. de Staël can never put herself in the place of others; and all her intelligence is not enough for her to understand anything outside of herself." This is curiously confirmed by a reminiscence of Henry Crabb Robinson, whom she had asked to assist her in understanding German literature and philosophy. She seemed utterly incapable of realizing the transcendent excellence of Goethe, and could not comprehend the finest of his epigrams. He therefore boldly said to her: "Madame, you have not understood Goethe, and you never will understand him." "Sir, I understand all that deserves to be understood. What I do not understand is worth nothing."

When Mme. de Staël first went to Weimar, Goethe was at Jena, and rather tried to avoid her, on the ground that he was not well and had a great deal to do. He, however, asked her to come to Jena. Schiller wrote to him:

"Mme. de Staël will appear to you just what you have *a priori* imagined her to be: she is charming throughout, and there is not a single strange or false or unhealthy trait in her. Thus, notwithstanding the immense difference in our natures and mode of thought, one can be quite at ease with her, and can let her say or say everything to her. She puts French culture in a pure and highly interesting light. In everything we call philosophy, therefore, in all that is highest and most important, one differs from her, and must continue to do so. . . . But her disposition and feeling are better than her metaphysics, and her fine understanding nearly resembles genius. She desires to explain, to look into, to measure everything; she will not tolerate anything dark or inaccessible; and what she cannot light up with her torch has no attraction for her. . . . Of what we call poetry she has no perception; she can only adopt what is ordinary, persuasive, passionate, in works of that description, but she will not prize anything that is false, and never fails to recognize what is good. . . . You see from these words that the clearness, decision, and clever liveliness of her nature cannot act otherwise than beneficially. Her only defect is her quite extraordinary volubility. One must be turned into a listening machine to be able to follow her."

And again: "She takes all the poetry out of me, and I only wonder how I can do anything at all." Goethe's criticism of her is too long to quote, but he evidently did not like her. What Schiller says of her lack of poetry is confirmed by Bonstetten, who, writing to Mme. Brun, says: "She is extremely good; no one has more intelligence; but the best that you have is a sealed book to her. She entirely lacks feeling for art; and beauty which is neither wit nor eloquence does not exist for her."

With a pen in hand, she was unable to express herself as well as she could with her elbow on the chimney-piece. With no visible auditors, her oratorical gifts failed her. Chênedollé, who was with her when she wrote her book 'On Literature,' and who used to discuss it with her, said that her improvisations were far more brilliant than the actual book. Out of the eighteen volumes of her published works, but three books still have a lingering existence. Of these, 'Delphine,' in spite of the impression it created in its day, is now rarely read, even by those who exhume 'La Nouvelle Héloïse' of Rousseau. 'De l'Allemagne' has grown obsolete of late years, and is only looked on now as a contemporary document written by a clever Frenchwoman, who had really made a serious attempt in the early years of the century to understand Germany and German literature. 'Corinne' is literally all that lives; and this, apart from the interest of the Italian subject, chiefly because it is what Mme. de Staël might have declaimed in her own salon. It is probably the nearest approach to her conversation. Sainte-Beuve, who ought to have known, says a curious thing with regard to her style—that, in the work on the Dictionary of the French Academy, when a word was under discussion and an example was taken from the chief writers, one from Mme. de Staël rarely passed without many objections, in consequence either of the vagueness of expression or the misuse of terms.

Chênedollé said of her: "Mme. de Staël has more intelligence than she knows how to manage." This is particularly true of her attempts at politics; and in politics, in spite of her remarkable intelligence, of occasional moments of insight and sometimes of sure instinct, she on the whole only "meddled and muddled." This was partly due to her absurd overestimate of her father, who, although a great financier, was not at all a statesman, and did on the whole more harm than good. Mme. de Staël herself was sufficiently an agitator to make herself equally disliked by each successive government from Louis XVI. to Louis XVIII., and yet all her agitation accomplished nothing, and really had very little influence one way or the other. Throughout she labored under one great error, that she was a Frenchwoman, and therefore had a natural right to guide the course of events in France. In this supposition she was utterly wrong. She was born daughter of a Swiss banker resident in Paris; but birth in France of foreign parents did not confer the rights of citizenship, and, although her father received letters of naturalization when he became Minister, she, before she had reached the age at which she could elect whether she would be Swiss or French, had changed everything by marrying De Staël and becoming a Swede. As the wife of a Swedish Ambassador she had no right whatever to intrigue in French politics, except so far as she could aid her husband in carrying out the wishes of his sovereign. Instead of that, she only got her husband into great political difficulties, not only with the French but with his own Government. In the height of the Terror she saved herself from the scaffold by claiming her rights and privileges as Swedish Ambassadress; but a few years later, when the Directory refused to allow her to live in France, on the ground that she was a foreigner obnoxious to the Government, she seemed to think that she was a Frenchwoman. This was also the basis of her complaints against Napoleon, who all along insisted that both she and her children were foreigners, and therefore by all rules of law could be treated in a way which might not answer for French subjects. Had Mme. de Staël been a man and done what she did or attempted to do, her career in Europe would probably have been much shorter.

The difficulty between Mme. de Staël and Napoleon was due chiefly to the absolute antipathy of their natures. Neither liked the other, though each to a certain extent appreciated the other. One cannot, however, help wondering what would have happened if at a certain dinner Napoleon had succeeded in sitting next to Mme. de Staël, as he had desired, instead of Cambacérès, and had given her one more opportunity to captivate him. Napoleon was perfectly frank about his reasons for exiling her, and one cannot but admit that, from his point of view, as an absolute sovereign, he was perfectly right. Auguste de Staël had an audience of Napoleon at Chambéry in 1808 without his mother's knowledge, and asked permission for her to return to France. On being told that Mme. de Staël was in Vienna, the Emperor said:

"Well, she is in the right place there, and should be content. She will learn German there. Your mother is not bad. She is a clever woman, very clever, but is quite undisciplined. . . . She would not be here six months before I should have to send her to Bicêtre or the Temple. I should be sorry for that, as the affair would make a noise and probably injure me in public estimation. Therefore you may tell her very distinctly that as long as I am alive she will never see Paris again. She would be foolish; she would see people and make fun of things; she thinks it of no importance, but I think all the more of it. I take everything in earnest. So, once for all, why should your mother set herself up against 'tyranny'? You see I am not afraid of the word. She may go to Rome, Naples, Vienna, Berlin, Milan, Lyons, even to London, if she wants to write pamphlets against me. I will see her everywhere with pleasure. But not in Paris. There I reside, and there I will only have people who like me. Did she not destroy the *Tribunat* for me? She could never prevent herself from talking politics. . . . You are young; if you were as old as I am you would be able to judge matters better, but I am pleased when a son takes up his mother's cause. Your mother has given you a difficult task, but you have acquitted yourself intelligently. I have been willing to talk with you, but you will get nothing by it. The King of Naples has spoken to me a great deal on this subject, but it was of no use. If I had put her in confinement, I would set her free; but she must remain in exile. Every one understands that imprisonment is a misfortune, but your mother alone thinks herself unfortunate for being allowed the run of Europe."

Metternich made the same request for her, and pointed out the danger of bringing a woman into celebrity by such treatment. Napoleon replied: "If Mme. de Staël wanted to be royalist or republican, I should have no objection. But she is a *machine à mouvement* that sets the salons at work. Such a woman need only be dreaded in France, and there I will not have her."

The mental suffering of Mme. de Staël during her exile was in part imaginary and in part real. The truth of the matter was, that neither at Coppet nor at Geneva—even in her best days—could she find a sufficiently large and appreciative audience to listen to her talk. Chateaubriand, who visited her at Coppet in 1805, was struck with the way in which she exaggerated her unhappiness, and says, almost in Napoleon's words: "She regards herself as the most unhappy of women in an exile that I should have been charmed with." But, as Sainte-Beuve says, "Suffering is where you feel it"—or, as we should be more apt to say, "The heart knoweth its own bitterness."

RECENT MUSICAL LITERATURE.

Musical Instruments and their Homes. By Mary E. Brown and William Adams Brown. With 270 illustrations in pen and ink by William Adams Brown, the whole forming a complete catalogue of the collection of musical instruments now in the possession of

Mrs. J. Crosby Brown of New York. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1889.

The Standard Symphonies: Their History, their Music, and their Composers. A Handbook by George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1889.

New Musical Miscellanies: Historical, Critical, Philosophical, and Pedagogic. By W. S. B. Matthews. How to Understand Music. Vol. II. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser.

MRS. BROWN'S volume, a sumptuous quarto of nearly four hundred pages, is devoted to descriptions, with numerous illustrations, of the musical instruments of Oriental and savage peoples. It was originally designed as a catalogue, for private use, of the specimens which Mrs. Brown gathered during a number of years from various sources, and which she has presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art in this city. The collection is one of remarkable variety and interest. Mrs. Brown has had facilities for obtaining specimens of rare and curious instruments in out-of-the-way parts of the world, and the collection now at the Museum (with a supplementary one since made and comprising about sixty specimens from Java, Calcutta, Burmah, and Madagascar) contains material for interesting ethnographical and musical studies. As her son, Mr. William Adams Brown, who was associated in the preparation of the book, relates, its plan was changed with the growth of the collection, and a compilation of the available authorities respecting the subject, with such additions as could be obtained from private sources, was prepared by Mr. Brown with his mother's assistance. The plan of the work is almost altogether occupied with instruments used by Oriental and barbarous peoples, and does not include those of the Assyrians, Egyptians, Hebrews, Greeks, and Romans; but it aims to give what is known of the history and present use of musical instruments in China, Japan, and Corea, India, Siam and Burmah, Persia and Turkey, Africa, North America, Central America, South America, and Oceanica.

There is good reason for taking speedy action in obtaining specimens of the instruments used by savage tribes, inasmuch as, with the progress of civilization, they are gradually being supplanted by others. The accordion, Mr. Brown tells us, is taking the place of the *marimba*, the favorite instrument of the negroes in Central Africa; the native instruments of Micronesia and Melanesia have almost entirely disappeared, and a traveller who was endeavoring to make a collection of the instruments of these islands, on asking a native where he could obtain a certain specimen, received the suggestive reply: "No more *pagolo*. *Pagolo* dead—the jew's-harp has killed him." The aptitude shown for imitation by some savages is illustrated in the chapter which Mr. Brown devotes to the instruments of North America. A stringed instrument obtained from a tribe of Alaskan Indians, seldom brought in contact with white men, was evidently fashioned in semblance of a similar instrument seen in the hands of some chance visitor.

A peculiar interest attaches to some of the more ancient instruments, which, as the nations that use them claim, date back to a period thousands of years before the Christian era, and in some of which a later generation found the germs of the perfected instruments of their class used at the present day. The Hindus maintain that the *ravanastron*, the oldest of the stringed instruments played with a bow, was invented 5,000 years ago by one of the kings of Ceylon, and, as Mr. Brown points out, the rude *hu chin* of China and the royal Stradivarius are alike derived from that common source. So too, in the *chang*, the favorite instrument of an early period, we find the progenitor, through the harpsichord, the spinet, and the virginal, of the grand pianoforte that delights us with its beauty and variety of expression.

A praiseworthy industry and enterprise are shown in the results of the author's efforts to obtain from different sources specimens of the various instruments that come within the scope of the book, and the particulars respecting them. The explanatory essays on subjects relating to the undertaking embody a good many interesting details, and some new facts have been gathered that are of value. But it must be said that Mr. Brown, who seems to be mainly responsible for this part of the work, has erred in judgment in the choice of some of the authorities on whom he chiefly depends. That untrustworthy writer Rowbotham is continually cited, and his fanciful theories seem to be adopted with unhesitating confidence. The liberal extracts that are made from that author's 'History of Music,' and the frequent deferential references to his views, have the effect of shaking the reader's confidence in Mr. Brown's discretion. Even some of his other authorities are quoted at second-hand from this doubtful source, and it seems odd to find him seriously referring to "the learned discussions of Fétis, Ambros, and Rowbotham." Of the different chapters of the book the most interesting to the general reader are those which are devoted to Chinese and Japanese music, and that which treats of the beginnings of the art among savage nations; but here also there are occasional indications of a lack of technical knowledge on the part of the writer.

The chapter in which the author undertakes to treat of the musical instruments of Central and South America and Oceanica is in some respects far from satisfactory, in view of the facts that are known respecting them. Little attention seems to have been given to this department of the subject, and but three specimens of instruments are included in the illustrations—a nose-flute from Fiji, a hand-drum from the Gulf of Papua, New Guinea, and a conch-shell trumpet. This last is from Hawaii, and is the only instrument used there, with the exception of the nose-flute, that seems to have come to the knowledge of the author, who cites at some length Ellis's 'Polynesian Researches.' But there are other authorities that would have afforded fuller information regarding the musical instruments of Hawaii. It is some years since the Princess Liliuokalani of Hawaii, the sister of King Kalakaua, began to give her attention to the subject of the ancient music and musical instruments of the Hawaiians, and the results of her investigations have been made public. The King himself has taken much interest in similar researches. Mr. S. Marques of Honolulu, in a recent monograph upon the subject, has described a number of string, wind, and percussion instruments formerly used by the natives. The *ukeke* was a flat strip of flexible wood upon which were stretched two strings of cocoanut fibre, with pegs on which to wind them up to the proper tone at an interval of a second or a fourth. Another variety had an additional string tuned to a third. The instrument probably resembled the primitive Greek lyre. The *pua* was a wind instrument made of a gourd pierced with three holes, and another variety was formed from a joint of bamboo with the nose-hole on one side and two finger-holes on the other. This was properly the nose-flute. Then there were the different sorts of drums made of cocoanut shells, calabashes, and sometimes of wood, and covered at one end with skin; and also the *kaeke* and the *puili*, both percussion instruments used to mark time. No reference to any of these is made in Mr. Brown's book.

A similar poverty of description is noticeable in the chapter devoted to the musical instruments of Mexico. A long extract is given from the inevitable Rowbotham concerning the Aztec instruments, the *teponaztlis* and tambourines, but no mention is made of the fact that the Guatemalan form of the *marimba* is popular in Mexico, as well as another variety of the instrument, a large wooden sounding-board with metal cords played upon with soft knockers. Neither is any reference made to the *guaje* or the *mimba*—the shepherd's instrument, which is made of a long reed slightly curved, with one string, which is pulled with the thumb and finger, the player holding it against the teeth.

It is unfortunate that the pen-and-ink drawings of musical instruments that are given in this elegant volume should be of such a character as to make one regret that more technical knowledge and skill, as well as a better perception of what was necessary to make the drawings useful to the reader, had not accompanied the production of them. The illustrations are 270 in number and are the work of Mr. Brown. While they reflect credit on his cleverness as an artist, they are insufficient for the purpose for which they were intended. Pictorial effect is not what is required in such illustrations, but accurate delineations of the instruments that will supplement the descriptive letter-press. Yet this is just what is lacking in the handsome pages of the book. It is impossible to determine by the illustrations the number of frets in the fretted instruments, or of strings in the stringed instruments, or of finger holes in those with flues, or of strings where these are shown. Similar inexactness is found in illustrations and descriptions of instruments belonging to Mrs. Brown's collections, but not coming within the scope of any of the chapters of their work. Among these is one of a fagott, which is described as "a kind of bassoon." The author seems not to be aware that the two instruments are identical; fagott being the German form of the Italian *fagotto*, so called from the resemblance of the bassoon to a bundle of sticks. On the same plate an old-fashioned pianoforte is called a clavichord, and in other examples the author confounds the clarinet with the oboe, whereas the one has a single and the other a double reed. A similar confusion is to be seen in the list of Chinese instruments, where the *yang kin* is called "a foreign harpsichord," and in the description is classed as an instrument of the zither family. As strips of bamboo are used to strike the strings of the *yang kin*, whereas all instruments of the harpsichord family are made to be played upon by twanging the strings with plectra, and as the zither is played with the thumb, guarded by a partially opened ring, and the three fingers of the right hand, the confusion of the description is evident. The *yang kin* really belongs to the dulcimer family.

With all its shortcomings and its errors of judgment, the work is interesting and is an instructive treatise for the general reader. A carefully prepared index and list of authorities add to its merits as a book of reference. At the same time it seems a pity that so much of the cost of producing this volume (and the cost was evidently great) should have gone into externals mainly.

The latest of Mr. Upton's musical handbooks completes the series which he has prepared for popular use, and which has

proved a welcome help to the music-loving public. In the volumes that treated of the 'Standard Operas' and the 'Standard Oratorios,' sketches were given of the more important compositions, together with short biographies of the composers, and such historical matter respecting the various works as was deemed desirable. The same plan was followed in the 'Standard Cantatas,' with the addition of an essay on the cantata in its different periods of evolution, from its simple recitative style down to its more fully developed form, which often approaches that of the opera or the oratorio. In the present volume Mr. Upton has found it necessary to make his descriptions in some instances more technical. The same general plan is followed, however, and the sketches are preceded by a chapter explanatory of the evolution of the symphony from the sonata form, and tracing its subsequent development in different directions by various composers. As the limits of the volume would not allow of detailed technical descriptions, with musical illustrations, of all the compositions referred to, the symphonies of Beethoven, Mozart, and Haydn only are so treated, while those of Mendelssohn, Schumann, Schubert, Berlioz, Spohr, Liszt, and later composers of different nationalities are carefully analyzed. Mr. Upton has performed his task with excellent judgment; much of the material given is valuable, not only to the musical student, but also to music-lovers who wish to add to their stock of information. To this rapidly increasing class of concert-goers Mr. Upton's volume, like its predecessors, will be a real help. It will be especially welcome to the great number of persons who wish better to understand, and thereby more intelligently enjoy, the highest order of orchestral music.

Mr. Matthews gives his readers a somewhat promiscuous collection of material in the form of a second volume to his earlier work, 'How to Understand Music.' The first five chapters, making about one-fourth of the book, are devoted to biographical sketches of Schubert, Berlioz, and Wagner, with some account of their works. These are followed by papers on the psychological relations of music, the theory of pianoforte teaching, the tonal system and temperament, the tonic sol-fa as an educational factor, self-culture in music, Greek music, and modern opera, and what is entitled "A Bird's-Eye View of Musical History." It will be seen that the sub-title of the book, "How to Understand Music," is made a comprehensive one. The substance of what the author has to say on some of these subjects is more satisfactory than the form in which it is offered, and there is occasion for the hope which he expresses in his preface that "supersensitive readers will not allow the literary defects of the present volume to outweigh their appreciation of the value of the information here brought together from a wide range of sources."

It does not require any "supersensitiveness" on the part of the reader to be annoyed by certain eccentricities in Mr. Matthews's style, but much of what he has to offer is so excellent that, in view of his deprecating reference, it is perhaps better to omit any mention of them. There is so much need in our musical literature of just such contributions on certain subjects as so practical a writer can furnish, that we would not seek to discourage him from continuing his labors in this field. The brief essays on Berlioz and Wagner, and the estimates and analyses of their works, are well considered, but the description of the performances at Bayreuth, which were originally written for a Chicago newspaper, are hardly in keeping with the rest of the volume. The chapters on pianoforte-teaching contain much that is valuable and suggestive, both to the teacher and the pupil, and the theories and systems adopted in the use of pianoforte studies by several eminent teachers are given, in letters from them. An intelligent statement of the facts with regard to the present state of knowledge respecting the tonal system and the theories upon the subject will interest the musical student, and in the succeeding paper the merits of the tonic-sol-fa system are clearly set forth. "Self-Culture in Music" is discussed in a sensible way, and the difficulties in the path of the student are pointed out and commented upon with excellent judgment. It is unfortunate that the pleasure of the reader is marred by the number of typographical errors in the book. The proof-reading has been wofully careless.

Elementary Physiography. An Introduction to the Study of Nature. By John Thornton, M.A., Headmaster of the Clarence-Street Higher Grade School, Bolton (England). 10 maps and 161 illustrations. 2d ed. revised. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 251.

A GOOD deal that has been written in England about examinations in the last year or more might find illustration in the spirit and quality of Thornton's 'Physiography.' The first lines of its preface state that it is intended to meet the requirements of the South Kensington examinations, as well as to serve as an elementary introduction to the science, and the first of these purposes is but too apparent in its pages. Something is said about everything that an examiner could ask a question upon. The book is manifestly conscientious, and every care within the author's reach has been taken to secure complete and correct statements. A number of good text-books have been consulted, and in too many cases acknowledgment is made in the text for material quoted. But in reading the book, the question continually arises: What will the scholar make out of all this? In the hands of a thoroughly competent teacher the book would hardly be satisfactory by reason of the not infrequent exceptions and corrections that it calls for; in the hands of a conventional teacher, faithful to his duty to carry his class through the book in a certain time and fit them for an examination on the subject of it, it would probably be as good as several other books that do not call for notable praise or serious censure. It is packed with matter, so much so that the author seems hardly to have lived up to his plan of giving full, instead of meagre, treatment of his topics. Indeed, in attempting to carry out this plan, it is too evident that the level of the book has been reached by working up to it from below as a compilation, instead of by coming down to it as a selection from a broad survey of the whole field. It is therefore not a text-book that will advance the treatment or understanding of physical geography in any significant way. Somewhat like Hinman's 'Eclectic Physical Geography,' published in this country last year, it touches on a great variety of subjects, and necessarily touches many of them so lightly, in spite of the attempted deliberation of statement, that a class cannot gain a serviceable knowledge of them without more help from the teacher than most teachers are able to give; but in point of precision, we think the American book decidedly the better of the two, as it certainly is in its illustrations and its adaptation to American schools.

The scheme of Thornton's book is as follows: An outline of physics; chemical action and rocks; the interior of the earth and volcanoes; the sea, the atmosphere and rain; the sculpture of the land; weather and climate; the changes of the earth's surface, magnetism and electricity of the earth, the shape and movements of the earth. There is a certain element of order in this, but it can be improved on. When we come to examine the detail of the paragraphs, there are too often passages which excite adverse comment. The illustration of longitudinal and transverse valleys (p. 160) is simply shocking. From the discussion of valleys it might be fairly inferred that the sculpture of the land stops when the valleys are made; and there is a certain inequality in a treatment that allows ten pages to glaciers without mentioning glacial lakes. The figure of the earth's orbit (p. 238) is absurdly out of drawing, apparently made to fit the page instead of the truth. Under radiation, the scholar is told "there are thus two kinds of heat rays—luminous heat rays in which rays of heat are combined with rays of light; and obscure or dark heat rays, where light is absent." So one more book perpetuates this antiquated idea, to the perplexity of all right-minded boys and girls. The citation of authorities, already referred to, gives the impression that Mr. Thornton was not quite yet willing to commit himself to some of his quotations, or as if he had not yet so fully digested them as to reproduce them in his own words. For example, "Mr. R. H. Scott gives the following statements from Professor Mohn's 'Treatise on Meteorology': The barometer stands high (1) when the air is very cold," etc. (p. 132). Again, in speaking of the barometer and weather, "In Ganot's 'Treatise on Physics,' as edited by Professor Atkinson, the following remarks are made under this head" (p. 134). One might protest that the author's own statement of these general principles ought to be more to the point than any quotation he could select. One must also wonder what a class will think when they are told on adjacent pages that the barometer is low in the polar regions, and that Mr. Scott says that Professor Mohn says that it stands high when the air is very cold. It is hardly sufficient to explain the low Antarctic pressure by the large quantity of vapor there, for there is much more vapor near the equator. Another highly confused statement, concerning temperature and altitude, is given at the bottom of page 140. This meteorological section of the book strikes us as distinctly "British," and meteorologists will probably understand what that means—though it would be hardly proper to charge the "British" school with accepting the vesicular nature of cloud particles (p. 145).

The attempt to condense an outline of geology into a few chapters is hardly more successful, though the discussion of volcanoes is decidedly better than the average. We cannot discuss all the pages, and have to conclude with an unsympathetic statement: the illustrations are not up to the times; the better paragraphs do not counterbalance the poorer or incorrect ones, and hence the book as a whole cannot be commended.

Literary Workers; or, Pilgrims to the Temple of Honor. By George Hargreaves. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

THIS is an old-fashioned leisurely book, in the main a collection of anecdotes about men of genius, principally writers. From the cradle to the grave the author follows the literary career, with a special regard for childhood, first manuscripts, first criticisms, first love, and marriage, and similar stages of the life so alluring to those who are born to it, and often

so disenchanting in the pursuit. The thread of easy and correct moralizing upon which these anecdotes are strung gives sufficient connection to the whole; and one who is interested in the gossip of literature will find, with some old, many fresh illustrations of literary life. It is very pleasant, almost soothing—the sort of book which reminds one of a cathedral close.

The Florida of To-day. By James Wood Davidson. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

Home Life in Florida. By Helen Harcourt. Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. 1889.

THESE two books, both of them intended to give an account of Florida, are written in very different ways. The first professes to be a guide for tourists and settlers. It abounds in that class of glittering generalities which rise to the magnificence of beautiful inaccuracies, and apparently attempts to cover different subjects, some of which are of very little importance. It is written by an admirer of the old Southern style of life, who sees in the changes which are now going on in Florida something which under the circumstances is to be encouraged, but which he hardly recognizes as of equal value to the civilization which would have spread over the country had the régime of thirty years ago continued.

The other book is written in an entirely different interest. It apparently gives the experience and the advice of a woman who has moved to Florida, and who thoroughly likes the climate and believes in the capacities of that sub-tropical State. Life in Florida will never have the vigorous activity which has generally characterized the growth of American civilization; but to those who prefer the restful quiet of that balmy climate to the energetic activity of less hospitable lands, this book will be both interesting and valuable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bates, Josephine W. A Nameless Wrestler. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Bugge, Prof. S. Studien über die Entstehung der nordischen Götter- und Heldensagen. Munich: Christian Kaiser; New York: Westermann.
Crawford, F. M. Sant' Ilario. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Davies, J. L. Lessons of Hope: Readings from the Works of F. D. Maurice. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Dick, H. G. Sounding Brass: A Novel. American News Co. 25 cents.
Ellis, R. Commentary on Catullus. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Fawcett, E. Agnosticism, and Other Essays. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Fletcher, R. H. A Blind Bargain. Belford, Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Freeman, A. C. American State Reports. Vol. VII. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Grimshaw, R. Hints on Housebuilding. 2d ed. New York: Practical Publishing Co.
Hirschberg, Prof. J. Von New York nach San Francisco; Tagebuchblätter. Leipzig: Veit & Co.; New York: Westermann.
Mott, E. The Old Settler and his Tales of Sugar Swamp. Belford, Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Müller, Prof. F. Max. Natural Religion. [The Gifford Lectures.] Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Nettleship, Prof. H. Contributions to Latin Lexicography. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Owen, S. G. P. Ovidi Nasonis Tristivm Libri V. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pfeiffer, E. C. Practice Papers. Boston: Damrell & Upham.
Read, O. P. Up Terrapin River. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Shields, G. O. Cruisings in the Cascades. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $2.
Shuckburgh, E. S. The Histories of Polybius. Translated. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $6.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. Chaucer's Legend of Good Women. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Smith, Mary C., and Winn, Sarah C. Round the World with the Poets. Boston: Cnas. H. Kilborn. 25 cents.
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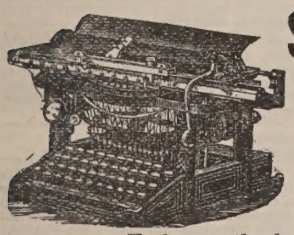

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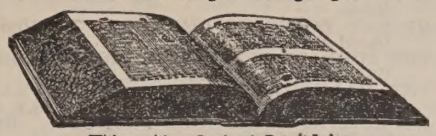

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IN THE

REFORM

OF

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The experience of men who have been working for this reform contains the best lessons for others. THE WEEKLY POST, therefore, invites reformers in every part of the country to report the progress of popular opinion and to describe the best methods of work. Our wish is to make the paper the mouthpiece of the people who are oppressed by taxation. As soon as the people themselves become aroused they will make short work of the present tariff, and we believe that the best service a paper can render is to put its columns, as far as practicable, at their command.

We are preparing a directory of organizations of every kind that are doing, or preparing to do, work, and that will not wait for the approach of another political campaign; and the facts about every such organization are desired for this purpose.

We are preparing also a directory of the work that is in progress for the reform, which will show, by charts and maps and statistics, the results of the discussion of the subjects in the last campaign; the work that reformers are now doing; the industries of particular communities that in especial ways are affected by the tariff; the subjects that could most profitably be discussed in particular communities; and the growth of tariff-reform sentiment in every Congressional district.

The tables and maps and diagrams by which this information will be set forth, will be a chart for reformers during next year's Congressional campaign, and will do much also, it is hoped, to enable them to anticipate the usual effects of a party campaign by educational work in the meantime.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 29, 1889.

The Week.

THE petition which has been circulating for some weeks among New England iron-manufacturers, asking for a repeal of the duties on iron ore, coal, and coke, and a reduction of the duty on pig-iron to 24 per cent. ad valorem, has not engaged the attention of the Boston Home Market Club to the extent that might have been expected. Nor have we seen any allusion to it in the columns of any of the special organs of protection. Neither the *Tariff League Bulletin*, nor the *Manufacturer*, nor the *Iron World* has had a whisper about it. Seeing how closely the movement comes home to them, one would have supposed that they would ere this have examined it with the greatest care, and subjected it to the most refined analysis. Such treatment was due to it on grounds of friendship if on no other, because these New England iron-manufacturers are mostly Republicans and protectionists. They are headed by the Governor of the State, himself an iron-manufacturer on a large scale. They might fairly have asked for more respectful treatment at the hands of their political friends. As they have not received it, we shall "lend a hand," and make it our business from time to time to enable them to gain the public ear.

The manufacturers need only say, through their Senators and Representatives in Congress, what they have said in their petition, to secure all that they have asked for, namely, a complete removal of the duties on coal and iron ore and a reduction of the tax on pig-iron to 24 per cent.—*i. e.*, to about $3 per ton, instead of $6.72, the present rate. If Senators Hoar and Dawes will each make one speech from this text, and if Senator Blair will make one even as brief as his interview in the Boston *Herald* the other day, those needless and crushing taxes will come off—not instantaneously, perhaps, but before the end of the Fifty-first Congress. There will be squirming and squealing in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the two Virginias, and perhaps in a few other places, but the custom-house levies on raw coal and iron will come to an end, and New England will once more be free to buy the coal and ores of Canada in exchange for her own products. Of course the movement for free raw materials will not stop with coal and ore. The movement for freer trade will not end with a reduction of the duty on pig-iron to 24 per cent. The tariff fanatics and the framers of the Chicago platform are quite right in saying that this will be the entering wedge that will before long cleave the whole system in twain.

There is a judge of the United States Circuit Court in Boston who will bear watching by the Home Market Club. He has lately decided that iron beams, angles, girders, and columns punched and fitted together for a particular building are, in contemplation of the tariff law, "manufactures not specially enumerated or provided for, composed wholly or in part of iron," and, therefore, dutiable at 45 per cent., instead of 1¼ cents per pound, which is the duty on structural iron not punched and fitted according to an architect's drawings. The duty of 1¼ cents per pound is equivalent to 102.75 per cent. We shall expect to see the ruined manufacturers of structural iron, such as Carnegie, Phipps & Co., asking Congress to cure this defect in the law at the earliest possible moment. If Judge Colt were a Collector of Customs instead of a member of the Federal Judiciary, his official head would not remain on his shoulders very long, we think.

New tariff oddities are cropping up all the time. In the modern furniture of expensive pleasure carriages there is a simple contrivance of wood, covered with leather, and having a metal hook, used as a holder of a watch or clock. It is not described by name in the tariff. When these contrivances were imported at Boston in March last, the owners said they were taxable at 35 per cent. under the phrase "coach furniture of *all* kinds." The question of classification and rate was carried to that extraordinary tribunal called "a conference of appraisers," which, by a majority vote, decided that the article was "an *unusual* covering" of a clock, and should pay 100 per cent. The Boston and New York appraisers, having seen many such things, voted them "*usual*" and exempt from tax. The Boston Collector (a Democrat) levied 100 per cent. after Harrison's inauguration. The importer protested and appealed, on the ground that the article was taxable as carriage furniture at 35 per cent. The Treasury decided that the article was the "USUAL adjunct" of a carriage clock, to attach it to a carriage, and, although made of wood and leather, should pay a clock tax. There had been four opinions—one for freedom from tax, one for 35 per cent., one for 100 per cent., and one for the clock tax. The Treasury finally said the Boston Collector had exacted more than twice as much as he ought to have exacted. The Treasury could not, in decency, any more keep the excess than if the Collector had filched it out of the importer's pocket. But did the Treasury order the excess to be returned? Not at all. And why? Because the importer, in protesting against 100 per cent., had said the tax should have been 35, as for carriage furniture; the Treasury had said it should have been the clock tax, and, therefore, as the importer had given a wrong reason, the Treasury would retain the money which the Collector had no right to exact.

Of course the protection organs are in distress over the accumulation of failures of mills and firms who "enjoy" protection. Thus, the Philadelphia *Press* of Thursday last, grasping at a straw, said: "The failure of a large cotton mill in Rhode Island yesterday will no doubt be good news for the free-traders. They relish this sort of thing. But it will trouble them to make use of this failure as an argument for free raw materials." Oh, no trouble at all. We need only quote Mr. John Lee of the *Press's* own city, a cotton-manufacturer who assigned the week before. In explaining the embarrassment of his firm he said: "Our failure is due directly to an overstocked market, but I must admit that it is indirectly due to the tariff on raw materials. Before Congress reduced the tariff on dyestuffs we paid fifteen cents a pound for dyeing yarn, and to-day we pay only five cents. After noticing what effect that had on the business in general, I have come to the conclusion that the only salvation for the manufacturing industries of this country must be found in free raw materials. With the raw materials free we could have reached out in other directions, and I am fully convinced there would be a general diversification of industries. Unless Congress removes the tariff on wool, it won't be long before some of the largest factories in this country will be compelled to close their doors." Doubtless the New England concerns could make similar explanations of the business situation.

The so-called Republican State Convention of Virginia which met in Norfolk on Thursday, was nothing but a gathering of William Mahone's tools. Through his control of the party machinery throughout the Commonwealth, he prevented the election as delegates of any men but those who were entirely subservient to him. Speculation as to whom the Convention would nominate for Governor, or what it would say in its platform, was transparently absurd. The only question was as to what Mahone would say, and as to whether or not he would conclude to take the nomination himself. It is on every ground well that he decided to do so. The issue of the campaign is whether Mahoneism shall control the State, and the true representative of Mahoneism is its creator. With him as the titular chief, there is no chance for the slightest confusion of ideas on the part of any voter, such as sometimes arises when the disreputable boss of a party puts forward a respectable figurehead as the nominal leader.

There is one good thing about the action of the Virginia Republicans in nominating a "rebel" for Governor, and other "rebels" for his associates on the State ticket, and in adopting a resolution in favor of pensions for "rebel" soldiers. It will make even the Forakers infermit, for this campaign, their tiresome rant about "the danger of the rebels capturing the Government." Mahoneism may thus do the country a little service. It deserves to be remarked, also, that on Thursday morning the Boston *Journal* published an editorial article on the movement for unlimited coinage of silver, declar-

ing that "such a policy would be equivalent to inviting disaster and panic," and concluding that "the country must look now, as it has before, to the Republican party as a whole to maintain the principles of sound finance." On Thursday evening the Republican party in Virginia adopted a platform which demands "full and unlimited coinage of silver."

A shocking picture of society is presented in the despatches which tell of the latest developments in the Howard-Turner feud in Harlan County, Kentucky. This county is among the mountains in the southeastern part of the State, and contains an exceedingly illiterate population, almost exclusively white. Wilson Howard, who has murdered several men, the last on the list being George Turner, was said to be hiding in the mountains about fifteen miles from the Court-house, and Judge Lewis set out to capture him. The Sheriff would render no assistance, and the Judge organized his own force, upon hearing of which the Howard faction tried to kill him by inveigling him into ambush. Failing in this, the outlaws and the Judge's force had a battle, in which the latter lost three men, and at last accounts Howard was threatening to come in and burn the county-seat. It will doubtless surprise many Northern Republicans who are wont to ascribe all wickedness to Democrats, to learn that Harlan County is overwhelmingly Republican in politics, having cast 837 votes for Harrison last fall, against only 211 for Cleveland.

The most interesting feature of the recent election in Kentucky was the loss of the Republicans in the eastern counties, which have been the stronghold of the party. In this mountain region coal and iron mines are finding great development, and the Republicans expected, in consequence, to make a better showing in that part of the State than ever before. Instead of this anticipated gain, however, they lost in most of the counties, the falling off of their majority in the home county of their candidate for Treasurer being about one-third from the record of two years ago, and Harlan County being one of the few where they did better than in 1887. The Louisville *Courier-Journal* finds one reason for the change in the growth of educational facilities under the more liberal policy adopted by the State towards public schools of late years. The *Courier-Journal* is making a vigorous fight for still further progress in this direction, urging the agitation of the subject in every county, with a view to supplementing the State fund by local taxation, after the example set in Winchester by Judge Beckner, one of the most prominent Democrats in the State.

The St. Johnsbury *Caledonian*, one of the best weekly journals in New England, does not feel much confidence in the scheme for repeopling Vermont by Swedish immigrants. It sees two serious practical difficulties in the way. One is the fact that the non-occupied lands are not owned by the Government, the State, or any great corporation, which might sell them at a fixed price, but by private individuals, so that anything like a concerted movement to occupy them would at once create a boom in real estate that would discourage if not defeat the scheme altogether. The other obstacle is the fact that Vermont, as well as the rest of northern New England, "is in effect already mortgaged to another nationality"—the French Canadians. The *Caledonian* says that these people "are coming into Vermont in great numbers. They already own a good share of the farms in the northern tier of counties, and are filling the manufacturing towns with operatives of both sexes and laborers in all departments of industry and trade. When it is known that in a place no larger than St. Johnsbury [which had but 5,800 inhabitants in 1880] the parish priest numbers his parish at between 1,900 and 2,000 souls foreign-born or born of foreign parentage, the increase of the Canadian element in Vermont begins to be appreciated." Considering that the Roman Catholic authorities in Canada look upon New England as their future country and the home of their religion, that they are bending every energy to make it so, and that statistics show the French Canadian to be the most prolific race on the globe, the St. Johnsbury paper "feels warranted in saying that Vermont has a mortgage upon it that will be hard to 'lift.'"

The St. Louis *Republic* is thoroughly convinced that "the Democratic party must change its leadership if it wishes to win," and set out under Western leadership to win Western States from the Republicans. The Nashville *American* having asserted that the Republicanism of that region is due to "sectional prejudice," the *Republic* replies that "it is more largely due to Democratic abandonment." It points out that not so long ago Ohio was a very doubtful State, but was surrendered; that Michigan, although abandoned by the national Democracy, inclined strongly towards that party until the fatal blunder was made last year of nominating for Governor a great salt-manufacturer; and that the Illinois Democrats get no help whatever from the national Democracy in the hopeful fight which they have already begun for the control of that State next year and the election of ex-Gov. Palmer to the United States Senate; while "Indiana alone has been fought for, and that fight has been continually made by the Democrats under Northeastern leadership against the Republicans under Western leadership." So far as sectional prejudice operates in the matter at all, it is, in the *Republic's* opinion, only "the natural Western prejudice in favor of the West"; and while it admits that "there is a certain amount of civil-war prejudice which the Republicans know how to play on," it insists that "they cannot use it against the South when the South changes the Northeastern alliance for alliance with the West." Added force is lent to these views by the fact that the editor of the *Republic* not only was born in the South, but also conducted for years in Florida a representative Southern journal.

A few days ago the whites of Atlanta, Ga., were burning in effigy the Postmaster for his appointment of a negro to a place in the office where he would be brought into association with a white woman. Now the negroes have been burning in effigy at Charlotte, N. C., the Postmaster of that city, the Federal Superintendent of Public Buildings in the same city, and the Collector of Revenue for Western North Carolina, as a sort of side-show to a convention of colored Republicans from all parts of the State, who are disgusted because the white Republicans got all but $1,000 of the $30,000 boodle sent down by Boss Quay last fall, and are getting nearly all the offices now. Thus far the Administration has been singularly unfortunate in the matter of the race issue down South, having appointed enough illiterate and incompetent negroes to disgust the whites, but not nearly enough to satisfy the blacks.

A glance at the quarterly report of the Juror Commissioner of New York seems to be all that is necessary to show the farcical nature of the system of jury selection in this city. There were cast here last autumn 277,739 votes. On only 76,624 of these voters was any notice of enrolment as jurors ever served. Of these, 6,860 ignored the notices entirely, 67,403 put in pleas of exemption, and the names of 8,230 got into the wheel. But even of this small number the courts did not secure the services: 3,612 were excused by them, 1,112 ignored their summonses, and finally 2,402 was the number of jurors who actually served, or one out of every 116 voters. The fining of delinquent jurors is quite as much a farce as the drawing. There was due the city in such fines during the quarter $193,675. The amount that actually went into the city treasury was $375. Of the remainder, $138,500 was remitted, $54,500 is still in controversy, and some minor sums have been kept out of the treasury in different ways. The evils suggested by this report are many and serious. It is alarming to think how many "professional jurors" must sit in our jury-boxes when the total number of serving jurors is so few. There has been some investigation of this subject in the last year, but the practical result seems imperceptible.

The last quarterly report of the Bureau of Statistics shows that the per-capita consumption of wines in this country, and still more that of malt liquors, continues to increase steadily, while the proportion of distilled spirits used remains almost stationary of late years and is far below what it used to be. The figures for 1888, as compared with 1870, were: distilled spirits, 1.23 gallons, against 2.07; wines, .59, against .32; and malt liquors 12.48, against 5.30. *Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular*, an ably conducted trade journal, ascribes the very heavy increase in the consumption of malt liquors almost wholly to the discriminating effects of the high tax on spirits as against the very low tax on beer and ale. It considers this an exhi-

bition of "governmental favoritism," which there would be some room for tolerating if the beer were growing better; "but unhappily," it says, "the quality of American beer is steadily deteriorating, and already there are thousands of well-informed people who scrupulously refuse to touch it on account of its injurious effects." The *Circular* of course considers the increased consumption of wines a hopeful sign of the times, "for a people's advance in civilization and refinement is always marked by an increased consumption of pure wines." It attributes the increase in large measure to the fact that domestic wines are free of tax, while the excise levied on foreign wines is not only exorbitant, but in large measure prohibitive, and finds here the reason why so many of our domestic wines are sold under foreign labels. "When," it adds, "our domestic producers rise to a full appreciation of the fact that it is genuine merit, far more than price, that popularizes wines, they will invite rather than fear competition from every quarter."

The seizures of our *Rush* in Behring Sea are getting so numerous that the rage in Canada over the apathy of the home Government begins at last to find an echo in London. The London *Times* now demands that something be done promptly to stop the operations of our cruisers. There is nothing very serious in the situation, however, because we hear from Washington that our Government has not as yet taken up any position whatever with regard to Behring Sea. Indeed, it is said that the President and Cabinet have not yet had time to look into the matter at all, owing to the demands made on them by the office-seekers. As soon as all the claims are satisfied, and "harmony" established in all parts of the country, the President will turn his attention to this international complication.

Harper's Weekly, commenting on the Maybrick case, assumes that Judge Stephen on the trial "appeared as counsel"—a practice, it justly says, "very foreign to the American sense of fitness and justice"; and that he "sat virtually as a juryman, answered the arguments of counsel with whom he disagreed, and urged upon the jury, with all the necessary prestige of his position, the conclusion he had reached." Our contemporary can hardly have read Judge Stephen's charge when it passed this very severe judgment on him. We have done so carefully, and can testify that, beyond some little "digs" at pet aversions of his, such as experts, the charge was, in method, such as every English judge and every American judge who tries to do his duty delivers on all serious occasions. It was a careful summing up of the evidence, with special attention to the more important points on both sides, and with great care and emphasis for everything which made for the prisoner. What made the Liverpool mob angry with him was that any careful summing up of the testimony bore inevitably against the prisoner, and that he dwelt somewhat strongly on her adultery as a sufficient motive for the attempt on the husband's life, because the law requires a motive for every crime; a crime without motive being evidence of lunacy. Our judges do not often charge in this way, partly because they are more afraid of responsibility than the English judges, and partly because every sentence in a judge's charge may here be excepted to and made the basis of an appeal, to say nothing of the fact that our lawyers are allowed to make any number of "requests to charge" anything that comes into their heads, and appeal if the judge refuses. These "requests," which in nine cases out of ten are rigmarole, the poor jury is allowed to listen to and be bewildered by.

Mr. George Lewis, the well-known English lawyer, has been interviewed on the Maybrick case by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and declares himself unqualifiedly in favor of a Court of Criminal Appeal, composed of two judges with power to order a new trial "in case they were of opinion that the verdict [of the jury] was wrong." But this would not meet the Maybrick case. What was demanded in the Maybrick case was not that the prisoner should be tried over again by another jury, but that the judgment of large public meetings and of crowds in the streets should be accepted by the Government in place of the verdict. There would have been just the same uproar if the two Judges of Criminal Appeal had confirmed the verdict, for the crowd would have said that the judges were all wrong, just as Judge Stephen was, and that they were prejudiced against her because she was pretty and had committed adultery. No court can take the place of a promiscuous assemblage of excited sentimentalists.

The great strike in London has undoubtedly been organized and set agoing by Hyndman, Cunningham, Burns, and other Socialistic leaders who have been working now for two or three years, with more or less success, to array the east end of London in hostility to the west. The attempts to hold meetings in Trafalgar Square, which ended in riots, were the first result of these efforts, and gave a considerable stimulus to the Socialistic propaganda. The present strike would probably have occurred sooner but for the prolonged business depression, which, however, has now passed away. Business of all kinds, except agriculture, has not been so brisk in England since 1873. This last season has been the best that London shopkeepers have ever known, and the Socialistic leaders have, therefore, not unnaturally concluded that the time had come to strike their blow. They are trying for the first time in England a general or sympathetic strike—that is, a strike of several trades in aid of one, with the view of producing widespread public inconvenience, and thus bringing pressure of every kind to bear on the employers. When this sort of strike was first talked of in this country, it seemed very formidable, and the inventors thought that if they could bring it about, they would soon have "society" on its knees begging for pardon and reconciliation—a delusion produced by the habit of considering manual laborers as a class apart, engaged in supplying food and clothing and means of locomotion to the people who work with their heads or live on their capital. The bubble was burst very speedily here by the discovery that every strike on a large scale not only rapidly exhausts the resources of the strikers, but bears hardest on the poor. The strikers have to be supported by somebody while on strike. When only one trade strikes, it is maintained in part at least by those who remain at work; but if all strike, of course there is nobody to draw on for the relief fund, and the wider the area the strike covers, the shorter must the struggle be. What is worse still, any rise in the price of provisions or in the cost of transportation begins at once to threaten the very lives of the poor, while it only subjects the well-to-do to easily borne inconvenience.

One of the charges of which Gen. Boulanger has been recently convicted was having shared in an "epaulette job," and the epaulette job was this: Gen. Lewal, the then Minister of War, had issued an order abolishing epaulettes in the French army. Gen. Boulanger was then in command at Tunis, and he had for jackal, or "heeler," a rascally journalist named Buret. When the order was issued, a certain contractor named Dupuy was left with a very large stock of epaulettes on hand. It was, therefore, of the last importance to him to get the order rescinded or postponed. So he applied to Buret, and promised him two cents a pair on all his (Dupuy's) stock if he got the order cancelled. Buret undertook the job, and went to Boulanger, but Boulanger was apparently cautious, and wanted a guarantee, or "anchor to windward," so Dupuy wrote Buret the following letter:

"I am sure you personally have complete confidence in my word, but possibly *your friend* may not have that confidence, and I accordingly meet all doubts by telling you that I am ready to write you a letter making a positive engagement in any terms you please."

In another letter to Buret he said: "Come and see me after your visit to the great chief [*le grand chef*]"; and in still another, "You know there will be twenty centimes a pair for you." Then Gen. Boulanger went to work to show he would be "no deadhead in the enterprise." He telegraphed from Tunis introducing Buret to the War Department, and to Buret, "I am sure Gen. Mensier will receive you with his usual kindness." In a second despatch he said: "I have received your telegram. I am writing about the Dupuy matter [*pour ce qui concerne M. Dupuy*], not to the Minister, but to some one who has the ear of the Minister. You may rely on me. *Burn this.*" One more letter to Buret said plumply: "I have written about Dupuy's epaulettes. Your devoted friend, Général Boulanger." One half expected to find at the foot, "Mille choses de ma part à Mme. Buret," or "Hommages respectueux à Madame," or some equivalent of "Kind regards to Mrs. Fisher," so close is the parallel in many other respects.

A CURIOUS ADMISSION.

THE Dayton (Ohio) *Journal* is a Republican paper in excellent standing in the party, and speaks on party questions with a certain authority. It recently took occasion to denounce another Republican paper, the Cincinnati *Times-Star*, for the following utterances:

"The petty clerkships covered by the Civil-Service Law are not connected with the party organization, for the Federal service cannot be looked upon in the light of a party machine, and, in any event, the incumbents of these places can exercise little more influence upon the Administration or on politics than do Kansas grasshoppers upon the Government of Nova Scotia. So long as their work is well done, under the direction of responsible superiors, it matters not, either to the Administration or the party, whether they are Republicans, Democrats, or Prohibitionists."

This the Dayton *Journal* considers "Mugwump gabble," which, the editor says, "makes a man of common sense sick," and he then substitutes for it the following statement as true party doctrine:

"Let it be once understood that no Republican who desires a clerical appointment is to be considered in the distribution of Federal clerkships, and the party will disintegrate at once. Not that the ordinary voter is a Republican or a Democrat for office only, but because human nature is so organized that the rewards for party service stimulate to action."

This is an absolutely new definition of a political party. Webster's definition is: "A number of persons united in opinion, as opposed to the rest of the community or association, and aiming to influence or control the general action." Burke and all other leading writers on government or politics with whom we have any acquaintance take the same view. According to the Dayton *Journal*, however, the correct definition is something of this kind: "A number of persons united in the opinion that persons desiring clerical appointments are to be considered in the distribution of party offices." For, if the Republican party would "disintegrate"—that is, disappear—if it were settled that clerical appointments would no longer be considered part of the discretionary patronage of the Government, it is proof positive that the distribution of clerical appointments for party services is the sole or main object for which the Republican party exists. This is very important if true. We do not remember a similar confession on the part of any political organization—not even of the Tammany Society. Of course "clerical appointments" are simply a euphemism for money. Nobody desires a clerical appointment simply that he may do clerical work. He can practise writing and arithmetic in his own home to his heart's content. What an office-seeker means by a clerical appointment is a certain sum of money paid in monthly instalments. He would take this money for any kind of work equally light. He does not insist on doing clerical duty. He would just as soon do political work—that is, organize ward associations or "fix" primaries. As a matter of fact he often does no work of any kind.

Clerical appointments, then, mean salaries, but not salaries for the whole party. The whole Republican party consists, say, of the 5,440,551 who cast their votes for President Harrison at the last election, while the clerical appointments included in the classified service which the Dayton publicist has in his eye, and about which the Mugwumps "gabble," amount to about 16,000. The whole number of Federal appointments is estimated at 120,000, and we will, in order to make our case as strong as possible, assume that all Federal appointments are "clerical appointments." The proper definition of the Republican party, then, according to our Ohio friend, will be this: "Five millions and a half of persons united in the opinion that 120,000 persons ought to receive small salaries in the Federal service for doing electioneering work." Rather a funny definition when one sees it in print, and evidently not one that could be put into a text-book on government for schools and colleges. In fact, it looks to us very like one calculated to make intelligent men sick in any part of the civilized world, and which any man outside a circle of bar-room loafers ought to be ashamed to "gabble" about. We fear, indeed, that it is the composition of a "youngster" who, like Mr. Wilder of Kansas, will be saying twenty years hence that he ought to have been "kicked" for writing it.

We do not admire the Republican party as at present managed, but we do not believe its *raison d'être* is the parcelling out of a few thousand small clerical offices among a small band of needy adventurers. It ought to make an American blush to give any such account to the world as this of either of the great political organizations. Both the Republican and Democratic parties, with all their faults and whatever the managers may feel or think, exist for the propagation and expression in legislation of certain ideas on great lines of public policy. If the sole concern of the voters in either when they went to the polls was the distribution of the smaller salaries, it would show that the Government was a hideous failure, and that the days of the Republic were numbered. An organization which exists only to get money must be either a purely commercial or a criminal organization. There is no place for it in modern politics.

Another difficulty about the Ohio definition is, that it fails to account for the existence and activity of the Democratic party for the twenty-five years following the outbreak of the war, when it had neither office nor hope of office. What kept it together? Why did it not "disintegrate"? Why was it able to elect a President in 1876, and again in 1884? And how is it that popular government has been carried on in England for fifty years, with a popular interest in politics such as we have not seen here since the days of the war, when there is not a single clerkship or post-office or custom-house place to be had by any worker in consequence of an electoral victory? These questions have often been put to spoilsmen within the last twenty years. So far as we know, not only have they not been answered, but no attempt has been made to answer them. Human nature, in fact, is not so degraded in any free country as they would have us believe.

THE NEW SILVER CAMPAIGN.

THE campaign of Senators Stewart and Reagan in the new Northwest, ostensibly in the interest of Irrigation, but really in favor of Silver, has rightly attracted the attention of the country. There is no room to doubt that the silver-men will drop all disguises and all half-measures when Congress meets, and make a push for "free coinage," and all that that implies. In the last Congress, it will be remembered, when the bill was pending in the Senate to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase bonds in his discretion with the surplus in his hands, Senator Stewart offered an amendment providing that any holder of gold or silver bullion might present it at the Treasury and receive coin certificates therefor at the rate of one dollar for 25 8-10 grains of gold (the present coining rate), and at a rate for silver to be fixed and advertised fortnightly by the Secretary, such coin certificates to be legal tender for all debts, public and private, except on contracts otherwise made previously to the passage of the bill.

Simultaneously with this, Senator Reagan offered an amendment directing the Secretary to apply forthwith the $100,000,000 of gold now held in reserve for greenback redemption to the purchase and cancellation of bonds of the United States, *i. e.*, to suspend specie payments. Other amendments equally inappropriate to the pending bill and equally destructive of business interests were offered, and it seemed at one time as though all of them would be adopted. Finally, Senator Beck offered one which was accepted by the silver-men as a compromise. It provided that whenever any national-bank notes should be surrendered by retiring banks and not taken up by others within thirty days, the Secretary should buy silver bullion to a corresponding amount and coin the same, in addition to the monthly coinage now provided by law. This was adopted by a vote of 31 to 20, and the bill so amended was sent back to the House, where it was quietly smothered.

It is not likely that the silver-men will now be content with anything less than free coinage. It is needful, therefore, to inquire what free coinage means. So much time has passed since the subject was submitted to popular discussion that most people have forgotten that it was hotly debated eleven years ago, and that an adverse decision was then reached, the present law providing for a limited coinage having been passed as a compromise. Free coinage means that all persons, in all parts of the world, shall have the right to take silver to the mints of the United States and have it coined into dollars of 412½ grains each for their account, and that these dollars shall be legal tender for all debts not made specifically payable in gold. Free coinage applies to the silver of Mexico, Germany, India, and every other country, as well as to that of the United States, since otherwise it would not be free but limited coinage.

What is implied by the phrase legal tender in this case? It means that every man, corporation, bank, and institution, public and

private, including the national and State Governments, may discharge their existing obligations with 412½ grains of silver for each dollar, unless the same are specifically payable in gold. As 412½ grains of silver are worth only seventy cents or thereabouts, it means that everybody may cheat his creditors out of 30 per cent. of their dues. The only drawback upon this swindling operation would be the present inability of the mints to coin silver dollars fast enough. This difficulty might be surmounted by making silver certificates legal tender, and providing for the issue of certificates on the bullion deposited, as Senator Stewart proposed in the last Congress. It should be mentioned here that Congress has never made silver certificates or gold certificates legal tender between individuals. The only legal-tender instruments are gold coin, standard silver dollars, and greenbacks. A silver certificate is simply a certificate of deposit, like a warehouse receipt. Whether the Supreme Court, in a pinch, would hold that Government-warehouse receipts may be made legal tender between individuals under the Constitution, would be a question of much importance if Mr. Stewart's ideas should prevail in Congress.

It should be borne in mind that legal-tender acts have no economical effect except upon contracts already made. They exhaust themselves upon what is past. They may compel a man who has made his bargain in good money to take in payment money worth 30 per cent. less. But they cannot compel him to make another bargain, or to sell his property or services for any less value than he conceives them to be worth. There are some exceptions to this general rule arising from custom. The rate of wages, for example, when once fixed, is not easily changed. If the standard of value should be depreciated 30 per cent., wages would not instantly rise to correspond. The price of commodities would rise, however, immediately and universally. The presumption is that goods are now sold as low as they can be on the gold basis. If the basis is changed to silver, the goods must still be sold so as to return to the producer as much gold value as he received before. He cannot continue his business on any other terms. The advance in the nominal prices of commodities would eventually cause an advance in wages, but it would be after a dispute and a strike, and very likely the full amount of the advance would not be gained for a long time.

Again, some articles are habitually sold at a fixed price which cannot be easily changed, as, for example, newspapers. The cost of producing white paper and ink might rise 30 per cent.—and certainly would so rise if the silver standard were adopted—but the publishers could not advance the prices of their papers in a corresponding ratio, because there is no coin which exactly represents it. The difficulty of advancing it at all can be best appreciated by those who are in the business. The impossibility of advancing it in the exact ratio of the increased cost of making newspapers is apparent to every one. This difficulty would extend to other branches of trade in the proportion that each is restricted and hampered by custom to a fixed price for the articles sold.

It is scarcely necessary to say that all deposits in banks, savings institutions, trust companies, and all policies of life insurance payable in dollars would be payable in money 30 per cent. less valuable than the existing currency, unless these institutions should refuse to take advantage of the opportunity to swindle their customers which the law would offer to them. They might not be able to do otherwise, seeing that their own funds (except the gold coin and gold certificates in their possession) would be liable to the general depreciation. About eleven years ago the clearing-houses of New York and Boston passed a resolution that they would not receive silver on deposit except from customers who would agree in writing to receive silver in payment of their checks. These resolutions have never been rescinded, although there has been no occasion for putting them in force, the parity of silver and gold having been maintained by the Government. Such parity cannot be maintained after the passage of a free coinage bill admitting all the silver on the globe to our mints. In such a case the clearing-house resolution would undoubtedly be enforced, and would undoubtedly be adopted by the other banks throughout the country. Since no act of Congress can add anything to the value of silver or detract anything from the value of gold, we should have two kinds of money inevitably, just as we had two kinds during the war. The banks would simply recognize that fact, and adapt their business to it.

SPECULATING JUDGES.

The Albany *Law Journal* has directed attention to one of the evils of modern life which is often whispered about, but seldom mentioned above a whisper. It appears that a judge of one of our higher courts was sued by a stockbroker to recover money lost by the judge in stock speculation, and that a debt was established of about $14,000. It is immaterial what were the merits of the particular transaction, the only matter of importance to the public being the fact that the court was interested pecuniarily in the movement of stocks, and, therefore, had a bias in business controversies which might come before it for decision. The mere statement of the case is sufficient for all the purposes of comment. "It stands recorded," says the *Law Journal*, "that a magistrate of high authority and large jurisdiction, who is called to pass upon property rights of great magnitude, even stock transactions, is himself a stock gambler in Wall Street. Perhaps he will try to justify himself by saying that such transactions are not now illegal. So it is of pool-selling within certain limits. But what high-minded citizen does not shrink from the picture?"

Public opinion does not need any instruction upon the unhappy consequences of stock gambling on the bench, but there are degrees even here, and it is easy to see that if the practice is tolerated at all, it will go from bad to worse, and eventually corrupt the fountain of justice altogether. For if a judge may "take a flyer" in a particular stock, soothing his conscience with the thought that the property concerned is not in litigation before him, and probably never will be, the fact that he is "in it" will be known to a greater or less number of brokers and litigants. Usually and almost necessarily some law firm has charge of the judge's stock ventures. Brokers and litigants become impressed with the idea that this law firm is the one to employ in cases where the interests of corporations are involved. When they have, or expect to have, law-suits of considerable magnitude, they retain the lawyers who are supposed to have charge of the judge's interests. Perhaps they put them in the way of making some money. Perhaps the original suggestion comes from the lawyers that it would be well to "cast an anchor to windward" by letting the judge have an interest in the "deal," or in some deal sufficiently identified with the plaintiff or defendant to enable him to know who his friends are. This means swift demoralization of the bench, for the judge who will allow pecuniary favors to be thrown in his way will soon become an active seeker of them, and when he gets in this state of mind he is a blackmailer whose power of extorting money is limited only by his fear of exposure. That the mind of the speculating judge is absorbed by the turning of the wheel of fortune to such an extent that he cannot address himself properly to his ordinary duties, is a complaint not unfrequently heard among members of the bar.

We will not dwell longer on these painful features. It is worth inquiry whether there is any remedy for such a state of things short of impeachment, whether there is any profounder cause of this evil than the natural heart of man. There are no speculating judges in the United States courts. Yet these judges are of the same clay as those of the State courts. If it were said of Judge Blatchford, or Judge Brown, or Judge Lacombe, that anybody was carrying stocks for him, with or without margins, such a story would not be believed for a moment. But why not? Are not these men of the same race and blood, the same training and education, held by the same social ties, braced against temptation by the same environment? Not quite. These men are not dependent upon party conventions. They are not amenable to bosses, or "halls," or popularity of any sort. They are in an atmosphere of independence. Nobody can throw them down. Nobody can turn them out of office penniless at the end of a certain term. Moreover, the close of life for them is darkened by no shadow of poverty. When their natural strength is abated, they are still provided for. The evening of their days is a period of grateful repose, to be welcomed rather than dreaded.

How different from this vista is that of the State judge who sees at the end of his service, which may come after the expiration of a few years, the best years of his life, the necessity of returning to the bar and beginning life anew, his old clients having disappeared, and he compelled to fight for a liv-

ing among more vigorous and experienced practitioners. It is not true, therefore, that the Federal judges are subjected to the same temptations as the State judges. There is all the difference that one can imagine. Doubtless it was the intention of the people to put the salaries of the State judges high enough to enable them to save money for their declining years, but this benevolent intention has been and generally will be frustrated by the hopefulness of human nature. The judge will always expect to be reëlected. He will say to himself that to-morrow shall be as this day and still more abundant. His outgo will correspond with his income, and eventually he will be stranded. The $6,000 per year, with pension annexed, that the United States Circuit judges receive, is more satisfying in every way and far more conducive to the public interest than the $15,000 that the judges of our Supreme Court receive, with the prospect of being turned out to grass at the end of their respective terms. These facts do not excuse the speculating judge, but they are facts which society may well ponder.

A CROP OF OATHS.

When the barbarous "tax on knowledge," the duty on books, was incorporated in the Tariff Law, an exception was made in favor of schools, seminaries, colleges, and learned societies, which, under certain restrictions, could import, duty free, two copies of any one book at a time. The poor professor has to pay $1.25 for the book which costs his college $1. The wisdom of the measure seems doubtful; as it is the law, however, the institutions thus favored have availed themselves of it under the liberal rulings of former secretaries, tinkered and modified about a dozen times in as many years. The importer, at first, made oath that certain books in his invoice were imported for certain colleges; then the librarian's written order was required in addition to the importer's oath; then the librarian's sworn order had to be filed, backed up by the importer's oath, and such books as did not come in the first invoice could be extracted from the sworn order, and the extract, certified by the Collector, would admit them duty free at any subsequent time. Serial publications, such as the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' and similar books, were admitted free on a single oath, filed with the entry of the first volume; the importer, on entering subsequent ones, referring to date and vessel of the first importation—under oath, of course. Then the librarian's oath had to be made after the date of the entry, and the importer could give bond for its production, or pay the duty and await its refunding after filing the oath.

Though swearing had thus already become a fine art, the present Administration was still not satisfied. As the consul in London divides the fees for oaths with his notary, our officials here apparently formed partnerships with our notaries, for since the first of July a new oath form has been prescribed, to be sworn to both by librarian and importer, for not only each book or number of books, but also for each new part, volume, number, or sheet of serial publications. Proctor's 'New Astronomy,' for instance, in twelve parts at seventy cents each, will now require twelve double oaths at thirteen cents each, with two cents postage which the importer pays for sending the blank, and two cents postage which the library pays for its return—all to save seventeen cents duty. It appears that the liquidating clerk at the Custom-house found it too irksome to verify the importer's sworn statement that the librarian's oath, covering the whole issue of certain serials, was on file with a certain entry. It appears, too, that some dealer, to oblige a customer, had from his shelves sent a certain book at duty-free rates to some library, and replaced it with an identical copy afterwards imported free on the librarian's oath. Instead of having the individual offender punished for his possibly not entirely legal proceeding, the special agent's instincts, or Mr. Tichenor's early training (which had not taught him that some people were honest), preferred to smite hip and thigh all the librarians and book importers of the country for one man's evasion of the law. A new iron-clad form of double oath was prescribed at a few days' notice, all the accommodations of former orders regulating the free-of-duty importation of books were at once stopped, and the importer's business seriously and wantonly interfered with by this "Government for the people." It is, for the importer, impossible promptly to procure the required oaths from distant places, and during the summer vacation—the time most judiciously chosen for the enforcement of the new regulations—some librarians cannot be communicated with at all. But unless the oath is filed with the entry, duty is assessed and no refunding made. Thus the $1 book will cost the college either $1.25, duty paid, or at best $1.15, to say nothing of the annoyance and loss of time to both librarian and importer.

A petition, signed by the most prominent importers of English, French, and German books, setting forth in detail these hardships and the bringing into contempt of so sacred a thing as an oath, was addressed to the Secretary of the Treasury, but without avail. Importers, in such matters, are always snubbed by Treasury officials. It now remains for the American Library Association, and the principals of schools and presidents of colleges and seminaries, to take up the matter, and bring such influence to bear on officialdom as to modify this latest scheme of increasing the revenue by Treasury orders. A great number of our librarians are clergymen, and their voices ought to be heard in a matter of this kind, and President Harrison and his Cabinet—reputed to be pious Christian men—ought to heed them; otherwise the smaller libraries, the very ones most needing it, will be debarred by unreasonable exactions from enjoying the benefits of the statute allowing them to import their books duty free, and the crop of oaths will be enormous, our notaries become millionaires, and swearing—in more senses than one—will become the importer's and librarian's daily occupation.

ROADS AND STREETS.

It looks a little as if there would be a serious movement made by the present municipal administration for the provision of better street pavements. Some money has been provided for it, and there is apparently a greater disposition on the part of the men in power to consider what is the best kind of pavement. Moreover, the movement is supported by the perennial readiness of our city authorities to undertake great public works involving the handling of large sums of money and the employment of a great deal of labor. It is a hopeful sign, too, that both the Commissioner of Public Works and the Comptroller should be making an attack on the gas companies, with a view to compelling them to replace in a proper manner the pavements they tear up. The street railroads are nearly as great offenders as the gas companies. They neglect their duty in the matter of repaving just as grossly. If Commissioner Gilroy desires fame as a reformer, he cannot win it more easily than by making an onslaught on them also. But the real test of efficiency and good faith on the part of anybody who undertakes to make New York streets decent or convenient will be found in the way the garbage and ash nuisance and the wagon nuisance are dealt with. No man who, having the power to prevent it, allows the streets to be occupied and obstructed by 30,000 business wagons and trucks, or who fails to struggle for their removal, can claim the credit of being a street reformer. Good pavements will be of comparatively little use if a large body of private citizens are allowed to use the streets for purposes of stabling or storage. There is no more reason in allowing a man to save rent by keeping his wagons in the street than in allowing him to put up a hut in it for the accommodation of his family or the storage of his goods. Nothing of the kind has ever been seen before in any large civilized city. It is not over forty years since pigs were allowed to run loose in the streets—a practice which now seems monstrous, but it was really not as monstrous as the use of the streets as repositories for wagons and carts.

Another good sign of the times is the issue of an excellent pamphlet by the League of American Wheelmen on the "Improvement of Highways," both town and country. It cannot be too widely circulated, for it contains articles on the making and care of good roads and on city pavements by experts, who not only urge the saving and the comfort of good roads, but show in detail how they are to be made and maintained. Every farmer in the country ought to have a copy put into his hands.

The editors very naturally refuse to accept the suggestion that "the degree of a nation's civilization may be gauged by the condition of its roads," because "this would be a mortifying test to apply to our own country, for it would place it not only below France, where all the country roads are said to be actually swept every morning, and Germany and England, but even below some of the States of Asia and northern Africa." The

excuse for the badness of American roads is that railroads were made here, as nowhere else, when the country was too thinly settled to make good highways attainable, and have ever since absorbed the attention of nearly everybody who was interested in the questions of transportation either for goods or passengers. But the country along nearly every line of railroad is now so thickly settled that the question of reaching the railroad has become one of paramount importance. In several of the Western States, and in many parts of this State, the traffic receipts of the railroads fall off heavily in spring, simply because the cartage of goods to the stations is made impossible by the badness of the roads, and there is hardly a road in the country in which the work of the American, as compared to that of the European, draught-horse is not nearly doubled by the condition of the road-bed, even in the best weather, to say nothing of the increased wear and tear of vehicles and harness.

There is another excuse for the badness of American roads which the Wheelmen's pamphlet does not mention, but which ought not to pass without notice, and that is the invention of the light wagon as a substitute for the saddle and the pillion, as a means of locomotion over short distances. The comparative ease with which this vehicle can be drawn over rough or boggy roads has for half a century greatly aided the railroads in concealing from the American public the extraordinary badness of their highways. And then the strength of tradition among the farmers to whose care the country roads have been left, and the length of the winter in many of the Northern and Northwestern States, must also be taken into account in inquiring why road-making has not kept pace with the other arts in the United States. We believe it is strictly true that the farmers' mode of repairing the roads in spring has come down without change from the early colonial time, when a highway meant simply an open bridle-path through the woods, free from dangerous holes and passable in the dark by a mounted man. The scraping up of the mud from the ditch to raise the centre of the roadbed, and level it, clearly dates from this period, when there was no need to provide for wheeled traffic.

SUMMER BOARD AS A BUSINESS.

Our remarks on the future of the Summer Boarder have attracted a considerable amount of attention from other journals, most of which seem to sympathize, more or less keenly, with him over his expulsion from the more attractive points on the Atlantic shore. But only one—the Boston *Herald*—has offered the slightest remedial suggestion. The writer confirms fully the accuracy of our account of the way in which the Boarder has been treated by the Cottager. He says:

> "The fact stares one in the face that at the present time nearly every part of the New England coast which is most attractive to the pleasure-seeking public is in private hands, and cannot be trodden upon by the stranger, except through the courtesy of the owner. The same process is going on at the most desirable retreats in the country and at the mountains. Wherever the best society has colonized for the summer, the language is, 'Procul, procul este profani.'"

The consolation he offers the Boarder, however, strikes us as rather empty. He simply remarks that the Cottager cannot "deprive him [the Boarder] of the simplest things in nature, or of the joyful surprises and delights which come everywhere to the observant man and the contented heart." "Beauty in nature," he adds, "is a relative term, and there are thousands of places where it can be found all over this country, beautiful beyond the power of any words to describe, on which society has not yet set the seal of approval and exclusive appropriation."

The non-observant men, however, and the discontented hearts have their right to the pursuit of happiness, as well as their betters; and it is of some importance to them, when their summer vacation comes round, to know where to find beauty in nature without having to search the continent for it in every direction. It seems to us, therefore, that a few plain, practical truths may be worth a good deal more to the Boarder than any quantity of encouragement to pursue the beautiful all over the country. Let us, then, say frankly that in our opinion all the very attractive spots on the seacoast are virtually lost to him for ever. The Cottager has either got them securely now, or will have them before long. The reason of this is, that our seacoast, and especially the northeastern portion, has not only to supply the people of our own seaboard States with sea air and sea bathing, but has to meet the wants of the well-to-do of the whole Mississippi Valley, who rush for the Atlantic every year in increasing numbers with a passionate eagerness which scorns expense, and will have the best purchasable sites. Everything of the kind from Cape May to Eastport has been already bought up, or is held for a rise. Any hotel or boarding-house which occupies an attractive position is, we may rely on it, destined to disappear before long before the Cottagers' consuming thirst for seclusion and fine scenery. The Boarder who does not see this, or, seeing it, ignores it, is simply blind. To the old Boarder it may make but little difference, but it warns his children in unmistakable terms that the saving of money for a cottage cannot begin a day too soon. The mere craving for "sea food" which one witnesses on the part of Western people now in our seaboard hotels, is of itself a significant indication of what is coming in the near future.

The Boarder who means to remain a Boarder, and who never intends to rise into the condition of a Cottager, must, it seems to us, make up his mind to live in the mountains. It is there that he, for the present at least, is likely to be most secure. Mountains on this continent are a practically unlimited quantity. They cover vast areas. They abound in beautiful scenery, and they produce mountain air in great abundance. In them, we are persuaded, the true home of the Boarder—if the poor fellow can have a home on this continent at all—will hereafter be found. But it is absolutely necessary to his continued peace that he should try in some manner to improve the summer-boarding-house keeper, for it is the imperfections and shortcomings of this personage which, almost as much as anything else, drive people into cottage life. A cottage in a large percentage of cases is a refuge from boarding-house fare and noise and discomfort. Improvement is probably attainable, because fully nine-tenths of the present boarding-house keepers are really farmers or fishermen by training, and have begun to take boarders simply because the boarders forced themselves upon them, or because they thought they could make a little money by it. These pioneers in a new industry—for such it may be called—have had two great and, in many cases, insurmountable difficulties to get over. One is complete ignorance about the habits and diet of "city folk," and the other is unwillingness to admit that one American can or ought to have more reasonable wants of a personal nature than another. It always goes against the grain of the summer-boarding-house keeper to admit that what was good enough for himself and his wife is not good enough for these "citified" people who descend on him once a year. When they demand food or sleeping arrangements with which he is not familiar, he hates to comply, because he thinks they are merely giving themselves airs, or putting on "frills," or making a fuss about trifles. If, under the pressure of popular agitation, he does comply, he complies with a bad grace and without zeal, or interest, or disposition to learn, and consequently with but little chance of improvement. He does not give his mind to the amelioration of his cookery, which he finds is good enough. He will not warm the plates, because he has himself eaten off cold plates all his life. He will not take any trouble to provide baths, because he never bathes; or give more towels, because he has always found a little one enough for his own use. He consequently is apt to receive his boarders in a spirit of hostility. He meets them as aggressors who have come to find fault with his house and his table, and wear his wife's life out, and need to be repelled with energy, especially when they ask him to make any provision for individual peculiarities. We once saw an elderly gentleman treated like an impudent ruffian in the White Mountains because he asked modestly for two horses for himself and his wife to ascend Mt. Washington alone, and not in the general caravan of forty which was being made up.

We presume the Swiss, who are now the greatest hotel and boarding-house keepers in the world, and have brought the art to the highest perfection, and make immense sums out of it every year, passed, when their mountains first began to be a summer resort, through a stage of feeling somewhat similar to that in which our summer-boarding-house keepers now live. But they very soon got over it, and reduced the entertainment of tourists to a business conducted on what may be almost called scientific principles. The Swiss hotel-keeper studies boarders' tastes as coldly and commercially as a manufacturer

studies the quality of raw material, and eliminates his own feelings completely from the problem he has to solve of making money by attracting people to his house. In fact, his sons and daughters now serve an apprenticeship to the trade of finding out what boarders like and supplying it. We have little doubt that in the next generation our mountaineers will exhibit in a similar way their appreciation of the immense sums that may be made by providing comfortable accommodation in the country for the vast crowds of sedentary people which the American community now contains.

MICHELE AMARI.

WHO that loves the history of right against might, of the oppressed against their oppressors, but has read the 'Sicilian Vespers,' written by Michele Amari during the darkest days of despotism; and, reading, has not marvelled at the mighty power of a people, outraged by bitter injuries and insults harder still to bear, uprising in spontaneous unanimity, without previous conspiracy, without organization, without a chosen leader? This patriot and true historian died on the 15th of July, "suddenly," at the age of eighty-three. The thought that occupied his last days was the erection of a monument to Alto Vannucci, the historian of Italian martyrs in Rome. "If the Commission is to meet at once," he wrote, "I will come without my family," and on the 14th he rose, as was his wont, at five A. M., made his coffee, took leave of his family, and, with the proofs of his last work, "on a period of the Middle Ages wherein he had discovered the germ of the idea of Italian nationality," he went to the National Library in Florence to compare his text with a document discovered there, then to the Superior Institute, of which he had been one of the founders, and was ever one of the most active members. At the foot of the great staircase, feeling dizzy, he asked for a chair, sat down and died. "To-day," said Senator Massarani, "one of the most glorious of our old veterans has passed into the realms of history; the youngest heart in Italy has ceased to beat."

A complete biography in a couple of words: Michele Amari was a typical Sicilian. With robust constitution, iron frame, strengthened by toil and tempered by frugality, with active brain and passionate heart, he was a true son of the soil. Born in 1806, he obtained employment in the municipality of Palermo, spending his leisure hours and nights in the study of old documents and forgotten books. His first work, 'The Foundation of the Monarchy of the Normans in Sicily,' published when he was twenty-eight years of age, was welcomed as the promise of a rich harvest. Then followed an entirely new version of the Sicilian Vespers, drawn from original and unpublished documents. Conscious that the Bourbon King Ferdinand would not look favorably on a work calculated to inflame the passions of the islanders and revive their memories of departed liberty, Amari called his work 'A Period of Sicilian History in the XIII. Century.' It was published in Palermo. One of the earliest copies lies before us.

The book created a deep, widespread sensation. The infamous Del Carretto incensed the King by assuring him that in the person of Charles d'Anjou the author had intended to portray himself. The copies were sequestrated, the publisher thrown into prison, where he died; the author summoned to Naples. Conscious of what his fate would be if he walked into the trap, Amari preferred exile, went to Paris, and there, under its true title, republished the 'Sicilian Vespers.' It had a "clamorous" success among the Italian exiles of all provinces and parties gathered there, was translated into English (by Lord Ellesmere) and into German. Naturally, it was not satisfactory to the Chauvinists, and two Frenchmen "rendered it" in a fashion of their own, falsifying the documents and giving a quite other version of the tragedy, while Michelet, Thiers, Lenormant, and Longpérier rendered full justice to the historian in their reviews, and welcomed the exile as a prized member of their literary circles. Mazzini hailed the work as an "event," even as Guerrazzi's 'Siege of Florence,' "a book written by a man who could not fight a battle." The special novelty and value of the work lay in the proofs that the Vespers were not the result of a long-laid plot, of a conspiracy, but the outburst of popular indignation, the overflowing of the cup slowly filled to the brim by the insolence of the foreign usurpers.

Amari's tale of bygone days was addressed to the Italian slaves of the Bourbons in 1842. Six years later, it was the people of his own Palermo who flung down the gauntlet to the same Bourbon King on the 12th of January, 1848, who fought and won their mortal duel. Who can say how many hearts the author of the 'Vespers' had inspired, what swords he had sharpened? In the intervening years, from 1842 to 1848, Amari devoted himself to the study of Eastern languages, specially of the Arabic. His book had brought *fama*, not relieved *fame*, so, to satisfy hunger, he compiled catalogues for five francs per day, then commenced his history of the 'Mussulmans in Sicily,' a work even more highly esteemed by literati pure and simple than the 'Sicilian Vespers.' Step by step the author traces the Mussulman from the "great land" to the Italian peninsula, and seeks for every trace of Italian courage and virtue, putting his finger on the plague-spot of all Italy, the cause of her falling such an easy prey to thieves and bandits, adventurers, and usurpers—namely, that each State preferred the triumph of its enemies to the prosperity of another State. So Benevento fought against Salerno, Naples against Capua, and the garments of all were divided among the spoilers. When the Revolution broke out in 1848, as deputy and minister of his native island, Amari struggled to the last, then, after the bombardment of Messina, returned to Paris and his studies, with the half suspicion that Mazzini, from whom he had held aloof as "too exclusively unitarian," might after all be right in asserting that Sicily could never be free while any province of Italy remained enslaved.

In 1860 Amari, one of the most energetic promoters of the expedition of the Thousand, and created Minister of Public Instruction by Garibaldi at Palermo, acknowledged that Mazzini was right after all. In the preface to his great work, only completed in 1872, he writes:

"I began this arduous task with the heart of a Sicilian who longed for the liberty of one little State, desiring the unity of Italy without a hope that it was so near its accomplishment. I finish it with the fervent hope that the Italians will fraternize ever more among themselves, seeing that in their unity and liberty lies the safety, the honor of each and of all; that the country may grow in knowledge, wisdom, power, and wealth; that the new Rome may atone for the armed oppression of ancient Rome; and that the evil arts of the after times may yield to true liberty in worth, unlimited freedom of thought."

On the twentieth anniversary of Garibaldi's entry into Palermo, to his fellow-citizens in festival Amari wrote from Rome:

"Now that the ambition of abnegation and of combat has yielded to the thirst for wealth and ease, remember, oh citizens! what you once were, and what you became in May, 1860; remember the tyranny of the Bourbons dispersed by a breath; remember the Thousand and their Duce who grasped the hand of Victor Emanuel. Sicily, united in deed and by law as she already was by nature to the great Italian fatherland, is placed as the guardian of the southern frontiers."

Though a pure-blooded Sicilian, Michele Amari was a favorite throughout Italy. As soon as Florence was free in 1859 he was named Professor of the Arabic Language and Literature in Pisa, was among the first Italian Senators of Turin. Minister of Public Instruction in 1862, to him the country owes the first serious, uniform direction given to the higher branches of study, the collection of scientific material, the selection of the right men for the right places, to the exclusion of the elements hostile to liberty of thought and freedom of research. But political strife was alien to his nature, and when in 1864 he quitted the Ministry, he never again accepted a portfolio. Numberless are his contributions to French historical and philological reviews, to the *Archivio Storico*, the *Rivista Europea*, the *Nuova Antologia*. The Istituto di Studi Superiori of Florence was to him as the apple of his eye, Florence his second home. A member of all the scientific institutes of Europe, of the Institute of France, the Oriental Society of Germany, the Asiatic Society of London, the Historical Society of Utrecht, the Imperial Academies of Petersburg and Vienna, in 1876 he presided over the fourth Congress of the Orientalists in Florence; his bright, genial face, his cordial vivacity, warming the hearts of all who had long spoken his name with reverence. Late in life he married, and in his wife and children enjoyed for the first time the happiness of a peaceful home. Illness, weakness, the ailments of old age, kept away from him. "Only a few months since," says Professor Villari, "I found him in the Paris Library, delving with boyish eagerness among ancient documents and old chronicles for his latest work, writing to Italians, to foreigners, for dates and facts, passing from library to library with hastening steps, as though fearing to arrive too late."

A purist from his earliest years, the Italian language owes not a little to Amari. As edition after edition of his 'Vespers' was issued, in the latest (1886) he still found fresh sentences to revise, fresh words to correct.

"Let it not be forgotten," he wrote, in the last preface, "what toilsome labor was bestowed on the Italian language by the generation passing, nay, almost passed away, leaving Italy a free and great nation. Without recording the facts that relate to myself, or to the vicissitudes of my own studies, the thorns that have beset my path from boyhood to old age, I must bear witness how *down there in Sicily*, even as on the peninsula, political aspirations led us to react, among other things, *against that sort of Italian* commonly written; poor, base, weak, full of foreign words and idioms. Our zeal in waging war against the intruder may be guessed from the long list of proscribed words [foreign idioms to be discarded by Italian speakers and writers] compiled by three civil servants (poor Gaetano Darta, who is dead, Francisco Perez, and myself) of the Ministry of State in Palermo in 1835."

Among his unpublished works is a glossary of the words of Arabic origin in the Sicilian dialect.

He was a life-long adversary of popes, priests, and the Roman hierarchy. Hence, true to his convictions, he enjoined on his family to bury him with purely civic rites, and he was obeyed literally. The Syndic of Palermo, having

telegraphed the desire of the city that the body should be restored to them to rest in the Pantheon of S. Dominico, and the family consenting, the remains were embalmed on the ground floor of the Istituto Superiore, where he died, and followed to their temporary resting-place under Michael Angelo's watch-tower, on San Miniato, by the Minister of Public Instruction, representatives of Senate and Chamber of Deputies, by Ubaldino Peruzzi, who first appointed the Sicilian exile professor at Pisa; by the Syndic of Florence; by Prof. Villari, President of the Faculty of Philosophy and Philology; by the professors of all the educational establishments of Florence, and by his eldest son and throngs of Florentines, who looked upon Amari as their fellow-citizen.

A SUMMARY OF BALLOT REFORM.

BOSTON, September 1, 1889.

THE demand for ballot reform has now passed the stage of local and casual effort, and has reached the importance and dignity of a popular movement. In the coming winter its activity will be vigorously renewed, and the present seems a not unsuitable time to take account of progress made, and to note some of the characteristics of the movement. The term "ballot reform" will be used to mean any measure adopting the two principles of compulsory secret voting and official ballots.

The stage of this reform reached in the various districts of the nation may be summarized as follows: (A) Legislation enacted: Connecticut, Indiana, Kentucky (1888), Massachusetts (1888), Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Missouri, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Wisconsin; (B) bills passed, but not signed by the Governors: New York, Dakota; (C) bills rejected (*a*) in the House where first offered: California, Delaware, Illinois, Maine, New Hampshire, Ohio, Pennsylvania; (*b*) in the second House, after passing the first: Arkansas, Nebraska; (D) bills introduced, but not reached on the calendar (*a*) in the House where offered: Kansas, Oregon, Texas; (*b*) in the second House, after passing the first: Colorado, New Jersey; (E) the subject more or less discussed, but no bills introduced: Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, Vermont, West Virginia; (F) no attention given to the subject: North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia. No news has been received from Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, Nevada, Wyoming, Washington.

The laws of Connecticut and Michigan embody ballot reform very incompletely, but their enactment signified a substantial victory for the friends of reform. The Tennessee law will probably be pronounced unconstitutional, as it fails to provide for voting by illiterates, and, in addition, defies the rule against special legislation in applying to certain fixed districts only. The Kentucky statute has been held constitutional (Rogers vs. Jacob, 11 S. W. Rep. 513) in every respect except its failure to provide for illiterate voters. It applies only to Louisville, as the State Constitution requires *viva-voce* voting for State elections. In Montana a special election for aldermen has already been held in Miles City (July 26) under the new law, and the Miles City *Yellowstone Journal* says of it (July 27): "The first trial of elections under the new system has certainly proved a success." In Dakota the perpetration of a crime became necessary to defeat the movement, and the bill was stolen after passage and while on its way to the Governor. The first regular elections under the new laws will take place as follows: Montana, October 1, 1889; Connecticut, October, 1889 (municipal); Massachusetts, November 5, 1889; Tennessee, January, 1890; Minnesota, March, 1890 (municipal); Rhode Island, April 2, 1890; Wisconsin, April, 1890 (municipal); Missouri and Indiana, November 4, 1890.

Taking up the States in which the reform was directly rejected, the opinion may be ventured that the absence of a defined public opinion was responsible for the failure. In neither Arkansas, California, Delaware, Illinois, New Hampshire, nor Pennsylvania, was there an organized agitation or any considerable discussion. In Maine, where public sentiment declared itself with singular distinctness in favor of the reform, the interests of the Republican Machine, powerful enough to withstand this first shock, account for the large adverse vote. In Ohio, where there was an evident public approval of the measure, the bill failed by only three votes. It is true that in Kentucky, Minnesota, Montana, and Tennessee, the persistent efforts of a single legislator were immediately responsible for the creation of a more or less powerful public opinion; but in Connecticut, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin, the Legislature simply yielded to an irresistible popular pressure. If we note one more fact, that in no case where organized effort was made on behalf of such a measure did the people fail to appreciate and approve it, and to give pronounced support, we shall have indicated the proper course of action for friends of the reform in the future. It is, Organize, and create a public opinion. "When bad men combine," said Burke, "the good must associate; else they will fall, one by one, in a contemptible struggle." Opinion, in this country, says Mr. Bryce, prevails "more swiftly and more completely" than in any other. The moral of the past year has been, Educate the people, popularize this popular reform, and proceed to cultivate a public opinion in its favor. Then legislation must follow as speech follows thought. Ballot Leagues have been formed in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and West Virginia, and are among the possibilities in Kentucky, Missouri, and Wisconsin. Their function may be to bring about legislation, or, as in Massachusetts, to secure a fair trial for the system when adopted. There is no reason why there should not be a national association of these leagues.

In cultivating a public opinion, as in everything, there may be method, and we may notice how successfully popular petitions were employed in formulating public sentiment and in focussing it upon the legislatures. In Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Montana, and Rhode Island, petitions signed by thousands poured in upon the legislators, and served to indicate the drift of opinion in constituencies. In Indiana the Indianapolis *Sentinel* attained the same object by opening a special column for letters on the subject from all parts of the State. In the ideal popular government, as both Mr. Bryce and Prof. Sumner agree, we shall probably have discarded "those formal but occasional deliverances made at the elections of representatives"; and when once the will of the majority is made manifest, our public servants will proceed to carry it out as spontaneously and immediately as the needle responds to the magnetic influence. It is the electric effect upon legislators of numerously signed petitions (as instanced in the present movement) which forecasts the advent of this ultimate stage of democracy.

It would be interesting if we could ascertain (as in South Australia we point to Dutton, in Victoria to Nicholson, and, probably, in Rome to Gabinius) whose should be the credit of having first proposed the adoption of the Australian or the English system in this country. The first to call public attention to it seems to have been a member of the Philadelphia Civil-Service Reform Association, in 1882, in a pamphlet on "English Elections," and Mr. Henry George, in the *North American Review* for March, 1883. It is also claimed by Mr. Robert Schilling, editor of the Milwaukee *National Reformer*, that he advocated the system in his journal in 1881. However this may be, the first assault directly upon legislative ranks appears to have been made by Mr. George W. Walthew of Lansing, Mich., who, in January, 1885, introduced in the State Legislature (without success in that session) a bill founded upon the Canadian system. It was, however, the passage of the New York and Massachusetts bills in 1888 that gave the moving impulse to the present successful agitation. One of the noticeable facts in its rapid diffusion is the number of bills that were brought before the same Legislature by various persons without preconcert. In Indiana a dozen or more bills were introduced, in Connecticut nine, in California and Massachusetts four, in Illinois, Michigan, New York, and Ohio three, in Minnesota, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin two, and in most instances the various authors of these bills had acted independently and unaware of each other's undertaking.

In many cases the bills were prepared and supported by bodies representing definite political ideas (the Civil-Service Reform Association, Single Tax League, etc.), and an analysis of the objects in each case aimed at, and the various grounds upon which the cause received support in different quarters, would be profitable study if it were obtainable. A brief general indication of these objects and causes would include: (1) the purposes of the single-tax and labor associations throughout the country, and the necessity, in order to carry them out, of secret voting for evading the control of capital; (2) in the Southern and Southwestern States, partly a desire to disfranchise indirectly the illiterate negro, and partly a (more praiseworthy) desire to relieve the negro from the intimidation which, it is claimed, prevents him from deserting the Republican party; (3) in the Eastern, Central, and Northwestern States a reaction against the various forms of corruption, and a wish to root it out, beginning indirectly with ballot reform, and ending, perhaps, with a corrupt-practices act; (4) the condition of things in those States where public opinion is less active and effective (California, Kansas, Maryland, etc.), and the era of ballot-box stuffing and false returns has not yet passed away; here ballot reform is as yet less pressing than other measures, and, if adopted, will come rather as a part of a general reform based on, *e. g.*, a registration law; (5) a general desire to throw off the yoke of the machine politicians and destroy the power of the bosses; but this feeling has as yet very little strength in the West; (6) among thoughtful men everywhere a desire to see elections free from even the most subtle intimidating influences, and a satisfaction at the prospect of greater independence of thought, a lessening of party subserviency, and, in consequence, an improvement in the quality of our politics.

The two leading political parties, as may be supposed, are seen not always to have taken the same position as to this reform; their attitude has usually been determined by the local strength and inter-relations of the influences above mentioned. To give to

each its due would require a complete table of the votes of the various legislatures; but the debit and credit account of the two parties may be roughly stated thus: (*a*) in six States opposite sides were taken by the parties; in five of these the Democrats were the supporters, in one the Republicans; (*b*) in seventeen States no party lines were clearly apparent, but the party having the majority should receive the responsibility and the credit as follows: The credit for legislation belongs in six States to the Republicans, in two States to the Democrats. The responsibility for non-legislation belongs in seven States to the Republicans, in three States to the Democrats. Total score, crediting each with opponent's failures: Democrats, fourteen points, Republicans, ten points. The whole record shows how irrational it is to carry national party lines into local reforms; and doubtless, too, a new illustration for your correspondent "G. B." is somewhere hidden here.

Attention may be called, in conclusion, to two defects in our legislative systems which have been especially emphasized in the course of this agitation. One is the need of a legislative rule, as in Massachusetts, requiring every committee before the close of the session to report in some shape upon every subject referred to it. The art of infanticide as applied in committee to bills of urgent public importance is a notorious feature of Congressional practice; and in the course of the past six months was more than once applied to ballot-reform bills. What is needed is a rule such as is enforced in Massachusetts, fixing the responsibility of rejection clearly upon the members of the Legislature, enabling a measure to be brought at least once to a hearing before one branch, and lessening the temptation to "fix" a committee. The other defect is the brevity of the legislative session. In Kansas, Colorado, and Texas, where the sessions last forty, ninety, and ninety days respectively, and occur only once in two years, ballot-reform bills perished for lack of time. A desirable reform, in Legislatures thus limited, has every chance against it. Bills backed by powerful private interests, or important to this or that legislator for personal reasons, are given precedence (usually by a series of tradings) upon the calendar, and thus the brief time is exhausted. It would seem that the best working principle is: Pay the legislator an entire sum for the session, and give him sufficient time to legislate properly.

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

III. — DAGNAN-BOUVERET — AIMÉ MOROT AND ROLL—GERVEX.

PARIS, August 5, 1889.

SCARCELY any painter of the day has received greater praise or attained to higher honors than Dagnan-Bouveret. Definitively posed before the public as a young master when his now well-known picture, "The Accident," won him a medal of the first class at the Salon of 1880, he has produced in the past decade a series of pictures of incontestable excellence, all of them easel pictures (none over five or six feet long, it may be noted), and he has received as the crowning glory of a brilliant career the Medal of Honor at the Salon of this year for his picture "Breton Women at the Pardon." The international jury has also awarded him a medal of honor at the present exhibition, and it is universally conceded to be well deserved. The "Breton Women at the Pardon" cannot now be seen in Paris, for it was purchased at the Salon and has gone to Mulhouse, in Alsace, where its owner resides; but "Le Pain Bénit" (painted in 1885) and the "Horses at the Watering-Place" (painted in 1880) are to be seen at the Luxembourg gallery. "The Accident," which belongs to Mr. W. T. Walters of Baltimore, is so well known that one can call it to mind perfectly, and in the Champ de Mars are two of the painter's principal works, "La Bénédiction" (painted in 1882), for which the best English title is "The Paternal Blessing," the "Vaccination" (painted in 1883), and a picture called "The Pardon" (painted in 1887), which in subject and in general color scheme is very much like the famous picture of this year.

"Vaccination" is a work which resembles "The Accident" in subject, though it is much less sombre in color. The scene is a large room, one of the *salles* of the municipal building in a provincial town, probably, wherein are grouped—some standing, others seated on the chairs and benches against the wall—a number of mothers with their children in their arms. At the left of the picture before a window is the doctor, the personification of the traditions of the *médecin de province*, and a mother and a child, whose turn it is to submit to the dreaded operation. The picture is painted with all of Dagnan's knowledge. The sure drawing, the frank, firm modelling, the agreeable, quiet color, the exact values of tones—all are here. Were it not that the other picture, "La Bénédiction," hangs on the wall near by, we should find it entirely satisfying. Of "La Bénédiction" I can hardly say too much in praise. The scene is one of those taken from the life of the French peasantry, the blessing by the parents of a newly married couple before they leave the father's house—a simple custom, in the presentation of which the artist found a subject with a charm from the point of view of sentiment lacking in the "Vaccination" and "The Accident," and admirably suited to his talent as a painter from the plain, every-day sort of picturesqueness which exists for those who know, like him, how to bring it out without affectation or appeal to the literary sense. But, quite apart from whatever pleasure we may derive from the poetical view of this work, it is certain that Dagnan has never been more happy in the choice of a *milieu;* never has so admirably rendered, with such delicate appreciation, the subtle values of an interior lighted up, as this one is, by the full sunlight of out-of-doors, tempered by the white curtains drawn over the windows; never has conceived a more natural and at the same time effective composition; and never, in every respect, painted more truthfully or handled his material more artistically than in this admirable canvas. The young man is kneeling on the floor at the left of the picture in profile to the spectator, his bride with her veil falling over her shoulders at his right hand and a trifle in advance. The father and mother, who are standing before them still further to the left, are dressed in their Sunday black clothes, and at the back of the room, behind the long white-draped table where the wedding feast has been spread, are grouped the friends who have assisted at the ceremony—young girls in white with here and there a colored ribbon, sturdy-looking men, sunburned and brown in contrast with their white linen, and, around and about all, the warm glow of the daylight coloring the plastered walls and the wooden rafters of the ceiling with a wealth of tints of amber, opal, and blue.

There is not, I think, in the exhibition a picture by a living painter on which to found so much hope for the future of the French school as this. It is in such a picture, as in some of Bastien's work, that we must look for worthy rivals of Millet. We have here not a special talent, of which it is impossible to say what may be its worth, nor an unknown quantity like Besnard or Rafaelli, nor an eccentricity of genius like Rodin in sculpture, but something which it is possible to judge by comparison with other work, and to estimate pretty closely at its just value. If "La Bénédiction" does not prove to be one of the works of our day most held in esteem thirty years hence, it will only be because all canons of taste will have been reversed, and all appreciation of the true and the beautiful have ceased.

If I were asked to say who are the two *strongest* men among the young French painters of to-day, I should unhesitatingly name Aimé Morot and Roll. Both may be called young, though each has behind him a brilliant list of honors; Morot having begun as the Prix de Rome in 1874, with a third-class medal at the Salon of 1875, and the Medal of Honor at the Salon of 1880, and Roll, first recompensed by a third-class medal at the Salon in 1875, having gained a first-class medal in 1877. At this exhibition he receives a medal of honor. Morot is represented by five pictures. "The Good Samaritan" is, no doubt, a fine piece of painting, the nude torso of the man on the donkey supported by the Samaritan being solidly modelled and luminous to the point of brilliancy; and though in the *procédés* we are reminded of Bonnat, it is sufficiently original, and is of the very best of academic work. He appears, however, as a painter of the greatest vigor and individuality in a large picture called "Reichshofen," representing the famous charge of the Eighth and Ninth Regiments of Cuirassiers at that battle in the war of 1870-'71. It is impossible to describe the terrible rush and mad whirl of horsemen tearing over the ground in a perfect cyclone of movement. There is a foreground of steep slopes, strewn with the dead and wounded; the wild, irregular mass of cavalry, with horses leaping and men standing in the stirrups or bent forward, sabre in hand, on the horses' necks, fills the middle of the canvas; and beyond, for miles away, swathed in the smoke of battle, stretches the bare, hilly country to the horizon, with a narrow strip of sky at the very top of the picture. There is no suggestion of the academy in this; all conventions as to composition are thrown aside; there is no central group, no concentration of light, no figures posing in heroic attitudes. It is reality as far as it can be produced on canvas, and beside it even De Neuville's stirring battle-pictures seem tame. Taken in detail, it is exceedingly well done, abounding in good *morceaux*, broadly and vigorously painted throughout.

In "Toro Colante," a picture of medium size, we find an equally individual treatment of a different subject. A bull in the amphitheatre stands square in the middle of the canvas, his great neck curved and his head lowered under the weight of a horse he bears on his horns. Behind is indicated a mob of Spaniards yelling from the benches of the ring. This picture is a composition, and a handsome one. There is only the one group, the bull and the horse; the rest serves simply as a background. It is full and deep in color, without over-richness. The bull forms a mass of warm dun color, with purplish tone in the shadows, the horse a contrasting one of warm gray and white. The ensemble is harmonious, sombre, and impressive by a certain reserved sobriety of tone. In these powerful works Morot evinces a perfect knowledge of the means of art. Such knowledge is shown, without much else, in "The

Good Samaritan," where what can be learned at the École is shown by a man who has learned it all and is able to express it forcibly. In the "Reichshofen" and the "Toro Colante" he has made use of all his knowledge, but, rejecting the formulas of the schools, has applied it to the expression of action, according to a conception which, different in each picture, is as original and personal in the one as in the other.

Roll is possessed of less science, but has more the temperament of a painter, and more robustness and vigor in the painting of a *morceau*. In his "Festival of Silenus," where a half-dozen women, holding hands, are dancing under the trees in a ring around the ruddy god, there is an intense feeling for nature, and the nude bodies are painted with a full, swinging brush that does not stop to correct slight inaccuracies of form and outline. In the "Woman and Bull," a picture which has been seen in New York, there is remarkable strength, and the same ample modelling as in the women in the "Festival of Silenus," with a truer look of out-of-doors in the grayer tones of the flesh in shadow. In the "Femme Assise," a simple study of a female figure in back view, there is again a slight uncertainty of modelling in parts, but great truthfulness in the rendering of flesh and blood. In quite a different field is his "Portrait of M. Alphand," the Director-General of Works at the Exposition. A man is painted, full-length and life-size, in the strong daylight, standing in the street or road, with white walls and scaffolding behind him. It is a solid, rugged figure, well planted, and in strong relief against the light background. It is not forced nor exaggerated in values, nor is it painted with that subtle delicacy which characterizes Bastien's work, or the portrait of Mme. Toulmouche by Delaunay, which I mentioned in a former letter; but it is amazingly real. The impression is seized and fixed without hesitation. In "The Stone-yard at Suresnes," a vast canvas with many figures clad in workingmen's blue and gray and white, there is the same impression of reality, and the same vigorous, hurrying, and powerful swing of the brush. In so far as boldness and vigor may be counted as first qualities in draughtsmanship, strength and robustness as prime qualities in painting, so far Roll may be considered without a superior. He is one of those men whose individuality predominates in their work, and who could never have remained tied down to set theories and rules. Like Morot, he struck out in the open, and each, having found out his way, has pursued it with acknowledged success. They are two of the most striking figures in French art.

Henri Gervex is a man of finer mould than either of these. Thoroughly educated in the schools, he is a competent draughtsman and skilful technician. He has never been, even at his début, identified with classicism or historical painting, but plunged boldly into the modern field, the depiction of the life of to-day, at the outset. He contributes nine pictures, of which five are portraits. "Doctor Péan," a large picture, representing a scene in a hospital ward, with a young woman on the operating table, and the professor, with his assistants and students grouped about him, is one of those exceedingly clever canvases to be found in the Salon every year—a genre subject, magnified to life-size proportions; and, while a good exposition of an artist's ability to solve difficult problems in the representation on canvas of figures in light and air, and remarkable for justness of values and a look of reality, it is without interest in color or that harmony of tones to be found in smaller pictures, in Dagnan's "La Bénédiction," for example. "The Members of the Salon Jury," a portrait group of thirty or more life-size figures, is a work of the same sort, but of less interest.

What entitles Gervex to be picked out for special mention as one of the leading French painters are his two remaining pictures, "Rolla" and "La Femme au Masque." "Rolla," the subject being taken from Alfred de Musset's poem, represents Jacques Rolla standing at dawn at the open window, his head turned to look at the young girl sleeping on the white bed in the foreground of the picture. It was painted for the Salon of 1878, but the administration refused to hang it, on moral grounds. It was then exhibited in a gallery in the Chaussée-d'Antin, and attracted much attention in the world of art. Its merits were warmly discussed at the time. Ten years having passed, and the administration being, happily, more liberal (for, except the poem itself be kept in mind and the picture be looked at purely as an illustration and not as a piece of painting of the nude, there is nothing in the least objectionable about it even for the ultra-prudish), we are able to compare it with the best painting of the nude figure the decade has produced, and to form a definite judgment of its merits. I think it no more than the picture deserves to say it is the best thing in its class in the entire exhibition. This is true, too, in spite of the fact that there are details in the drawing which may be found fault with. The hypercritical insist on this point, but the drawing is very good as a whole, and sufficient. As painting it is a marvel. Nothing could be simpler in modelling; the passages from the half-tints to the full light (for there is no part of the figure actually in shadow) are delicately felt, the flesh is admirable in color, the *pâte* full and even, the ensemble pure and luminous. Not much more praise can be given to the best painting of the nude in existence, but this beautiful figure charms us, by its subtle grace and tender color, as we are charmed before the work of the masters.

Though Gervex is still a young man and in his full development, we may well doubt whether he will ever again produce a work equal to this. If we look at the "Femme au Masque," painted several years later, we shall be strengthened in our doubts, for though it is a gracious figure and one of the best pieces of painting of the nude we shall find here, it has not the subtlety of the other, and in color it is far from being so fine. It is, withal, refined in type, and as to drawing it is quite up to the best; but the flesh tones incline to pinkishness, and it is less luminous and just a trifle "painty." Be that as it may, we shall have to go to the Retrospective Exhibition to find anything to compare to Gervex in painting the nude.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

A COLONEL OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

PARIS, August 9, 1889.

THERE is quite a large literature of works on the wars of the Revolution and of the Empire, and this literature is increasing every day. It was natural that the chiefs of the army should appear at the head of this military literature: such are the memoirs of Napoleon, of Marmont, of Gouvion St.-Cyr, of Jomini. In our day we have a curiosity to know the impressions of those who were at the other end of the hierarchy, and I have noticed in their time the memoirs of Captain Coignet, who was the type of the soldier of the First Empire. These memoirs have had so much success that they have been illustrated, which is always a mark of great popularity.

I have now before me the memoirs of a colonel of artillery, Pion des Loches, just published by Firmin-Didot, under the title, 'My Campaigns.' Pion was born in Pontarlier, in Franche-Comté, on February 20, 1770; he was one of seven children, and was destined for the Church. He was tonsured at the age of thirteen, and entered in 1789 the Seminary of Besançon. The French Revolution upset all his projects; he was obliged to take the oath to what was called the civil constitution of the clergy and to leave off the ecclesiastical costume. Fortunately for him, he had only taken the minor orders; three times he escaped the requisitions which called the French young men to the army by paying for substitutes, but finally he was drafted in the *levée en masse* and placed in one of the battalions of his countrymen. The clerical education which he had received had little prepared him for military life; it had, however, given him a strong sense of duty, a love of virtue, a sense of humanity, and a certain habit of public speaking which never left him; and it was with him as with Renan, who says that he has never lost what he received in his education at Saint-Sulpice.

In November, 1793, we find Pion in a village on the Rhine. "I don't look very military in a great fur cap with a fox's tail, long moustachios, a pipe in my mouth, a fifteen days' beard, a coat called carmagnole—such is my costume. I don't know myself." On the Swiss frontier, where he was a little later, "our service consisted in patrolling on Sundays so as to hinder the inhabitants from going to mass in the territory of Soleure. We had orders to take them before the administration, as liable to the penalty reserved for the émigrés—that is to say, the pain of death. Such a service revolted us, but we were in connivance with our hosts, and we only began to patrol in the morning after they had left, and in the evening after they had come back."

Disgusted with this life, Pion tried to enter the school of artillery at Châlons-sur-Marne, but he arrived there too late for the examination, and he was allowed to enter the Fifth Artillery, a well-organized and disciplined regiment. He took part soon afterwards in some military operations, and left the regiment for the school at Châlons, where he learned all that was necessary to become an officer of artillery. He obtained his brevet and was sent to Strasbourg. He immediately made his début at Kehl, which was then besieged. Every other day new men were sent from Strasbourg to Kehl.

"'Here I was free to fire for forty-eight hours with eight guns. I went up the parapet to see the batteries of the enemy, but the fog was so thick that I did not even see the covered way. Nevertheless, besieged and besiegers fired without interruption; it was the habit. We did not receive a single shell, and I concluded that my bastion was not in the front of the attack.' On the 1st of January, 1797, at twelve, Pion was relieved, after having burnt, probably in vain, 1,400 pounds of powder, and made more noise than he accomplished work."

I cite these lines, as they show the manner of Pion, his sincerity and candor. He does not pretend to be a hero, he performs his duty wherever he is placed.

In his new capacity of lieutenant he went to Switzerland and Italy. We cannot follow him at Berne, Zofingen, Mt. Saint Bernard, Milan, Cremona, in the retreat through Turin to Grenoble. During this retreat he says of himself: "I must have been born under a happy star. I walked almost alone through a country in which the French army was destroyed in detail.

I saw more than one corpse of an assassinated soldier."

Napoleon, then First Consul, avenged the defeat of the French arms in Italy, and made his famous winter expedition via the Saint Bernard. Pion entered Italy by way of Mt. Genèvre. This time his service took him to Genoa, to Alexandria, before Peschiera, which was besieged and taken. On his return to France he was sent to Metz. We find a note written in this town on the Concordat on the 10th of April, 1802:

"I am sure the Concordat will not please everybody. It is consoling for pious souls, and it is a very clever political move on the part of the First Consul, who will find in religion the most solid basis of his authority. To-day, Easter Day, we have buried the *décade;* we have had enough of it. Though the law which substitutes Sunday for it is not yet published, the Commandant has given the regiment complete rest. I do not know whether they will reëstablish the *aumôniers* in the regiments; my comrades laugh at me and want me to become theirs."

Pion was made captain in 1803. He was at the camp of Boulogne when Bonaparte threatened to invade England, and his impression was that the artillery never succeeded in doing any harm to the English navy; it was always firing at too great a distance: "I saw thousands of shells thrown, and not two happy hits." He received the cross of the Legion of Honor at the great ceremony which Napoleon, now become Emperor, celebrated in the camp. "The united army amounted to more than 60,000 men. The Emperor, in the uniform of his Guard, was on a throne round which were the flags which he had taken from the enemy in Italy and in Egypt. Round him were the princes, the great dignitaries, and the marshals. The Bishops of Cambrai, Arras, and Ghent, as well as 20,000 officers, received the decoration from the hand of the Emperor."

The army of Boulogne soon took the road for Germany, and the rapidity of its march was much admired. It seems that the soldiers were delighted to turn their backs on England:

"There was not one who would not have preferred to go to the end of Siberia rather than undertake the English expedition. The march in Germany was like the moving of a tornado. One day Marshal Soult, with whom Pion was marching, stopped two merchants of Augsburg, travelling in a postchaise. 'When did you leave Augsburg?' 'This morning.' 'Were there any Austrians in your city? have their scouts entered it?' 'No, sir.' 'Well, I am going there. If I find a single Austrian, I will have you shot at the gate of the town.' The postchaise turns round, the two Augsburgers are made to march bare-headed in the rain at the head of the corps d'armée, and all the officers of the staff find much justice in the decision of his Excellency [the Emperor's marshals were styled Excellencies and addressed as Monseigneur], who speaks of shooting these two men as if an Austrian troop could not have entered Augsburg since their departure."

To do justice to Pion, he was humane, and such proceedings inspired him with horror; he never inflicted any unnecessary punishment on anybody, never allowed any act of cruelty or wanton destruction, but his diary gives us too ample proofs of the horrors of war and of invasion. Gen. Vandamme tried in vain to hinder pillage. "In going through Ems, I saw Gen. Vandamme, one of our division generals, in a great fury; he had a man shot, at the head of the division, who had his knapsack full of stolen silver. Had he exercised as much severity towards all the men of his division, he would not have had men enough left to form his escort." Some generals set the worst example, and their carriages were full of stolen effects; they made unnecessary requisitions, and accepted composition in money from the local authorities.

Pion was at Austerlitz.

"After eighty-six days' marching here we are in the centre of Moravia; we have Hungary on our right, Bohemia on the left, and if we go forward we shall arrive at Austrian Silesia and Galicia. All these countries are barbarous; those among us who know German are not understood; the populations want even the necessaries of life. . . . I have sometimes been on horseback from six o'clock in the morning until night without any other nourishment than a little bread and a little brandy, which I had in my pockets. My corps d'armée had to fight five times. Are we approaching the end?"

Every army is a mixture of virtue and vice. Pion cannot speak well enough of his general, La Riboisière, who always shared everything with his officers and men, who always slept on straw, and "who set an example of all the virtues." He is very irate with many others.

"Bavaria," he says, "which we were said to be delivering from the Austrians, has suffered more than Austria. Everywhere the unfortunate peasants left their houses, the soldiers broke the furniture and took it to the camp, where you could see beds, mattresses, mirrors; they burned the houses; the number of *traînards* [stragglers] was immense. I don't know how the corps d'armée could live where other troops had already passed. The first destroyed everything—wine was flowing in the cellars, flour was spread about in the houses; the officers could not hinder it. It was a horrible disorder. An honest and tender-hearted man is not made for the profession of arms in the present century."

If such are the complaints of Pion in the Austrian campaign, and afterwards in the campaign in Prussia, you can easily imagine what they became in the famous Russian campaign and in the retreat of the French army from Moscow. His account of this terrible drama constantly recalled to me Tolstoi's famous novel 'War and Peace.' We find in it the same precision in the details, we see what military glory is made of, we see ambition at war not only with men, but with the natural elements, with destiny. The impression is very powerful, and what we find besides in Pion's journal is the spectacle of human selfishness—men reduced to the state of brutal savages by hunger and cold, lying for a crust of bread, concealing a little liquor from those who yesterday were their best friends, debased by misfortune, with the exception of a few heroes—more saints than heroes—who, in the worst of times, never forgot the divine precept: "Love thy neighbor as thyself."

Pion's military career ended after this terrible campaign in Russia. He became a Colonel in the Imperial Guard; he had no enthusiasm or affection for the Emperor, and had always remained a Royalist at heart. In 1814, after having fired his guns for the defence of the Empire, he accepted with pleasure the new régime, and took Napoleon at his word when he said, in his adieu at Fontainebleau, "Be faithful to the new King whom France has chosen." He would certainly have become a General under the Bourbons, but his Russian campaign had much impaired his health, and he died prematurely with the rank of Colonel at the age of forty-nine years, on the 27th of April, 1819.

Correspondence.

THE GRAND RAPIDS POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There appeared in the *Nation* of August 1 a letter from Mr. F. W. Ball, editor of the *Democrat* of this city, criticising the report of the Civil-Service Commission on the Grand Rapids Post-office and the remarks of the *Nation* on the report. We have nothing to do with Postmaster Blair's contention with the Commission except in so far as Mr. Ball, in his zeal to defend Mr. Blair and make him out a civil-service reformer, has left the impression that there have been no changes in the force of the office on account of politics, but that all changes were made either for cause or by voluntary resignation. This casts a direct reflection on us, and on this we desire a hearing.

Mr. Ball, in his letter, says: "Not a single change has been made in the personnel of the office for political reasons. I do not believe any post-office in the country can give a better record from a civil-service-reform standpoint than can the Grand Rapids Post-office under the management of Mr. Blair."

The facts are, that every one of the subscribers to this letter was notified by Mr. Blair, either personally or by his assistant, that his resignation would be accepted, and every one of us assured by Mr. Blair personally that our work was entirely satisfactory. Furthermore, he said to some of us plainly, and to others he just as plainly intimated, that our politics was the sole reason for asking us to resign. He spoke in every instance of party pressure as compelling the step.

Mr. Ball is a warm personal friend of Mr. Blair, and his zeal for Mr. Blair's retention has led him to do us an injustice.

We subscribe after our names the positions formerly held.

Malcolm M. Moore,
Cashier and Chief of Registry Division.
William S. Earle,
Superintendent of Carriers.
W. H. Loomis, Money-Order Clerk.
Charles B. Richmond, Mail-Carrier.
C. W. Moore, Mail-Carrier.
Myron E. Purie, Superintendent of Carriers.
L. D. Stewerd, Clerk of Registry Division.

Grand Rapids, Mich., August 14, 1889.

PRESIDENT HARRISON AND THE NEW-MEXICO SURVEYOR-GENERALSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: New Mexico has for years been the theatre of the most outrageous "land steals" that ever disgraced a government. The numerous Spanish and Mexican grants with which the Territory was encumbered, and the difficulty of ascertaining their true limits, have made it a place shunned by honest settlers and a perfect paradise for thieves. Men like Elkins and Dorsey, who had made immense fortunes here, saw in the former Republican administrations no check put to their operations, and naturally looked forward to a long reign of plunder and rapine.

In May, 1885, President Cleveland sent Geo. W. Julian of Indiana to New Mexico as Surveyor-General. Since the final abolition of slavery the one question of absorbing interest to Mr. Julian had been the land question, and his speeches and review articles had made his name familiar in this connection. His early championship of the homestead policy was also known, and his appointment was hailed with delight by the masses here, and regarded by the land-grabbers as a direct slap in the face. They at once resolved to defeat his confirmation by the Senate, and were so far successful that he was not confirmed till March, 1887, nearly two years after his appointment. For this, Democrats and Republicans were perhaps equally to blame, for the rogues are assuredly not all of one party.

In March, 1887, therefore, Mr. Julian was commissioned to serve as Surveyor-General of New Mexico for four years. Immediately

after General Harrison's election, however, the old clamor against an officer who refused to be used was revived, and the new President was scarcely inaugurated when strong pressure was brought to bear on him to remove Mr. Julian. No charges of any kind were filed, but it was urged that he was not a resident of the Territory and not interested in its advancement and settlement. He had examined and reported on hundreds of grant cases, and pointed out the way to recover millions of acres of land for the people; but if his policy should be carried out, the Dorseyites and Elkinsites would lose much of their ill-gotten gains. Hence the demand for his official scalp. Time wore on, however, and no change was made. It looked as if President Harrison would stand by his pledges in one instance at least. But on the 5th of August Mr. Julian was removed, and a Mr. Hobart of Las Vegas, N. M., was appointed to succeed him. No one knows who Mr. Hobart is except that he is a dealer in ice. The general belief is that he is somebody's man. Mr. Julian wrote at once to a superior officer in Washington, inquiring the cause for his removal, and was informed that it was "for political reasons." H. W.

Santa Fé, August 20, 1889.

WOMAN-BURNING IN ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If "E. W. H." will be content with but a single case of English woman-burning, he need go no further than the familiar one of the Witch of Eye, Margery Jourdemayn (or Jordeine, Jordan, as Holinshed and Shakespeare write her name), in 1441. The most explicit of the contemporary accounts of her fate, however—as that in the chronicle ascribed to William Gregory, Mayor of London, "On Syn Simon and Jude ys eve was the wycche be syde Westemyster brent in Smethefylde," or that in the "English Chronicle written before 1471" edited by Davies for the Camden Society, "Wherfore, and also for cause of relaps, the same wicche was brend in Smythfeld, in the vigily of Saint Simon and Jude"—are scarcely more full than Shakespeare's "The Witch in Smithfield shall be burnt to ashes." And, if he wishes to revel in such horrors, he has but to trace the work of the statute *De hæretico comburendo* and its post-Reformation substitutes, as recounted by Fox and the rest of the martyrologists. From many instances like that of old Joan Boughton, in 1494, who, "in the midst of the fire, cried to God," it is clear that the victims, women and men alike, were burned alive.

But all these cases were of ecclesiastical cognizance; that of the Witch of Eye not less than those of the heretics—for, as I pointed out in a former letter, Henry IV. in 1407 committed the crime of sorcery to the care of the bishops, and theirs it remained till in 1541 the statute of Henry VIII. restored it to the civil courts.

> "I come before the spiritualité:
> Two cardynals and byshoppis fyve,"

mourns the accomplice of Margery Jordan, Dame Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester, in the lament which a contemporary verse-writer has put in her mouth. It is hardly fair, therefore, to say without explanation, as do some authorities (*e. g.*, Du Boys), that the English common law punished witchcraft by the stake. With nearly as much justice, indeed, might the trial of Joan of Arc, in 1431, be laid at the door of English law; for, though the tribunal which judged her was a French ecclesiastical one, it was only in pursuance of the English provision that the clergy had jurisdiction at all, the Parlement of Paris having in 1390 taken all French cases of witchcraft into secular hands. It is true that a marginal note on a Cambridge manuscript of Britton declares that, though the investigation of cases of sorcery belongs to "the inquirers of Holy Church," yet, "if the king by inquest find any persons guilty of such horrible sin, he may put them to death, as a good marshal of Christendom"; and there is record, before the fifteenth century, of several cases at common law. But all of which we have mention seem to have resulted in acquittal. Only when they had been convicted, like heretics, under the canon law, do we know the common law to have actually burned them.

But "E. W. H." need not put up with such equivocal instances: I have dwelt on them only to show that burning for witchcraft was never properly English. Woman-burning, alas, was common enough under the criminal law of England. Burning was a penalty for many crimes—for treason, including husband-murder and what not, as well as for arson; and that "ghastly gallantry" which has struck several of your correspondents in the procedure of the New England courts began very early in English history. One tenth-century law even went so far as to prescribe not only that the female offender—the crime in this case was theft by a slave—should be burned, while the male was only stoned, but that the penalty should be inflicted by women, eighty of whom should attend, each bearing a log for the fire. The punishment of a woman for treason (and this included so-called treason to the master or to the husband) continued to be burning long after that penalty had been abolished for other crimes, even for heresy. The latest case known to Pike is that of Mary Bayley, who, for killing her husband, was burned at Portsmouth on Monday, March 8, 1784. The origin of this strange discrimination between the sexes is hard to guess. Pike thinks it a relic of the subjection of women, and instances as analogous the Roman treatment of slaves, who, in like manner, were burned for crimes which brought lighter punishment to the freeman.

But in all these cases under the secular law it seems to have been the custom, as "E. W. H." points out, to inflict death before burning. On the Continent this mercy lay often in the discretion of the court; and a condition of its granting was not seldom the confession of the crime. In this case, and in case there had been no aggravating circumstances, the prisoner was suffered, after sentence had been pronounced, to fall on his knees before the court and humbly crave its forbearance; whereupon the court of its mercy instructed the executioner to strangle or behead before burning. "Geduldig und christlich strangulirt, und der Corper zu Eschen verbrent," is the phrasing of a German sixteenth-century record that lies before me. And this hope was one of the most powerful levers in producing those "voluntary" confessions which still puzzle so many honest folk.

Had not the printer improved upon the manuscript of my former letter by the omission of a comma, it would not have been possible for your correspondent Mr. Weston-Smith to so far misunderstand me as to suppose I meant to ascribe to the Puritans of New England the invention of that retaliation-in-kind for arson which is perhaps older than criminal legislation itself. Certainly this "kind of *lex talionis*" antedates the time of Edward I., when Blackstone first discovers it in operation, by far more than that epoch does the Puritan one. I spoke of arson in general, and of its time-honored penalty. It is notable that, for this particular crime, English law, so late as Britton's time at least, made no distinction between the sexes. The changed usage followed by our Massachusetts forefathers was perhaps due to the strange law of Henry VI., in 1429, by which, to discourage blackmailing threats, arson was made high treason.

After writing thus far, I discover that Dr. George H. Moore has discussed, with his usual conscientious scholarship, the question of witch-punishment at the hands of English law in his 'Notes on the History of Witchcraft in Massachusetts.' G. L. B.

The White Library, Cornell University,
August 17, 1889.

A LAST WORD ON THE EXCAVATIONS AT DELPHI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As some misconceptions seem to exist in regard to the relations and action of the various parties interested to promote the exploration of Delphi, and as many inquiries have been addressed to me, since the publication in the *Nation* of August 1 of the letter of Mr. Stillman, as to the weight of his assertions that he could "state facts which would show that the American School has really no chance of getting the concession under circumstances which would permit us in common decency to accept it, if at all," and that "scientific morality absolutely forbids us to move any further in this matter until the French are out of the way," I request you to allow me to lay before your readers a statement of the facts which have determined the Archæological Institute to endeavor to secure the concession. I do this reluctantly, for even a seeming controversy is to be regretted in a matter in which the interests of knowledge only should be concerned, and in which national jealousies and personal considerations should have no part.

In order to make the whole affair clear, the narrative must begin at some distance back. For some years past the Greek Government have been endeavoring to negotiate a commercial treaty with France, and as, under this treaty, certain important advantages would be secured for Greece, the Administration coupled with it as a makeweight a convention conceding to the French the right to investigate the site of Delphi. The two instruments were ratified by the Greek Chamber. In France the treaty was rejected by the Senate, and, for the time, much to the disappointment of the Greeks, the matter fell to the ground.

In 1887 it was again taken up; a new treaty was negotiated with some modifications, but with the convention in regard to Delphi attached to it. It was brought before the French Senate, and in its turn was rejected. This rejection took place near the end of last year.

At this time our able and excellent Minister at Athens, Mr. Fearn, understanding that the arrangement with the French had failed, asked the Prime Minister of Greece, Mr. Tricoupis, whether the concession of the right to excavate at Delphi was now open. Mr. Tricoupis assured him that it was, but added that the expense attending the expropriation of the village of Castri, which stands upon the site of the ancient city, would be very heavy, and might prove an obstacle to the undertaking of the work. At the time when the treaty was being discussed, the French School at Athens had placed its estimate of the cost of buying out the village at 40,000 drachmai. The Greek Government, regarding this estimate as much less than the actual cost would prove to be, promised, as another inducement to secure the adoption of the treaty, to pay the expense of dispossession up to 60,000 drachmai, the remainder, whatever it might be, to be met by

the French. It further employed an engineer to make a survey of the site and an estimate of the cost of expropriation. The probable cost was fixed by him at 500,000 drachmai. Not satisfied, however, with this, the Government then had the whole survey and estimates revised by a commission of French engineers in their service. The probable cost was set by them at 430,000 drachmai. The aim of the Government was to learn the facts as exactly as possible, in order to secure a basis for arbitration between the investigators and the proprietors at Delphi.

Mr. Fearn reported what he had learned, in letters to persons in this country whom he knew to be interested in promoting the study of antiquity, and who would recognize the splendor of the work to be done at Delphi. Moved by his statements, a committee was appointed at a meeting that had been summoned by Bishop Potter, and charged with the duty of endeavoring to obtain means to provide a permanent fund for the support of the school at Athens, and to secure for it the privilege of making excavations at Delphi. This committee, composed of gentlemen of the highest distinction in New York, was actively engaged in its work when a letter from Mr. Stillman appeared in your columns (the *Nation*, March 28), asserting (I have not the letter at hand to refer to, but I believe I do not misrepresent its purport) that if the promoters of the undertaking on the part of America understood correctly the position of affairs, they could not pursue the work; that the claims of the French were still morally valid; and that our interference in the business was unjustifiable. This letter, coming from a person who might be supposed to be not only well informed, but likely to be well disposed to the undertaking of any honorable task by his countrymen, naturally awakened public doubt in regard to the propriety of the enterprise, and impeded the work of the Committee.

It happened that when this letter reached Athens, Prof. Hale of Cornell University and Prof. Palmer of Harvard were there. It led them to make inquiries at headquarters regarding the foundation of its assertions, and at the end of April Prof. Hale addressed to me a letter, approved by Prof. Palmer, containing the result of their careful investigations and of conversations with Mr. Tricoupis. In a subsequent letter Prof. Palmer summed up their conclusions as follows:

"The French are now entirely out of account. They will not obtain the concession even if we refuse it. The Greeks, whether wisely or unwisely, saw fit to try to obtain a certain commercial treaty by coupling with it an archæological privilege. The treaty has been twice rejected, and the whole temper of French legislation is against it. The Greeks cannot now with self-respect grant as a free privilege what they before treated as a condition.

"By any sum we pay for the expropriation of the peasant village at Delphi the Greek Government will gain nothing, and cannot therefore be supposed to be dealing with us in a jockeying spirit. That the amount suggested by Mr. Tricoupis as probable is not excessive, is evident from this, that it is the estimate of French engineers who have carefully surveyed the ground.

"The Greek Government look with a favorable eye on the introduction of Americans in this way into the land. It will be more for her advantage to have us do the work at Delphi than to do it herself.

"These considerations seemed to Mr. Hale and me entirely to set aside the reasonings of Mr. Stillman."

In the *Nation* of May 9 appeared a letter from Dr. Waldstein, one of the directors of the school, presenting other considerations in reply to Mr. Stillman.

In view of all the circumstances of the case, the Council of the Institute, at its annual meeting on the 12th of May, resolved to proceed with the work, provided the means for doing so could be obtained. They appointed a committee to prepare an appeal to the public, and to take other requisite steps. The Committee have done so, and the appeal will shortly be issued.

I believe that this bare statement of facts affords a sufficient answer to the main assertions of Mr. Stillman in the letter published in the *Nation* of August 1. It is not necessary to deal with his insinuations of bad faith on the part of the Greek Government, but it may perhaps be desirable to point out that there is no ground for his assumption that any discourtesy has been shown to the French School, or any lack of consideration for its just claims.

It is natural that the French should feel not merely regret, but irritation also, at the loss of the opportunity to perform the most splendid piece of exploration on classical ground that remains to be accomplished. But they have no right to play the part of the dog in the manger. They have no preëmption on the soil of Delphi. The Germans, if it comes to a question of priority, have the earliest claim. Karl Otfried Müller, with his pupil Ernst Curtius, were the first to do good work on the ground. Such work as has been done there since by individual members of the French School has been fragmentary and open to serious criticism. Moreover, in the year 1876, long before the proposal of a concession to France, our Minister to Athens, Gen. John Meredith Read, was asked to sound the Greek Government as to whether the privilege of excavating Delphi would be granted to Americans. He received a wholly favorable reply. The means for the work could not then be obtained. There was no organization for the purpose, and the matter was allowed to drop. But this was one of the motives that led to the foundation of the Archæological Institute in 1879, and the hope to be able finally to do this great work has never ceased to be cherished by it.

Your obedient servant,

CHARLES ELIOT NORTON,

President of the Archæological Institute of America.

ASHFIELD, MASS., August 16, 1889.

Notes.

THE Rev. A. K. Glover, B.Sc., Ph.D., will shortly publish a small volume entitled 'The Jews of the Far East, or the Jews of the Extreme Eastern Diaspora,' with the original Chinese texts of the inscriptions discovered at Kai-fung-fû.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish 'Fact, Fancy, and Fable,' a cyclopædic work by H. F. Reddall; and 'Opening the Oyster,' a story of adventure, by Chas. L. Marsh.

A new, revised and enlarged edition of Anne Ayres's 'Life of Dr. Muhlenberg' will be brought out directly by Thomas Whittaker.

In a late issue of their "Nuggets Series," called 'The Ideals of the Republic,' the Messrs. Putnam grouped the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, Washington's two Inaugurals and Farewell Address, and Lincoln's two and his Gettysburg Address. Perhaps a demand for this handy compilation in a less dainty and costly form has led the publishers to issue 'Great Words from Great Americans' (the sub-title of the former volume), using the same plates with a bold typography, but inserting Washington's circular letter of congratulation and advice to the Governors of the thirteen States. In all respects except the elaborateness of the binding, the new and slightly larger edition is equal to the old. With the foregoing we receive a fresh Nuggets volume, an excellent selection of four of Heinrich Zschökke's 'Tales.' The last, "Walpurgis Night," we are told, has never been published in English before.

Mr. S. G. Owen's critical edition of Ovid's 'Tristia' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is the most complete and valuable "apparatus" for the study of this work that has ever appeared. The editor has personally collated twenty-eight manuscripts, and has had the good fortune to discover, in the Bodleian, Politian's copy of the Parma edition of 1477, with his marginal collations—a volume long supposed to be lost. The book is illustrated with facsimile pages of the Marcianus and Turonensis manuscripts.

In the second edition of Dr. Robinson Ellis's 'Commentary on Catullus' (Clarendon Press), especial stress is laid on our obligations to the scholars of the Renaissance for their work towards restoring the true Catullian text. Although Dr. Ellis thinks that disappointingly little has been effected in this direction since that period, he by no means neglects to consider the work of modern scholars, while his own services as an expositor of the poet are too well recognized to call for further mention here.

Several distinctly medical books have found their rather inappropriate way to our table. Of these the seventh volume of the 'International Medical Annual,' 1889 (E. B. Treat & Co.), is a really good summary of recent medical progress—progress meaning apparent advance in some directions and the burial of new hopes in others. The most interesting of its papers to general readers, and one of considerable intrinsic importance, is that on "Diseases of Women in Relation to Dress," by J. W. Taylor of Birmingham. In it he not merely points the old moral as to insufficient airspace from tight lacing, but assigns to the unnatural compression by the clothes of the civilized woman such consequences, more or less remote, as anæmia or deficiency of good blood, gastric ulcer, gall stones, and that very curious affection, movable kidney. Unlike some critics, he does not destroy without presenting a practicable remedy, for which the essay should be consulted.

As good an example as one could wish of the purely academic work produced in France under the influence of the French Academy and its elaborate system of prize essays is M. David Sauvageot's 'Le Réalisme et le Naturalisme dans la littérature et dans l'art' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), which is a good, honest, solid specimen of journeyman work without a particle of inspiration or a flash of insight. Perhaps its chief use to us here is that its abundant footnotes constitute a sort of bibliography to the frequent French essays on the subject. At bottom M. David Sauvageot's conclusions seem to us thoroughly sound.

The promised pamphlet, 'Inscriptions on Tombstones in Milford, Conn., erected prior to 1800,' has been published, and is obtainable of Mr. Dwight E. Bowers, Box 595, New Haven. Mr. Nathan G. Pond has transcribed the epitaphs line for line, and added brief genealogical notes concerning the persons thus commemorated on 470 stones. Some of the stones are pictured from photographs. The publication is in every way creditable, except that an index has been forgotten—a strange oversight.

The Rev. Edmund F. Slafter of Boston has printed privately his curious paper on 'Royal Arms and Other Regal Emblems and Memorials in Use in the Colonies before the American Revolution,' read last January before the Massachusetts Historical Society. It deals with geographical names, names of streets and inns, newspaper vignettes, etc. Mr. Slafter has discovered extant only six of the royal arms in use before the Revolution, and is able to picture five of these, including two that have been transferred to churches in New Brunswick. The first figured is at once the crudest and most interesting of them all, for it remains *in situ* in St. James's Church, Goose Creek, near Charleston, S. C. It was in plaster, fastened by leaden bands, and escaped all the ravages of war, foreign and civil; but the earthquake of August 31, 1886, quite destroyed it, and its restoration depended on a copy in oil made for Mr. Slafter before that event. It is now booked for another century.

With the recurrence of August in the calendar appears the pamphlet Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in the preceding year—viz., those of the thirty-seventh meeting held last August at Cleveland. The most significant paper printed in full is President Langley's address, a summary sketch of the growth of the doctrine of radiant heat. Peculiar to this issue is a list of deceased (active) members from the beginning, with dates of birth and death.

The eighth annual report of the Dante Society announces that "a number of gentlemen connected in various ways with Harvard University, stimulated by the appearance of Prof. Fay's work ['Concordance of the Divina Commedia']," have undertaken a concordance of the 'Vita Nuova' and the "Canzoniere." This is likely to be accomplished within a year, and hope is held out of publication through the Society. The pamphlet contains the usual Dante bibliography, for the year 1888, by William C. Lane; and a prize essay, by George R. Carpenter, on "The Episode of the Donna Pietosa," an attempted harmony of the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'Convito.'

The editors of the new *American Amateur Photographer* (Brunswick, Me.), Messrs. F. C. Beach and W. H. Burbank, are quite right in offering their "provincial" publication for comparison with any of their "contemporaries published under seemingly more favorable conditions." In fact, the two numbers before us (July, August) are distinguished by tastefulness and accuracy of typography and by excellence of make-up. There is nothing amateurish about either. The book reviews, and the criticism of commercial supplies after practical tests, are capital features. The reports of societies, special correspondence, contributed papers, etc., are full and valuable. Illustrations by process and photogravure are given. It marks the growth of amateur photography that a number of hotels keep "dark-rooms" for the use of tourist amateurs, some "with running water." The journal makes a very promising beginning. For convenience' sake, a New York office has been opened at 22 Burling Slip.

The *English Historical Review* for July is an interesting number. The first article is by Judge William O'Connor Morris, "The War of 1870-1: After Sedan"—the sequel to a previous article. Its aim appears to be to do justice to "the extraordinary powers of which Chanzy gave proof, the remarkable skill shown by Faidherbe, and the energy, misplaced as it often was, of Gambetta"—qualities too much ignored by the German writers. "Recent Criticisms upon the Life of Savonarola," by E. Armstrong, expresses the opinion that, with all the high merit of Villari's work, "the life of the friar as a figure in secular history has yet to be written." Prof. Cyril Ransome, author of one of the best of the short histories of England, gives a lucid account of the battle of Towton, with a plan, the fruit of studies upon the spot. "The Lords of Chios," the subject of an article by J. Theodore Bent, were a company of Genoese merchants who, having advanced a *mahone*, or special loan, to the republic, ruled the island under the authority of Genoa from 1346 to 1566. The closing article is by Rev. W. A. B. Coolidge, "The Republic of Gersau." Travellers in Switzerland will perhaps remember the village, at the foot of the Rigi, which was once an independent republic —"probably the smallest state which has ever had such extensive rights." During the existence of the Swiss Confederacy, before its overthrow in 1798, Gersau was "an acknowledged and independent ally of the four districts which formed the inner circle and nucleus of the Everlasting League"; and at present, although annexed to the canton of Schwyz, it still preserves its communal autonomy. The "Notes and Documents" and "Reviews of Books" contain, as usual, much very valuable matter.

The place of honor in the Royal Geographical Society's Proceedings, as well as in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, for August is given to Dr. Nansen's spirited account of his adventurous journey across Greenland. The former also publishes the interesting discussion which took place after the reading of the paper before the society by such Arctic veterans as Admirals McClintock and Ommanney, Sir Allen Young, and Dr. Rae. This is followed by a paper, with a map, showing the distribution of the mountain tribes in northern Morocco, by W. B. Harris. This gentleman, having established friendly relations with the Sherif of Wazan, has been able to travel with safety in regions where Europeans have rarely, if ever, penetrated. The mountaineers are better off than the lowland Moors, as they are practically independent of the Sultan. There is also an account of a successful attempt to establish communication between the rich mining regions of northern Bolivia and Peru with the Amazons, other than by the Madeira, by a Brazilian named Labre. The route taken appears to have been through a region almost wholly unexplored. At one point they came upon a tribe whose "men wear their hair long, plaited like the Chinese," and have on "girdles and petticoats." In another tribe "some of the women are light-colored and have traces of beauty: none are allowed to enter a temple or to take part in the religious or fetish ceremonies, and it is forbidden to them to know the names or the forms of the idols. The idols are not of human form, but are geometrical figures made of wood and polished." The second article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is by Dr. John Murray, of the *Challenger*, on the marine deposits in the Indian and adjacent oceans, accompanied by a colored map showing their distribution. This magazine also gives an excellent portrait of Dr. Nansen, who is a young man of twenty-seven, with a strongly-marked face.

Parts 23-28 of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst' (Berlin: G. Grote; New York: Westermann) conclude the division Industrial Art, and contain instalments of Painting and of Etching and Wood-Engraving. There are many illustrations of German painting, and a special chapter is devoted to the Age of Dürer and Holbein, wherein we remark two interesting pen-drawings by Dürer, one as a boy of fourteen and the other a youth of twenty-three. Dr. von Lützow's discourse on engraving is accompanied by some very fine copies of early etchings. Some of the colored plates of these instalments are noticeably good, as those which illustrate color-work in glass.

—The September *Atlantic* is most notable for its articles upon public questions. The reasons against the assumption of exclusive American control over the Isthmus Canal are stated with great vigor by Stuart F. Weld, in a paper which reviews the diplomatic negotiations with the Colombian Government and the action of the Senate in regard to the matter, and brings this episode of recent Republican history into comparison with the political ideal involved in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The author holds that exclusive American control is a new and retrogressive doctrine, which would result in a wrongful aggression upon the sovereignty of Colombia, inconsistent with the practice of nations in this half-century, and which would, furthermore, afford less stable security for ourselves than would be gained by the neutralization of the waterway. His argument is both moral and utilitarian. A second important paper is that by E. G. Scott upon the history and present power of the French Canadians in Quebec and the adjoining provinces. He shows the high probability of the overthrow of the English in Canada by the natural increase of the French, exhibits the extraordinary pertinacity and conservatism of the French character, ideas, and institutions, and foresees the question of annexation taking on the simple phase of the English race in Canada trying merely to preserve its integrity and national characteristics by joining with us. The duty of the State in preserving the Sabbath as a day of rest is very temperately and instructively discussed by C. W. Clark from an entirely secular point of view, and the paper carries great weight in consequence. We notice, also, an admirable sketch of James Wilson of Pennsylvania and his part in founding the Government.

—*Harper's* gives its readers a large selection from the works of American artists at the Paris Exhibition in twenty engravings, most of which are full-page and highly finished. The text is by Theodore Child, and abounds in the vocabulary of the impressionist and in eulogy of an unrestrained kind. There is certainly great reason to congratulate ourselves that the work of American-born artists in Paris and London shows so great an improvement over what it was twenty years ago; and if Mr. Child had said only half as much in praise of it as he has done, our satisfaction need not have been less. The more important part of his article is devoted to Whistler, whom he appreciates like a disciple and loads with every phrase of æsthetic refinement, and to Dannat, of one of whose portraits he says: "There is no old master of the days when men knew how to paint who can show a finer or a more complete piece of work than this girl's head." Other American artists are received by the critic in the same royal way. One turns from a text of this nature, surfeited and cloyed, to the engravings, which needed no such comment, and which of themselves do more than pages of such writing to instruct the reader in the growth of American art abroad in the last decade. Mr. Child also contributes an illustrated paper upon Moscow in his usual manner. M. Edmond de Pressensé gives a clear bird's-eye view of the condition of the religious sects of France, in which the influence of the decree of Papal infallibility on the old Gallican spirit in the Church of France is instructively brought out,

and the decay of prelates of the old liberal type is lamented. "London Mock Parliaments" and "Kentucky Fairs" are topics that lighten the number with a semi-humorous interest, and there is the usual fiction.

—The *Andover Review* for August may be called a very good number indeed. It contains three articles each of which is distinctly above the average of magazine work. Prof. Shaler, in his "Chance or Design," unfolds as well as may be in comparatively brief space the newer views of teleology; and, while he admits that no argument that he knows of is absolutely destructive of the hypothesis of Chance, gives in his adhesion to the theory of Design in nature. It need not be said that this is not a revived Paleyism, though in it science seems to be giving back to religious thought some of her spoils from dogmatism. Another article which is both valuable and significant is that of Prof. George T. Ladd, on "The Psychology of the Modern Novel." Neither romanticists nor naturalists are likely to read it with entire approval, but it expresses almost exactly, we should think, the feeling of that newest school in literature whose pronunciamiento was the Academy address of M. Melchior de Vogüé. Perhaps the most scholarly article in the number is Mr. L. N. Dembitz's "The Ten Lost Tribes," in which he attacks with much learning and puts to rout the popular notion that the ten tribes have continued to exist. This notion, he says, is still commonly received. We should not have thought so; but the fact matters little, since Mr. Dembitz's article has an historical and critical value quite apart from its polemics. The rest of the number consists of the usual notices of books and events, and of a "Study" of Buddhism, the author of which does not appear to go very far wrong—partly, perhaps, because he does not go very far.

— It is rather remarkable that, although the last ten years have been the most notable in the advanced study of American ornithology, no one book, among the many that have appeared during that time, has in any way supplanted Audubon, with all his mistakes and inaccuracies, as the popular historian of the American bird. Mr. H. Nehrling now attempts this task in a subscription work which shall combine the most modern research with affectionate and sympathetic treatment of bird-life ('North American Birds.' In twelve parts. Part I. Milwaukee: George Brumder). Mr. Nehrling is an independent student and observer; his work is based on first-hand knowledge, and not, like that of the many plagiarists of Audubon and Wilson, on the labor and (often mistaken) conclusions of others. Consequently, he is at once an authority speaking *ex cathedra*, and a man who knows and loves birds personally. Mr. Nehrling writes good English, and, apart from a certain amount of rather maudlin verse which he has an apparent fondness for, his work is pleasant reading. The typography of the book is excellent—clear of print and wide of margin. The illustrations, prepared by Prof. Ridgway and others, are accurate, and, in many cases, of birds whose portraits have hitherto been unknown to ornithological galleries — which atones for their immense inferiority as works of art to the yet unrivalled masterpieces of the pioneers.

—M. André Theuriet is one of the later recruits of the large and increasing army of writers of memoirs and recollections. His "Souvenirs" have been flowing in a gentle and not unpleasing stream through the *Revue Bleue* during the last six months. They possess a certain quiet charm, a quality of pleasantness which carries the reader easily through them, and yet, if the reader be also a reviewer, he finds not very much to say about them when he has come to the end. The instalment, however, which appeared on July 6, is in some regards noteworthy. It contains Theuriet's memories and impressions of the Coup d'État of the 2d of December, 1851. Theuriet was at that time a clerk in the civil service, attached to the Registrar's Office of Bar-le-Duc. He had joined not more than a couple of months before, and was just becoming used to the daily routine of his work, when he saw Louis Napoleon's placard one morning announcing his dissolution of the Assembly, and his appeal to a plébiscite. Beside it was posted a circular from the prefect, threatening in tone, serving as a sort of commentary. These fell upon the ardent youth like a blow, and he hurried to the office to free his mind to his colleagues. They all agreed with him; the Registrar himself, an old man and an old soldier, marching up and down the office and denouncing the usurper. Just at this moment the figure of a man in uniform passed the window and a heavy step was heard in the corridor. Order was instantly restored, and work hurriedly taken up again. Theuriet felt sure in his own mind that it was he who was to be arrested and carried off on account of a little secret society that he and his friend Laguerre had founded, and he suffered a good deal of anguish before the purpose of the gendarme's visit—which was to buy a stamp—was disclosed. Apparently there was no further or more active resistance in that public office. And so it was, unhappily, all over France.

—To the humiliations and degradation that followed the Coup d'État M. Theuriet attributes the pessimism of the generation that is now passing out of active life. After recounting some of these he says:

"It is good to recall these things at a moment when certain people are threatening us with beginning over again the adventure of the Second of December. It is good to tell the present generation into what a lamentable state of soul the régime inaugurated in 1851 cast the generation which then came to its twentieth year. The young pessimists of to-day maintain that their sadness and discouragement have their roots in the unhappy disasters of 1871. But after that fatal war the losses were in some sort only material. We were well beaten, and honor was safe. There was nothing comparable to the moral disarray that followed the cruel date of the Second of December."

The youth of France that had been brought up under the influence of the liberal ideas of the reign of Louis Philippe, and were still effervescent with the feelings of 1848, "were roused in full dream by a brutal awakening. Their idols of the evening before lay in the mud, the parliamentary tribune was destroyed, the newspapers suppressed or enslaved." A silence of thought and a general flattening out of character followed, and no activity was left save among business men and speculators. "Young people, utterly cast down, asked themselves whether they had not been dupes of a dream, whether the true path, after all, did not lie in the search for money or pleasure. Then some let themselves slide gently down the slope, and thought no more of anything but amusement; while others, few in number, disabused, steeped in disgust to the lips, plunged in silence into a hateful despair." M. Theuriet closes his chapter by a reference to the just mentioned address of M. de Vogüé at the Academy, which was so much in the tone of the young man rejoicing in his youth, having only hopes for the future, and no fears, and ends with an aspiration: "My earnest wish for these new generations that are 'en travail d'une poésie et d'une foi' is, that they may not meet on the threshold of their youth a defeat like that of 1851; that they may not undergo any moral break-up such as that of which their elders still feel in themselves the bitterness and the rancor."

— The death of Félix Pyat, which occurred at St. Gratien on August 3, recalls a part of his life which many had forgotten. The man whom most people have known only as a fiery red republican was, in his earlier days, a journalist and dramatic writer, one of whose plays, at least, still holds the stage, and a romanticist and dandy of the times of the *gilet rouge*. He was the friend and companion of Alfred de Musset and his set, the ardent disciple of Hugo, the not less ardent and quarrelsome enemy of Jules Janin. But 1848 put an end to his literary work, and since then he has been a sort of stormy petrel in French politics, always busiest in a gale of wind. Among his political triumphs he could boast that he had been condemned in fines amounting to 212,000 francs; to twenty-nine years and five months in prison; to five years of surveillance and ten of interdiction; once he was sentenced to transportation, and once—after the Commune, a crowning mercy—to death. The general amnesty brought him back from exile to France again, where he lived quietly till last spring, when he was elected to the Chamber. His time, however, was past, and, though he has sometimes spoken, his influence has not been great. He was in his eightieth year.

—Mr. Stillman writes us from Italy under date of August 6:

"'N. J. B.,' in the *Nation*, No. 1252, replies to my assertion as to Greek temples and their location, but is singularly unfortunate in his choice of the material on which to contest my conclusion. The great temple of early Akragas was the treasury, and was the upper point of the citadel. It still remains, and is enclosed in the church which succeeded it in the worship of the place. There are the remains of two temples in the citadel. The question of the relation of the 'Rupe Atenea' to the ancient citadel is still an open one, and I do not believe there ever was an important temple on the former. The line of temples which now remain, from the so-called Temple of Juno to that of Jupiter, were placed along the wall, which was made by cutting down the rock on which the lower part of the city was built so as to leave a perpendicular face; and along this ran a road connecting the whole, back of which is the line of temples. Seen from the sea, they would have been more or less lost against the town rising in its splendid amphitheatre behind them, while they would have served as depots of arms and ammunition to the defenders of the walls. The Olympieum at Syracuse was the key of the strategical position from that side, and was fortified as such, while the temple of Diana was lost in the midst of the town in a position of no conspicuousness. The temple of Segesta was certainly in the enclosure of the walls, and was defended from the rear by an impassable ravine, while the soil of the hill on which it stands is full of débris of constructions. 'N. J. B.' must be singularly unobservant of the character of ancient sites if he expects to see house-walls on them, or find evidence of their having ever existed, without excavation. If he will read his Thucydides carefully in reference to this point, he will see how important were the temples in military operations; and it is matter of common knowledge that they were the city treasuries. But it was not so much as a part of the city defences that the temples were so placed as because, as sanctuaries and treasuries, they must have a defensible site. I have, unlike 'N. J. B.,' visited all the Greek temples with, I believe, one exception; and of all that I know, those of Agrigentum instanced by him are those which least support his view. He considers the wall in question of no strength, but it was not so considered by the Carthaginians or Romans, who preferred the attack from the southwest, where the hill was much higher, and the city was always taken from that side. The ancient scarp

has been eaten away by the sea air ages ago, but traces of the road are still to be seen, and there is indication that it was originally surmounted by a wall which was, in fact, indispensable for the protection of the defenders from the hostile missiles. The 'Castor and Pollux' was in a depression, and would not have been seen from the sea, which, by the way, is several miles off."

HERNDON'S LINCOLN.

Herndon's Lincoln: The True Story of a Great Life. By William H. Herndon, for twenty years his friend and law-partner, and Jesse William Weik, A.M. 3 vols., pp. 638, 12mo. Belford, Clarke & Co.

MR. HERNDON'S personal recollections of Lincoln will doubtless remain the most authentic and trustworthy source of information concerning the great man in the period prior to his election to the Presidency. His real subject is the growth and development of Lincoln's powers and character. From many other sources we may get fuller material for the part of Lincoln's career which properly belongs to history; but Herndon's narrative gives, as nothing else is likely to give, the material from which we may form a true picture of the man from infancy to maturity. The sincerity and honesty of the biographer appear on every page. It is impossible to doubt that he has meant to tell us candidly what he knows about Lincoln. His long and intimate association with his hero gave him unequalled opportunity of knowing and estimating the man. He does not look at Lincoln's career in the light of the great events and great responsibilities of his Presidency, but interprets these in view of the known character and the familiar qualities he had watched in their growth for twenty years.

The reader of these memoirs must not look for an adequate estimate of Lincoln's place in history, or for an authoritative judgment of his conduct of national affairs during the great civil war. He must expect, rather, to be helped to understand how Abraham Lincoln became the man he was, and what manner of man he was when the election of 1860 threw upon him a burden of responsibility hardly paralleled in history. The book is not such a one as a trained writer would have produced. It is more valuable because it is not. Facts are not selected with art to compose a predetermined picture; but we feel that an honest chronicler, who thoroughly knew his subject, has collected nearly everything authentic which can be known of Lincoln before his great elevation. We have much that is trivial, some things which are in bad taste, but we are made to feel, after all, that we are looking upon Lincoln's life as he actually lived it. It depends upon ourselves whether he is belittled by the revelation of things ordinarily kept behind a curtain. We have the opportunity to know him as the valet would know him, and if we are of the valet's make-up, the proverbial result may happen, and he will be no hero to us. The judicious reader will know how to put things in their proper perspective, and will form a truer picture of the man by the help of many little things which go to indicate character, though grotesque or even repulsive when taken by themselves.

Herndon's book will probably settle beyond controversy some things in Lincoln's mental structure and character. It becomes plain that his strength of intellect was a native sagacity, an inborn clearness of logical perception, that made fallacies transparent to him after a proper amount of reflection. He was neither quick nor ready in the common meaning of the words; but he was under a necessity of nature to form perfectly clear ideas of the subjects of his thoughts. He pondered them, therefore, till his notions of them became distinctly defined and they were put in harmony with the rest of his knowledge and his convictions. It does not appear that he was original in discovery or inventive in thought; but he was systematic, and made thoroughly his own what he learned or accepted.

While he was an industrious and laborious thinker, he was indolent as a reader. Indeed, this is only one phase of a physical indolence which was evidently a marked characteristic of the man. He assimilated his mental food slowly, and found his thinking powers so fully occupied and interested in studying out his own conclusions from few and simple data, that he did very little reading at any time in his life. In his profession as a lawyer as well as in general literature, he was a man of few books. It would not be far wrong to say he was a man of no books at all; for the practical affairs of life and his daily intercourse with men seem to have furnished him nearly all the material upon which his logic and his wit were employed. He was a Socratic philosopher, in his way, applying a rugged power of reasoning and a humorous faculty of illustration to all sorts of questions in debate as they arose along the street, in the tavern, anywhere and everywhere. Men and their affairs were his books, and he was incessantly studying and criticising them. He practised upon every audience his power of interesting and convincing. It mattered little whether it was before a knot of listeners in a country store, or the more formal gathering of plain people to listen to a stump speech. To carry his argument home by a logic which seemed like the inevitable conclusion from familiar truths in homely garb, and to tell his stories so that the "nub" should be irresistible, had been as constant a practical study with him as with Socrates himself, and the skill acquired was, in its way, no less.

Behind these intellectual traits was a moral nature which was essentially sound. A love for fair play, a dislike for meanness, an honesty so true that its opposite did not seem to tempt him, were characteristics which marked his whole practical life. His sympathy would be quick at the sight of suffering and his indignation at the sight of wrong. His sobriquet of "Honest Abe Lincoln" was fairly won by a simple, every-day adherence to sound principles of morals, and by constant reference of points in debate to these principles. When tempted into sophisms before a jury or elsewhere, the form of his argument would be an appeal from the technical or legal right, to the practical rectitude of plain men. By dint of constant study how to control the minds of unlettered people, he had acquired a habit of clear statement and simple but cogent reasoning which has been rarely matched. He had cured himself of a turgid rhetoric with which he began in imitation of the Orator Phillips vein, till he had formed a sharp antithetic style of great and simple force, the traces in it of his earlier method being noticeable as quaintnesses only, or but rarely as blemishes.

He was ambitious to be a politician from his early manhood. His wish to influence and to lead his neighbors naturally took that form, and it may fairly be said to have become the passion of his life. The triumphs of the political campaign, of the convention, of the legislative body, were to him the most desirable of earthly enjoyments. He accepted the tenets of his party, and became, to the full extent of his sphere of activity, its advocate and servant. His general honesty of character led him to play the game fairly, according to the accepted standard of fairness; but he does not seem to have carried any high ideal of morality into his politics. Prior to 1856 the old issues between Whigs and Democrats were in the main those of power and place. Lincoln was not averse to management and to "trading," and was familiar with the methods by which politicians in his day gained their ends. He sought the official places to which he was elected by open candidacy, and did not spare effort to secure favorable delegations in nominating conventions.

When the organization of the Republican party made resistance to the extension of slavery the central issue in politics, Lincoln was quick to see the strong moral grounds on which the debate would turn. He welcomed a contest in which he instinctively felt that his own qualities and methods might give him eminence, and in which his real love of justice and of right were in accord with the side which he espoused. He had not been an Abolitionist, nor even a Free-Soiler. He had done nothing to hasten the dissolution of the Whig party; but when it came, he showed that he was glad that political activity was now consistent with the advocacy of great measures in favor of human liberty and progress.

In accordance with his mental habit, he reduced the questions at issue to the simplest terms, and referred the solution of them to fundamental principles by logic so close and advocacy so persuasive, that his hearers seemed to themselves to be listening only to the voice of conscience. Yet his political prudence limited him to positions which the party had already taken, or which his sagacious judgment foresaw to be the next necessary step in party action. He did not compromise his party's success or his personal chances of election by outrunning the reform sentiment of his political associates. In his great debate with Douglas, when both were aspirants to the Senate of the United States, he proved himself an ideal party candidate by the power with which he urged the moral arguments in favor of his cause without adopting anything so advanced that his opponent could successfully make him out an extremist. He showed a marvellous shrewdness in formulating embarrassing dilemmas for Douglas, and an equal skill in turning those prepared for himself. His art of popular expression of doctrinal truths enabled him to reach the popular heart as a "plain, blunt man" who disclaimed being an "orator, as Brutus is." His highest powers, his greatest ambitions, and the country's good were all in happiest accord. His availability as a candidate was recognized by the whole country, and when the Chicago Convention assembled in 1860, the "hour and the man" had come. Yet Lincoln did not omit any means that seemed feasible to secure delegations and to have able managers on the floor of the Convention. Herndon's unsparing honesty has preserved the record of things which cannot be defended, and the recognized value to a candidate of organized enthusiasm in the galleries dates from that time.

While such things cannot be ignored in any historical estimate of Lincoln, they must not blind us to the sincerity of his belief in the principles which he advocated. They only show his human limitations. He was not the self-sacrificing reformer, but he was a public man with a large mixture of love for liberty and right. His sense of right was not always nice when the question was one of personal and party success, though he heartily loved and incomparably presented the right which his party had adopted as its platform. Thus representing the average sentiment of the peo-

ple, his faults, his oddities, and even his sins against good taste and refinement made him a figure at once distinguished and familiar, a leader who did not seem too far above the masses, a statesman and a jovial companion.

Such is the man presented truthfully in Herndon's pages. The narrative extends over the years of Lincoln's Presidency as well, but the narrator becomes only a compiler when Lincoln passed from his intimate personal association. The value of the book is found in its presentation of the Lincoln of the time before the war. It is another task to show how such a man met the responsibilities of the national Government in a great crisis; how his powers were developed and the good that was in him became great; how his weaknesses still existed, limiting his powers and interfering with the best coöperation with others; how political methods and a politician's habits still clung to him, and forbade him to reach the highest walks of statesmanship; but how, also, his sagacious comprehension of the advance of public opinion, and his faithful interpretation of it in action, made him, in that opinion, the embodiment of the cause he served and its martyr when he died for it.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Ladies' Gallery. By Justin McCarthy, M.P., and Mrs. Campbell-Praed. D. Appleton & Co.

Esther Denison. By Adeline Sergeant. Henry Holt & Co.

The Reproach of Annesley. By Maxwell Grey. D. Appleton & Co.

The Sphinx in Aubrey Parish. By N. H. Chamberlain. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

Vagabond Tales. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Dragon's Teeth. From the Portuguese of Eca de Queiros. By Mary J. Serrano. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

An Alien from the Commonwealth. By Robert Timsol. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

It was said that Mr. McCarthy and Mrs. Campbell-Praed wrote their former joint story, 'The Right Honorable,' to prove that the literary feat of partnership in fiction-writing is possible. While we are not prepared to say, after reading their second venture, "Would to heaven it were impossible," we think they have yet to demonstrate their ability to produce a novel of the first class. Nor would we insinuate that the Member of Parliament invented the heroine, while his woman-collaborator wrote the scenes in the House of Commons. We will say, however, that there is disappointingly little about the Ladies' Gallery. Some of the Orient, some of the Occident, much of the "situation," might have been omitted, and a more valuable book made, by freer use of the material specially at Mr. McCarthy's command. The hero is assuredly born of woman, by reason of his exaggerated masculinity and of his impossible angelhood. Compounded of a Berserker and a Daniel Deronda (purged of dross), he does not even crush the serpent with his heel. He cherishes and reforms it and converts it into a useful draught amimal. Being impossibly good, he becomes impossibly foolish.

We wonder if the presentation of such artificial virtue may not be less harmless than is often supposed. Ideals, or what are beyond nature, are wholesome, and lend wings to the mind of a generous reader. Artificialities, or what are opposed to nature, may have a very different effect in giving distorted views as to the potency and permanency of the weak and the transient. Such a presentment as Richard Ransom may well foster in any young woman's mind the false hope of finding in man a being akin to Southey's Glendoveer. Binbian Jo, the sub-hero, and cause of all the trouble, is a purely factitious character, although his rôle of sinner turned saint is old enough to have evolved by sheer persistence a real class of such. Berenice, the wife of one of these men, the lover of the other—by the exercise of more than mortal heroism, shall we say? or of impartiality?—is represented as true to both positions. The situations of all three are as false and displeasing as anything meant to be upright and crystalline can be. The secondary personages are cheap and tiresome, though elaborately presented. Each has his trick meant to do duty for characterization. It is hardly right, perhaps, to find fault with philanthropy and socialism as constituents in a London novel, since they are as well established there as the taper fingers belonging to every well-constructed heroine; but their presence in this book has a labored effect, coming with so much else that is manufactured. It seems particularly striking that both Berenice's lovers should have made a specialty of reform—yet providential, since the disconsolate widow is thus enabled to continue the business, if not under the old firm name. It remains to say, and must in fairness be said, that the style of the book is clear and fluent; that, given the difficult situations, the leading characters talk exceedingly well and even naturally, and that the story is absorbing.

In 'Esther Denison,' except that the problem is bigamous instead of biandrous, the situations are equally embarrassing, and, we maintain, too strained for profitable contemplation. In other respects this latest novel of Adeline Sergeant's seems to us a book betokening unusual insight and observation. The characters are, to be sure, unequally drawn, some of them betraying perfunctoriness on the author's part, some, on the other hand, showing an unreasonable partiality. Upon the central figure, however, has been lavished a wealth of interest and ability, resulting in character-history rare in the modern novel. The incidents in Esther Denison's life are now trivial, now exaggerated; but the chronicle of the interior processes by which the timid, self-conscious child of the Methodist preacher becomes a woman capable of the grandest sacrifice, is an unusually faithful and intimate one, and, more than anything else in it, makes the book well worth reading. There are also other points of interest: the character of Mrs. La Touche, the worldling of the plot, is well done, and so are those of various of the Methodist Church dignitaries among whom Esther's youth is passed. Small wonder that the child who was always expecting miracles to happen, and who, when she was naughty, hid in the raspberry bushes, thinking of Adam and Eve, and expecting a voice to come from the sky, saying, "Esther, where art thou?" should pass through more than one spiritual reaction. With her mother, one feels reassured when she follows up an emotional outbreak with, "Oh mother, I wish the Circuit hadn't given us such a cross cat!"

The popularity of Maxwell Grey's former novel, 'The Silence of Dean Maitland,' will doubtless rouse the interest of summer reading circles in his second one, 'The Reproach of Annesley.' The faults of the earlier book will be found in this—its endlessness, and its intrusive landscape drawing; while the dignity of the moral struggle which constituted the power there, is hardly equalled here. On the other hand, the rustic element which was the one thing in 'The Silence of Dean Maitland' of which it was possible to wish there had been more, here makes one of the best features of the story. Maxwell Grey's peasants, while far below Hardy's (which are second only to Shakspere's), are perhaps next best to those, and are better than anything else in his novels except the landscape, and of that the quality is almost forgotten in the irritating quantity. The interest of the plot is to a certain degree absorbing while one is reading, yet it hardly stands the highest test of merit, that of being strong in retrospect. The attention is held and the curiosity excited, yet there is a want of inevitableness, of march in the incidents, which keeps the reader always on the outside, critically watching the straining of gnats and the swallowing of camels. The title has a goodly sound, and it is not till the book is closed that its awkwardness is appreciated.

'The Sphinx in Aubrey Parish' is a Priest and Pagan story, of some ideas, but more crudity, as is apt to be the case when a sermon goes masquerading as a novel. The agnosticism, waywardness, and unseemly flirtations of Edward Vaughn are offset, and as it were chaperoned, by the High Churchism, polemics, and lover's constancy of Frederic Ardenne. Frederic is of English birth, of military and ecclesiastic affiliations. He is a person of such importance that his father's epitaph is reproduced in capital letters for the reader, from the nave of Chester Cathedral. Frederic loves Helen de Vere—in manners, her namesake Clara's equal; in morals, her superior. When Frederic is with her, he calls her "my child," and she calls him "sir." Whenever they part, he says, "Pax tecum," and she replies, "Et cum spiritu tuo." Helen's uncle and guardian, the tyrant of the tale, has no repose of manner whatever; yet the author, seeming to fear that the reader may mistake the creation for a gentleman, is constantly implying the contrary with fine irony, sharpening, as Felix Holt's mother did, strong powers of argument upon the file of an imagined contradiction. Edward the Agnostic appears to have been a redoubtable lady-killer. Abraham Cowley's famous calendar is hardly longer than the list of Edward's conquests, some darkly hinted at, others enacted before us in thrilling tableaux, such as a rejected lady bowed down over a red-flecked granite sarcophagus, containing the ashes of her mummied Egyptian sister; another drowning herself for his sweet sake, while a third, rescued by him from an icy grave, marries him in triumph. In the parish where these stirring events occur, live some very slightly amusing country folk. The best parts of the book, however, and the most free from the author's turgidity and painful consciousness of his reader, are the theological discussions, into which, spite of their sacerdotalism, something like earnestness enters. The author dedicates the book "to my memories." For his own sake, let us hope that for portions of it he may have drawn also upon his imagination.

Prof. Boyesen's 'Vagabond Tales' consist in part of idyls written with no little charm of style, and no little observation of nature, men, and manners. The greater number of the tales, however, are accounts of young Norwegians who migrate to America in pursuit of fortune or of liberty, and who come to conspicuous grief. In passing we may say that there is a certain analogy between this and Prof. Boyesen's own fate when he cruises into the waters of what is technically known as American humor. As keen note-taker, satirist, and poet he is everywhere at home, and bestows his cheer with free hand; but his hu-

mor is sectional and flourishes best on Norwegian soil. The realism he preaches so strenuously, we must agree with his friend Turgeneff in finding less becoming to him than his charming poetic vein. He has emphatically the story-teller's art. Whatever his theme, the recital flags not, and only stops to pick a flower, or sing a song, or shoot an arrow into some human foible. In a word, his stories are highly readable. His heroes are tender and true. His heroines are fresh and fair; they are pretty and dress well; they may or must visit the poor, milk cows, sail a boat, and catch salmon; but woe to them if they read 'Theophrastus Such' or discuss "nightmarish literary topics."

'Dragon's Teeth' is aptly described in the translator's preface as a "graphic picture of Lisbon life." There is a double fitness in this characterization, since the story of sin and sorrow which is here set down with coarse, unrelenting minuteness leaves one impressed rather with the description of life and manners in modern Lisbon than with the profoundness of the tragedy. One involuntarily compares the novel with 'Anna Karénina,' where the leading motive is the same, but where the book is closed with a supreme sense of the moral aspect of the story, in spite of there being, as in the Portuguese version, so much to divert the mind of the American reader into a survey of foreign ways of living and thinking. In 'Dragon's Teeth' the march of fate is no less terrible, nor is there anything more impressive in either book than the grim flippancy of the final chapter; but the dignity as well as the scope of the Russian novel are wanting.

The crudity of civilization in the Portuguese capital and the low tone of middle-class society make a dreary and repulsive picture, in truth. There is but one character in the book for whom anything like admiration can be felt—Sebastian, the friend of the betrayed husband. The rest are admirably drawn types, but types of ignorance, weakness, or depravity. A pompous counsellor is excellently presented; so, too, is the real heroine of the story, the serving woman Juliana, a malignant and revengeful fiend, described with an unsparing pen that might have been dipped in Balzac's inkstand. The empire of this woman over the mistress whose secret she holds, forms the subject of the cleverest and most original scenes in the book. That the whole is the work of an artist in realism is easily conceded. It is another question whether as disagreeable realism as this is the best friend of truth, and not rather of that pessimism which, according to Jules Lemaitre, is "perhaps a fact, but which is none the less in the wrong, and which besides becomes disagreeable and common."

In 'An Alien from the Commonwealth' we have the experiences of a journalist, idealist, and aristocrat, who, having been born on the eastern shore of Maryland, has fallen heir to a strong race feeling and a fine sensibility, which make it impossible for him to be comfortable in dining with persons richer than himself. His friends bolster and prod him from one occupation to another, through long chapters of wearisome exhorting and debate, till at last his estranged Maryland estates return to him, and he is enabled to hold up his head and invite all his wealthy friends to dinner. A chapter on salmon fishing, without which no romance now is complete, and some farcical sketches of Western prairie characters, are thrown in as incidental divertisement. That there is a vast amount of noble sentiment in the book, is not to be denied, but high thinking is not enough to make a successful romance. A few such trifles as style and form deserve attention. Long harangues about Marcus Aurelius, the duties of high-souled lawyers, the tariff, and the rules of rhetoric, make hard the way of the novel-reader.

LEAF'S ILIAD.

The Iliad. Edited, with English Notes and Introduction, by Walter Leaf, Litt.D., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. I, Books I–XII. Vol. II, Books XIII–XXIV. Macmillan & Co.

Soon after the publication of the first volume of Mr. Leaf's edition of the 'Iliad,' we commended it in a Note to the attention of classical scholars. A brief account of the origin and general character of the work was given, but the more detailed consideration which it deserved was postponed until its completion by the publication of a second volume. Both volumes are now before us. In outward appearance they are in all respects companion volumes to Mr. Archer-Hind's beautiful edition of the 'Timæus' of Plato published by the same house.

Mr. Leaf is an Englishman, educated at one of the great English universities; his elaborate introductions and notes are in the English language, but his scholarship is thoroughly German. Nearly, perhaps quite, every proposition of Mr. Leaf from which we may dissent in the course of our review, is supported by some Greek specialist in Germany; but we may affirm that our views are also, in great part, supported by German scholars. His work is, so far as we know, the most elaborate and detailed attempt yet made by any English scholar to establish the theory, an especially German theory, that the 'Iliad,' in the form in which we have it, is the product of many authors.

The doctrine that the 'Iliad' is a single poem, composed by a single poet named Homer, comes down to us from the earliest period of authentic Greek history, and was never disputed until within one hundred years. It is true that Eustathius—quoted by Mr. Leaf in his introduction to the tenth book—writing in the twelfth century A. D., tells us: "The ancients say that this rhapsody was placed by Homer by itself, and was not inserted among the parts of the 'Iliad,' but was put into the poem by Peisistratus." Still, it was not disputed that Homer was its author. Extending back, perhaps, to a time before the first Olympiad, this tradition remained undisputed for more than twenty-five hundred years. In 1795 it was attacked by Wolf, and what has been the result? In all human probability, by 1895 the number of those who believe in it will be so small that first-class scholars will not consider it worth while to waste time in endeavoring to convince them of its untenableness.

Mr. Leaf, while showing us comparatively little that had not been pointed out by some one before, is yet a very independent scholar. He has gone through the 'Iliad,' microscope in hand, and, though most frequently looking where he has been told to look and seeing what he has been told he would see, yet he seems never to have stated the most minute and unimportant detail until he had verified it by his own observation. After making all due allowance for the assistance Mr. Leaf has been afforded by the labors of German scholars, his own work in verifying, comparing, analyzing, and combining the facts which they have gathered and the opinions they have expressed, is something wonderful. The opinions of the Greeks themselves in regard to the text of the 'Iliad,' so far as those opinions can now be ascertained, from Antimachus, the "diaskeuast," or, as we should now say, "editor," of an edition of the poem in the fifth century before the Christian era, down to the huge variorum commentary of Eustathius, are given with great minuteness. We think most classical scholars who have not made the textual criticism of the 'Iliad' a special study, will be surprised at the number of "various readings" which were in existence even as early as the second century before the Christian era.

Mr. Leaf's theory of the origin and growth of the 'Iliad' is as follows: The subject of the poem, in the form in which it has come down to us, is announced in the invocation to the Muse contained in the first seven lines. It is the "wrath of Achilles" and its direful consequences to the Greeks. Accordingly, Mr. Leaf starts with the assumption that there was originally an epic poem, which he calls a 'Menis Achilleos,' or simply 'The Menis.' This, "the first and greatest of epic poems," was "the work of 'Homer' himself." The 'Menis' contains "a little more than 3,400 lines." The whole 'Iliad,' as exhibited in Mr. Leaf's edition, contains 15,688 lines; so the 'Menis' is a little more than one-fifth of the whole. The remaining four-fifths is composed of subsequent expansions and interpolations. The expansions he subdivides into earlier and later; the interpolations, into longer and shorter. In the introduction to his second volume he gives a table in which the "whole Iliad" is arranged under these various heads. The table, however, leaves about 200 lines unaccounted for. These, we suppose, are the lines to which he refers in the remark, "Brief interpolations which do not affect the character of the passage as a whole are passed over in silence." In constructing his table Mr. Leaf has not succeeded in carrying out his own plan with strict accuracy. Thus, he says, "An asterisk indicates that a few of the lines contained in the passage to which it is affixed are an addition, and will therefore be found in a later column." But lines 1–404 of book xxii are assigned to the original 'Menis,' and they have no asterisk affixed, although lines 381–90 appear in the column which contains the latest interpolations. These small errors are of no consequence.

We have endeavored to analyze the table correctly, so far as it is possible, and to present Mr. Leaf's results as he intended. They are as follows: (1.) The original 'Menis,' containing 3,423 lines. It is made up of 26 passages taken from 12 different books, viz., i, ii, xi, xiii, and xv to xxii. The other 12 books are not represented at all in the original poem. The passages thus taken out and put together to form "the first and greatest of epic poems" vary in length from 2 lines to 610, but a majority of them are less than 100 lines in length. There is one passage of 2 lines, one of 3, and one of 4. We proceed with Mr. Leaf's classification. (2.) The earlier expansions. These contain 4,256 lines. Mr. Leaf says "these may be roughly divided into three strata," as he has done in his table, not "roughly," but exactly. His reasons for the subdivisions are too many, and often too vague and unsatisfactory, to permit of notice here, neither is it necessary for our purposes. In his first volume he expresses the opinion that many of these early expansions may be by the same author as the 'Menis,' viz., "Homer himself." But in his second volume he says: "I now feel much more doubt as to this." (3.) The later expansions. These again are subdivided in a manner which we need not stop to explain. They amount to 3,931 lines. In 2,559 of these lines Mr. Leaf thinks "the approximation in style to the 'Odyssey' is very marked," and "the question as to whether these are all by the same hand" is not pre-

judged. (4.) The greater interpolations. These embrace 2,951 lines. (5.) The shorter interpolations, "by which the transitions from one piece to another of different age were managed." They sum up 906 lines. The total of all these divisions is 15,467 lines, leaving 221 lines "passed over in silence," with which the reader can do as he pleases. Their number is too small and, according to Mr. Leaf, they are of too little importance, to require further attention.

In order to criticise this theory of the origin and development of the 'Iliad' in a perfectly satisfactory manner, it would be necessary for the reviewer to oppose to it what he believed to be the true theory and to compare the two. To this course there are two insurmountable objections. In the first place, the subject is altogether too large to be treated in the space at our disposal, and in the second place we do not think the time has yet come for the formation of a detailed theory. There are too many unsolved problems in what may be called the natural history of epic poetry, and their solution depends upon researches of an entirely different character from those of Mr. Leaf. The "Homeric Question" will never be satisfactorily answered by Greek specialists. The study of the 'Iliad' itself, even though it were more microscopic than Mr. Leaf's, if that be possible, will not unravel the mystery of its origin. The materials gathered by the Greek specialists must be illumined by the light which may be thrown upon them by what we know or may hope to know of the origin and development of the 'Mahābhārata' of the Hindus, the 'Nibelungen Lied' of the Germans, the 'Chanson de Roland' of the French, the 'Kalevala' of the Finns, and a score of other epics. Above all, the light which may be derived from investigations into the nature and characteristics of folk-poetry in general, must be brought to bear upon the Greek epics. In fact, the Homeric Question is not so much a question of philology as of psychology—not the psychology of the individual, but a subsequent and higher branch of the science, the psychology of races and nations. We think that if Mr. Leaf will read the essay of Jacob Grimm, "Über das finnische Epos," in Hoefer's *Zeitschrift für die Wissenschaft der Sprache* (b. i, s. 13 *seq.*) and the following three articles in the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie*, viz., Paul Heyse, "Ueber Italiänische Volkspoesie" (b. i, s. 181); Adolf Tobler, "Ueber das volksthümliche Epos der Franzosen" (b. iv, s. 139), and especially H. Steinthal, "Das Epos" (b. v, s. i), he will begin to suspect that the Homeric Question is not to be answered by ingenious experiments as to how a coherent and consistent short poem can be dug out of a long one by picking out a passage here and a passage there, piecing them together, and then dumping four-fifths of the poem into bins labelled "Expansions" and "Interpolations."

And here it is not out of place to remark that in the four-fifths of the 'Iliad' which, Mr. Leaf decides, formed no part of the original poem, are included much the larger part of those passages which the unanimous judgment of all the generations of more than twenty centuries has classed among the most beautiful, not only of this poem, but of all poetry. The scene at the tower near the Scæan gate, where Priam, his aged nobles, and Helen herself had assembled to witness the duel between her husband and her paramour; the parting of Hector and Andromache, where the relations and emotions of husband and wife, of father, mother, and child, even the humble offices of the nurse, are described with matchless beauty; the ransoming of the body of the slain Hector, where the stern Achilles relents though he does not repent, and the poet with a sublime pathos so marvellously blends in the aged Priam the sorrow of the father with the dignity of the king—all these scenes and many others, in which the poetic imagination soars in its loftiest flights, are among the later "accretions" of the original 'Menis.' We do not mention these facts as tending to disprove the manifold origin of the 'Iliad.' We are perfectly convinced that it is the work of many poets. What we do not believe is, that far back in prehistoric antiquity there arose a transcendent genius who created the "first and greatest of epic poems," and that in and around and upon this other poets fitted other poems, until the mass had swelled to five times its original size, and that this has been handed down through the ages for the torment of scholars and the delight of mankind.

One of the arguments which Mr. Leaf most frequently uses to justify the rejection of any portion of the 'Iliad' which he wishes to get rid of is that it *can* be struck out without destroying the connection of the narrative. There is one general objection to this method of procedure which would perhaps be sufficient to excuse us from entering into details. It can be applied with equal facility to poems which we know, as matter of history, are the product of a single author, for example, 'Paradise Lost.'

We will endeavor to illustrate by one or two examples what seem to us inconsistencies in Mr. Leaf's method. In the first book of the 'Iliad,' Achilles, prompted by the goddess Hera, calls an assembly of the Grecian warriors to consider what is to be done in regard to the pestilence which is ravaging the Grecian host. In the assembly a fierce quarrel arises between him and Agamemnon. Achilles, maddened by the threats of Agamemnon, is about to attack him, and is drawing his sword from the scabbard when Hera, who, from the heights of Olympus, is watching the assembly, sends the goddess Athena to restrain Achilles. Athena does this, and, after preventing the quarrel from coming to blows, she returns to her place on Olympus "among the other divinities." The assembly breaks up, and Agamemnon carries out his threats by sending two men to the tent (hut) of Achilles to carry off the maiden Briseis, who had been awarded to Achilles by the Greeks as his share of the plunder of a captured city. Achilles, following the directions of Athena, makes no resistance; but he goes along the beach alone and calls upon his mother, the goddess Thetis, who comes to him "from the depths of the sea." He begs her to go to Olympus and intercede with Zeus in his behalf. Thetis promises to do so, but tells him that Zeus and all the other divinities went "yesterday," that is, before any of the above events happened, to a feast among the Ethiopians. They will return on the twelfth day from their departure, and then she will go to Olympus to intercede with Zeus.

Here at one point the poet represents Hera, the wife, Athena, the daughter, and "the other divinities" as being on Olympus, and at another point as having gone from Olympus the day before. The contradiction is complete, and in consequence Lachmann rejected the last 264 lines (more than one-third) of the book as composed of additions by poets later than the author of the first 347 lines. But Mr. Leaf wants to save the greater part of the 264 lines for his 'Menis,' and how does he explain the inconsistency? He says:

"The consistency with which the epic poet is concerned is the consistency of the picture of the moment; the consistency of details in different scenes—so far as they do not touch the story itself as given by the legend on which he works—is of minor importance."

Now this is very sensible, but let us see how he treats another case where his 'Menis' theory leads in another direction. In the latter part of the fourth book of the 'Iliad' a great battle begins between the Greeks and the Trojans, and continues through the fifth, sixth, and the larger part of the seventh book. The narrative is interrupted at various points by the description of side scenes which, however, all have an intimate connection with the main action. In this battle, in which several of the divinities take part, Diomedes is the prominent figure. In the early part of the fifth book, Athena tells Diomedes that she has taken away from his sight the cloud which prevented him from distinguishing a divinity from a mortal. She warns him not to attack a divinity unless the goddess Aphrodite mixes in the fight; he may wound her with the spear. Afterwards, when the Greeks are hard pressed by the Trojans assisted by the god Ares, Athena gives Diomedes permission to attack Ares or any other of the gods, and with her assistance Diomedes wounds Ares, who flees to Olympus. The other divinities also leave the battle-field, and both Greeks and Trojans are left to fight it out alone. In the sixth book the battle still continues, but it is now an entirely human battle. The divinities have gone to Olympus, and for the present they have no part or lot in the contest. Diomedes, after having slain two more Trojan warriors, encounters Glaucus, one of the Trojan allies. They are about to rush upon each other, when Diomedes pauses, and cries out, "Who of mortal men are you? I never saw you before in battle, and now you seem to be bravest of all." He doubts whether Glaucus is a man or a divinity descended from heaven. If a divinity, he will not fight with him; if a man, he is ready.

Mr. Leaf considers this "one of the most glaring inconsistencies in the Homeric poems." In the fifth book, "Diomedes has power given him to know god from man," while here the poet represents him as doubting whether Glaucus is divine or human. Mr. Leaf says: "Such an anomaly cannot be accounted for unless by the assumption that the two episodes of the wounding of the gods are a later addition." On the contrary, we do not think there is any anomaly or inconsistency at all. The poet does not say, and does not in any way imply, that Athena gave this power to Diomedes as a permanent endowment. In the fifth book, she and other divinities were engaged in the fight. She gave him the power of distinguishing between gods and men, and still further assisted him by taking the place of his charioteer and driving his horses in his encounter with Ares. But, after the wounding of Ares, all the divinities, she among them, left the field. There was no longer any occasion for the use of the supernatural gift, or any reason for supposing that Diomedes continued to possess it when there were no longer any divinities taking part in the battle.

The eighth book is one of those which Mr. Leaf rejects from his 'Menis.' One of his principal arguments to prove its later origin is "the fact that so large a number of lines is found in other passages as to give to considerable portions all the appearance of centos made up from the other books previously existing." And yet Mr. Leaf says in different places in his introduction to the book: "The plan of this book is simple." . . . "The narrative is clear and consistent with itself." . . . "It has undoubtedly great spirit and movement." The problem presented to the reader, and

which we leave him to solve, is this: Which of two alternatives is the more probable, that this, that, and the other poet borrowed from a simple, clear, consistent, spirited poem, full of movement, or, that this brilliant poem was a piece of patch-work, made up in great part of lines taken from this, that, and the other poet? The truth is, these repetitions of themselves prove nothing. They are characteristic of the folk-poetry of all nations. In the absence of other evidence, no one can tell which is original and which is copy, and, when other evidence is attainable, they add nothing to its force.

We cannot help regarding Mr. Leaf's theory of the origin and development of the 'Iliad' as simply a survival of the old tradition to which English scholars have clung with such tenacity.

Transactions of the National Association for the Advancement of Art and Its Application to Industry. Liverpool Meeting, 1888. London: 22 Albemarle Street, Piccadilly. Pp. 407.

THIS is a handsome octavo volume, containing a series of papers read at the first annual congress of a newly formed British national society. The meeting was of course preliminary in character; the addresses delivered were naturally prefatory, and explanatory of the objects and aspirations of the leaders. The next meeting is announced for Edinburgh, and for December of this year. A brief note, headed "Objects of the Association," but not signed by any officer or committee, speaks of the necessity of retaining the commercial superiority of England. "In the face of hostile tariffs," it says, "and narrowing margins of profit all over the world, it is by excellence of make and superiority of artistic design that the products of manufacture of any country will henceforward attain prestige and command markets." The business of the Association is declared to be the attainment of such excellence in manufactured articles. The constantly increasing demand for pictures is commented on, and is said to have produced an over-supply of painters. The final assumption is that artists, such as sculptors and painters, should be assisted in finding work in the decoration of buildings, and that architects should be encouraged to find employment for painters and sculptors in connection with their building operations.

The society appears to be divided into six sections. Section A, painting, was represented at the Congress by an address from the President of the section, Mr. Alma-Tadema, and by a number of papers. Of these we can only mention Mr. John Brett's on "The Relation of the Pictorial to the Decorative Arts," in which the artist points out the necessity of putting decoration into the hands of highly trained artists, of lofty aims, as the only way of escape from the lifelessness of mechanism; and Mr. Francis Bate's paper on "The Tendencies of Modern Art," in which the Royal Academy is taken up and sharply catechised as to the use it has made of its great opportunities. Section B has to do with sculpture, and this section furnishes to the first Congress an address by the President of the section, Mr. Alfred Gilbert, and five papers, dealing respectively with architectural carving; with advanced sculpture, as the decoration of buildings and public places; with design in art metal work; with the modern revival of interest in sculpture; and with the influence which sculpture has had and may have again upon paintings. The slight and perfunctory character of these papers is oddly characteristic of sculptureless modern England. The other sections are: C, Architecture, with Prof. Aitchison for President; D, Applied Art, with Mr. Walter Crane for President; E, Art History and Museums, under the Presidency of Mr. Sidney Colvin, who, however, was absent, and was represented by the Honorary Secretary, Mr. Lionel Cust; and finally, Section F, National and Municipal Encouragement of Art.

Besides the meetings of the several sections there were "combined meetings" of two or three sections, at which papers on the joint action or the mutual interdependence of these arts were considered. This seems an excellent plan, which may result in much good in future years. Some outside appeals to the public were carried on in connection with this first congress, and the whole was introduced by an elaborate "Presidential Address" by the President of the whole Association, Sir Frederick Leighton, and a sermon by Archdeacon Farrar.

We have gone into these details to show how elaborate is the structure and how extensive the reach of this new organization. The actual result of the first year's congress, so far as the book represents it, is slight. But few of the papers are very original, very forcible, or very interesting. That they do not offer a very coherent scheme for future work is not to be wondered at; that will be the business of future congresses. But there is one notable thing about these essays, the evidence contained in them that some thinkers at least have discovered the special need of modern times, namely, a frank abandonment of decoration to men who are artists in the highest sense of that term, and the cessation of all attempts to rival barbaric and therefore unconscious designers. The complete failure of every attempt among modern European peoples to decorate as savages and semi-savages and nomad tribes and ignorant, low-caste Hindus decorate, ought to have demonstrated this truth; and the failure of the sincere and energetic attempt to revive mediæval methods in architecture ought to have helped in the demonstration. Now, at last, after years of vain effort, it begins to be seen that the lost art of making designs for ornament can be restored only by artists of the highest intellectual force, both original and acquired.

Labour and Life of the People. Volume I. East London. Edited by Charles Booth. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

THE merits of this book are so great that it is no easy task to set them forth in moderate terms. In the first place, it is a thoroughly scientific piece of statistical investigation. The facts are collected and verified with such care, and in such numbers, as to furnish a sufficient basis for induction, and the deductions are in the main indisputable. Then the work is characterized throughout by a sobriety of judgment and a conscientiousness of statement that dispose the reader to accept the opinions of the authors in the few instances where they offer suggestions of their own. The descriptive portions are really interesting social studies, and are evidently the work of observers well acquainted with their subjects. And, finally, the result of the whole investigation is to show the groundlessness of most social alarms, the falsity of many of the representations of sentimentalists, and the folly of the schemes of professional agitators. In short, we have here a solid mass of facts and conclusions which must be reckoned with by every one who hereafter threatens the dissolution or proposes the reconstruction of the present social order, if he would have serious audience.

But, apart from being a stumbling-block in the way of weak-minded benevolence, the work has the very positive merit of pointing out clearly to the charitable the lines upon which they must labor, and of furnishing them good reasons for hoping that their labor may be made productive. We have no doubt that many good people are suffering from a permanent depression of spirits on account of what they suppose to be the gloom over the future of society. They are not only saddened by the thought of the deepening misery of vast numbers of their fellow-creatures, but they believe that—

> "Nearer comes a hungry people, as a lion, creeping nigher,
> Glares at one that nods and winks before a slowly dying fire."

Not many persons are capable of the philosophy of Hezekiah and Louis XV. Certainly not a few wise men are troubled for what the future may have in store for their children, and we might almost say that educated women as a class cannot take their pleasures with a clear conscience, from a vague sense of responsibility for the unfairness with which pleasures are apportioned. As a cure for all such feeling, so far as it is morbid, this book may be heartily recommended. We know from it that matters are not growing worse, but better; we learn that they are not so bad as they were said to be; and we see that it is within human power to improve them very greatly.

So far as the danger of anarchy is concerned, Mr. Booth, after reviewing the evidence, declares: "The hordes of barbarians of whom we have heard, who, issuing from their slums, will one day overwhelm modern civilization, do not exist. There are barbarians, but they are a handful, a small and decreasing percentage; a disgrace but not a danger." As to the distribution of happiness in general, we think the testimony of those who have had experience among the poor will coincide with Mr. Booth's. Among his humble friends he found not uncommonly "wholesome, pleasant family life, very simple food, very regular habits, healthy bodies and healthy minds, affectionate relations of husbands and wives, mothers and sons, of elders with children, of friend with friend." As what he has to say concerning children particularly conveys a double lesson, we quote his opinion at some length:

"The children in class E, and still more in class D, have when young less chance of surviving than those of the rich; but I certainly think their lives are happier, free from the paraphernalia of servants, nurses, and governesses, always provided they have decent parents. They are more likely to suffer from spoiling than from harshness, for they are made much of, being commonly the pride of their mother, who will sacrifice much to see them prettily dressed, and the delight of their father's heart. This makes the home and the happiness of the parents; but it is not this, it is the constant occupation, which makes the children's lives so happy. They have their regular school hours, and when at home, as soon as they are old enough, there is 'mother' to help, and they have numbers of little friends. In class E they have for playground the back yard, in class D the even greater delights of the street. With really bad parents the story would be different, but men and women may be very bad, and yet love their children and make them happy. . . . I perhaps build too much on my slight experience, but I see nothing improbable in the general view that the simple, natural lives of working-class people tend to their own and their children's happiness more than the artificial, complicated existence of the rich."

The method of classification adopted is as follows: East London contains about 900,000 inhabitants, distributed according to their in-

comes roughly into eight grades: Class A, containing the lowest order of semi-criminals, loafers, and occasional workers; B, the "very poor," dependent upon casual earnings; C and D, the "poor," with intermittent and small regular earnings; E, those above the line of poverty, with regular standard earnings; F, G, and H, higher-class labor and lower and upper middle class. The divisions are, of course, to some extent arbitrary, but when a family has a sufficiently regular though bare income, such as 18s. to 21s. per week for a moderate number of members, it is called "poor," and "very poor" if it falls much below this standard. The census was taken in a very ingenious and thorough manner, but the details are too complicated for explanation here, nor can we even glance at the very skilful characterizations of the different classes. Their numbers are, for A, about 11,000, or one-fortieth of the population; B, 11.22 per cent.; C, 8.33; D, 14.46; E, 42.28; F, 13.60; G, 3.86; H, 5.02.

We are limited to a bare presentation of figures, but they are accompanied in the report with an enormous amount of information concerning East London as a whole, and its several parishes, the varieties of occupation, modes of life, details of expenditure, and habits and customs of the inhabitants. There are chapters upon the clubs and burial societies of the workingmen, the relations of the classes, "sweating," the Jewish community, the influx of population, and there is a series of chapters upon the different trades. Not the least valuable part of the book consists of the comments that are made incidentally by these experienced workers among the poor upon the causes of poverty, the change of feeling in regard to indiscriminate alms-giving, the effect of machinery in making employment constant, the migratory habits of the poor, the cessation of outdoor relief, and similar matters. We are embarrassed by the riches of information which is poured out before us, and can only urge all those who are interested in any form of charity to possess themselves of this book.

As to the "limited socialism" which Mr. Booth suggests as a possible remedy for the worst of the evils which he describes, it is free from the objectionable features of Socialism, and would be opposed, we think, only by professed Socialists. It is nothing more than the extension of the poor-law, or rather its application, upon scientific principles, to the miserable class of the "very poor." Of these it is generally true that they are out of work because they will not work and cannot work. They are "a selection of the unfit." The members of this class are constantly ground out of existence, but their place is taken by those who drop from other classes. If they could be brought under State regulation, they might be improved, and their children might be better started in life. Those who could not maintain the standard of living fixed by authority might be planted in "industrial groups," fed, taught, and worked by Government officers, and sent to the workhouse if they proved incorrigible.

As Mr. Booth declares that he rejects "any form of compulsion save the gradual pressure of a rising standard of life," it is not very clear how the subjects of this treatment are to be induced to undergo it; but as he is evidently a practical man, we suppose that he sees how the difficulty may be surmounted. His views are certainly moderate enough: "To open a little the portals of the poor-law or its administration, making within its courts a working guild under suitable discipline; to check charitable gifts, except to those who from age or infirmity are unfit for any work; to insist upon sanitation and to suppress overcrowding; to await and watch the results, ready to push forward as occasion served—this is all that could be done."

We have given a very inadequate account of a remarkable book. Its appearance will, we are confident, mark an era in the conception and the treatment of the evil of poverty in London, and it should cause a general concentration of charitable effort upon the lines that it indicates. The city of New York offers a field for similar investigation, less varied in interest, perhaps, but equally important; and it may be hoped that the work will be presently undertaken. The harvest is ripe, the laborers are plentiful, and all that is required is guidance of the intelligent character displayed by the editor of this volume.

The Military Annals of Lancaster, Mass., 1740-1865. By Henry S. Nourse, A.M. Lancaster. 1889.

AFTER five years' labor, Mr. Nourse has produced a companion volume to his 'Early Records of Lancaster,' and again demonstrated his eminent fitness to write a town history. As his aim was, in part, to procure and preserve lists of soldiers in the several wars under review, the 'Annals' are not adapted for continuous reading, like the 'Records.' Nevertheless, they are interspersed with passages and chapters which light up the past in a very entertaining manner. Such are the special "statistical and social annals" of the Revolutionary period, the account of the town's Loyalists, and the pleasant picture of Lancaster's golden age following the disastrous and unpopular war of 1812. In an appendix, too, the author returns to John Prescott, founder of the settlement, and head of a famous family. Of necessity, Mr. Nourse gives a general outline of the colonial wars in which New England was implicated, and colors his statistics with military reports and letters which breathe the spirit of the time. Such, for example, is Capt. Abijah Willard's narration of the way in which he executed sealed orders requiring him, in the Acadian expedition, "to burn all the houses that I found on the Road to the Bay of Verts." "This afternoon," he says, "I ordered the whole to be Drawed up in a Bodey and bid the french men march of, and sott fire to their Buildings and Left the women and children to Tack Care of themselues with grate Lamentation which I must Confess itt seemed to be sumthing shoking."

In the war of independence "almost every male citizen [of Lancaster] must have served at some period, either personally or by substitute"; and "fully one-fourth of the whole male population above the age of sixteen were kept constantly in the army during the most trying years of the conflict." Nevertheless, the town had its Loyalists in the most respectable classes, including the Capt. Willard who so reluctantly depopulated Acadia. He was riding on horseback to visit his farm in Beverly on the fateful morning of April 19,1775, when "he was turned from his course by the swarming out of minute-men at the summons of the couriers bringing the alarm from Lexington, and we find him next with the British in Boston. He never saw Lancaster again." From the heights of Boston, two months later, he stood by Gen. Gage as they watched the engagement at Bunker Hill, and recognized with the glass his brother-in-law, Col. William Prescott, in command of the rebels. He ultimately sought refuge in Nova Scotia, and there died in exile.

In 1765 there were more male than female children in the fighting town of Lancaster, though the proportion of sexes was reversed with the adult population. Families then averaged more than six individuals; in 1885, but four and a half—from which we must not infer too much as to longevity or rate of increase. Farming has of course fallen off; the town no longer has a large surplus of food for sale. In the distress caused by the depreciation of paper money during the Revolution, the town made vain efforts to fix prices of commodities, down to "Flip made of New England rum, Half a pint of rum in a mugg, 9d. a mugg," and of services, down to "Doctor's fees. Vomitt, 1s," etc. On June 28, 1779, the town "Voted that the price of the comodityes of the farmer and any other article do Not Rise any hier than at this time." Canute's tide was not less obedient. The town was somewhat remarkable for skilful craftsmen, and a Quaker cordwainer named Holder made ladies' shoes that were in great demand. Customers who went abroad still sent him their orders, and their French acquaintances also became his patrons, in preference to the handiwork of Paris. It is sad to think that this benighted shoemaker never knew what it was to need protection.

The genealogical value of this volume, as of its predecessor, is very considerable, and few can estimate the pains which have gone to the making of it. Mr. Nourse is humorous as an antiquarian should be, and his work throughout gives evidence of a cultivated and humane spirit. The book is faultlessly printed, and is adorned with several portraits.

The Beginnings of New England; or, The Puritan Theocracy in its Relation to Civil and Religious Liberty. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 16mo, pp. 296.

A BORROWED and adapted title leads the observant reader to anticipate little originality in the volume thus heralded. In Mr. Fiske's case we have the further caution that this was a course of lectures, delivered at various places, and now put in print. Mr. Fiske is by no means devoid of learning—in fact, he has studied his subject carefully; but he has sought a popular method of stating results. As opposed to the reverent researches of Palfrey, Ellis, and Dexter, he poses as the "candid friend" of our Puritan ancestor, and with the proverbial result. He is not as thorough as Peter Oliver, or even Brooks Adams, but his aim is the same—to present the defects of our ancestors as a correction to past excessive praise.

The first chapter is wholly unconnected with New England by any reasonable link, except in the sense that all the past has affected the present. The remaining chapters contain a sketch of New England history, showing all the evidences of a practised pen, and very easy and pleasant reading it is. Mr. Fiske starts off with the proposition that "among the significant events which prophesied the final triumph of the English over the Roman idea, perhaps the most significant—the one which marks most incisively the dawning of a new era—was the migration of English Puritans across the Atlantic to repeat in a new environment and on a far grander scale the work which their forefathers had wrought in Britain." This reappears in various forms at various points, but is never wrought out, and is curiously suggestive of the methods of the lecturer. That our nation to-day is different from what it was a century ago, is a truism. But as every man has a right to give his own explanation of the chief cause, and as the influential causes are so

numerous, we must deny that Mr. Fiske can settle the question authoritatively. We may say that the Louisiana purchase was the real turning-point; another man may prefer to attribute everything to steam and electricity. Certainly most people will give little force to the fact that the Massachusetts Great and General Court was a more truly representative body than the British Parliament, or consider it the main cause of the present condition of the world.

Mr. Fiske, for a specialist, has been very unfortunate in his few personal touches. Genealogy is evidently a mystery to him. His few attempts to give precision to his pictures are unluckily all wrong. On p. 103 he says of Gov. Thomas Dudley, that "he represented the elder branch of that Norman family, to the younger branch of which belonged the unfortunate husband of Lady Jane Grey and the unscrupulous husband of Amy Robsart." On p. 258 he calls Gov. Joseph Dudley a kinsman of the Earl of Leicester. The fact is that we know the name of the father of Thomas Dudley, but nothing else of his pedigree; and in genealogy an unproved claim is absolutely worthless. There were many Dudleys in England not allied to the ennobled line. On p. 193, Mr. Fiske says "it is interesting to observe that the Royalist commander who surrendered to him was Sir Henry Washington, own cousin to the grandfather of George Washington." It is very much more "interesting to observe" that Mr. Fiske is ignorant of Col. Chester's complete refutation of that particular Washington pedigree. On p. 114 he speaks of the "pugnacious Welshman, Roger Williams." For this ascription of nationality he can plead tradition, and the fact that he wrote before the publication of the latest researches of Mr. Waters, which, as our readers already know, render it almost certain that Williams was a London boy.

Its defects notwithstanding, we trust Mr. Fiske's book will have a wide circulation. It is attractive, its facts mainly correct, and its intense Americanism will do no harm as a foundation for a young student, or even as the entire supply for a casual reader.

Gleanings from Japan. By W. G. Dickson. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons.

Dr. Dickson's book possesses unusual interest, because it is the record of a well-equipped traveller who has seen both old and new Japan. The opportunity is not often given to behold twice in its differing phases a people that has as completely changed its outward forms of life as the snake that has cast its skin, or the deer that has shed its horns. It is very evident, despite his many cheery pages, that our author still looks upon the process as but half complete, and that to him the new skin is yet very thin, and the new horns still "in the velvet." He does not seem able to conceal either his admiration for the ancient forms of political and social life, or his scepticism as to the results of the growth whose final outcome is not yet apparent.

In 1862, after several years of study of life in China, Dr. Dickson came to Japan for a stay of some months. Not content with the usual observations of foreigners, he began a systematic study of the Government handbooks and such political literature as was then available. The fruits of his study were seen in his sketch of 'Japan,' which in size and mechanical outfit is a twin volume to the present handsome book. Only one who has used the work on the soil of Japan can fully appreciate its many merits, despite the uncouth spelling of native names, which so mars the pages as to make it repulsive to many would-be readers. It is much to be regretted that Dr. Dickson should, in the volume now before us, perpetuate such a barbarous transliteration. To do this when dictionaries, grammars, and a whole library of transactions of learned societies and writings of popular authors conform to a standard natural system, is to invite neglect and dust for a highly meritorious work to which there are only too few companions.

Though Dr. Dickson helped, as he tells us, to "surreptitiously huddle out of the country" the four pioneers of the army of young students who have since invaded America and Europe, yet he does not seem to comprehend clearly the true causes of the recent revolutions, or rather reformations. He left the country long before the epochal year of 1868, and, despite his study of the Government blue-books, the Jesuit fathers and foreign authors, and even with the help of Japanese friends who could speak imperfect English, his view of the recent political history of Japan is rather that of the hong and club at Yokohama, than of the student who has lived long inside the country among natives. The four young gentlemen whom he rowed off to the English steamer, and for whose sake he hoodwinked the official spies, are now the highest officers of the Government, and, as the impartial student, we think, will declare, statesmen of no mean order. Yet, notwithstanding what the author has himself seen within a quarter of a century, we find him in one of several passages of similar import saying, on page 86, after a tribute to the constructive genius of Iyéyasu, "It requires a man to build a house, but rats may bring a house down, and the spirit of the age is with the rats." Now, without going into a controversy with the author as to his opinions thus frequently asserted, are we unfair in suggesting that this thought is rather that of his "fountain of information," Otomo Sadaijiro, a most loving admirer of old feudal Japan, than of an impartial student who knows the history of ancient as well as of modern Japan?

The unusual merit of Dr. Dickson's volume makes his opinions and judgments worth noticing. Although he travelled much, in his journeys made in 1883-'84, and saw many things of interest in unbeaten tracks, yet it is not as a transcript of a tourist's ephemeral jottings that the book will be read. It belongs rather to the few solid and enduring works of value on Japan that deserve a permanent place in the library. It is a rich sheaf of the best grain not found in other men's bundles. Familiar with the local history and the best native guide-books, having withal the assistance of a scholarly Japanese gentleman, and himself a man of literary and scientific culture, Dr. Dickson's second volume, like his first, will outweigh in permanent worth about a dozen of the average books made by people who have peeped at the country. The volume contains an index which ends on the four hundredth page, and is illustrated with outline drawings from photographs.

The Story of Phœnicia. By George Rawlinson, M.A. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A strip of land, 200 miles long and with an average width of less than thirty miles, was the advance guard of Asia for the civilization of Europe—such is, in brief, the "story" of Phœnicia. Shut off by mountain ranges from hostile armies, situated on the sea, with inexhaustible supplies of timber fit for ships and oars near by, supplied by the sea with the materials for the richest dye ever known, it would have been strange indeed had this nation not become the chief manufacturing, and more especially trading, community of the ancient world. The Phœnicians were a Semitic tribe who migrated to a strip of the Syrian seaboard. Judged by their literary remains, they would be esteemed the least of their family, yet their contributions to civilization can hardly be overestimated. They built the ships of Egypt, Palestine, Persia, and Greece in turn. As Gen. Cesnola's discoveries showed, they indelibly left their impress upon Cyprus. They sent a colony to England, and in all probability worked the tin mines of Cornwall. They built the temple of Solomon and circumnavigated Africa. It was from them that Carthage sprang, at once the enemy and instructor of Rome. They were the one people of antiquity with whom foreign intercourse and war were not synonyms. They were the discoverers of glass, their metal-workers were the best of the time, their engravings on ivory have been found in every capital of western Asia. Their alphabetic writing is the parent of every alphabetic system now in use, our own included.

Though a small country, or rather aggregation of cities (for they never formed a real kingdom, but only a confederacy of independent cities, which, as a rule, but not always, acted together in case of an emergency), they retained their independence longer than any of the smaller western Asiatic countries. Phœnicia became tributary to Assyria in the ninth century B. C., recovered her independence two hundred years later, submitted after a long siege to Nebuchadnezzar, became part of the Persian Empire when Cyrus conquered Babylonia, assisted Xerxes in his disastrous war with Greece, baffled for a time but finally succumbed to Alexander, became a Roman province—and died.

Of this fascinating story Canon Rawlinson has made the most possible. Unfortunately, Phœnician remains are scanty. A few sepulchral inscriptions, and some fragmentary remains in Greek literature, with scattered notices in the Bible, furnish the chief materials for the history of Phœnicia. There is plenty of room for play of the imagination, but in the main our author's pictures are sober. The great find at Sidon in 1887 lends the hope that Phœnicia, like Assyria and Egypt, may yet yield her secrets to us.

One can hardly avoid the suspicion that the book was written up to an established size, since it might well have been shorter. The necessity for the use of Hebrew types in a popular book of this sort is not apparent, but, the determination having been reached, the proof-reading should have been done with a little more care (*e. g.*, pp. 32 and 36); and the query as to the identity of *Baal* and *Bel* should have been omitted. Any one familiar with the discoveries in Semitic phonetics during the last ten or fifteen years could have given Canon Rawlinson a satisfactory explanation of the apparent difference in the number of "root letters," as he calls them.

Le Livre du Centenaire du Journal des Débats, 1789-1889. Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

Founded within a few months of each other, the *Times* of London and the *Journal des Débats* of Paris have recently celebrated each its centenary; and it is, perhaps, characteristic of the finer literary and artistic taste of the French journal that it chose to commemorate the hundredth anniversary of its first number by the production of one of the most sumptuous volumes issued of late years from the French

press. A broad and noble page, abundant facsimiles, frequent etched portraits, with many other illustrations, manifest a desire to produce a work worthy of the occasion. It is hardly disputable that the *Times* is the typical English newspaper, the journal which most of its rivals seek to copy and to equal. In like manner, although without the same indisputable preeminence, the *Journal des Débats* is a typical French paper. A brief comparison of the *Times* with the *Débats* brings out the essential difference between the newspapers of London and of Paris, revealing distinctly that the prime object of the former is to get the news, while the aim of the latter is to have the best opinions. It is the difference between mere information and skilled criticism—criticism of politics, of law, of economy, of science, of literature, and of art. Most of the writers for the *Times*, in so far as they are known, have been Englishmen of education, capable of expressing an every-day judgment in a dignified manner; it is, perhaps, too much to say that they were mostly mediocrities, but, of a certainty, they were commonplace. Great men have often written *to* the *Times*, but they have very rarely written *for* it. The *Débats*, on the other hand, has a list of constant contributors which includes very many of the very foremost names in the history of French literature and politics during the past hundred years. A note in this 'Livre du Centenaire' tells us that of the 700 known contributors to the *Débats* during its first century, 48 have been members of the French Academy, and 132 (or nearly a fifth) have been members of one class or another of the Institute. Among the best known writers for the *Débats* during its hundred years of life are Chateaubriand, Benjamin Constant, Saint-Marc Girardin, Berlioz, Jules Janin, Prévost-Paradol, Laboulaye, Michel Chevalier, Littré, Renan, Taine, John Lemoinne, Paul Bourget, J. J. Weiss, and Jules Lemaitre. Among those who contributed to this 'Livre du Centenaire,' as a testimony of their regard for the *Débats*, are the Duc d'Aumale, Alexandre Dumas *fils*, E. Legouvé, Victor Cherbuliez, Ludovic Halévy, and Paul Leroy-Beaulieu.

Although the *Débats* is no longer emphatically the first of French newspapers, its position is still most honorable; and as we look down the pages of the 'Livre du Centenaire,' we can see how strong its influence has been on its fellows and on the development of the Parisian press generally. The serial story, for example, which now occupies the ground-floor of every French daily, was early received by the *Débats*, which published Soulié's 'Mémoires du Diable,' Sue's 'Mystères de Paris,' and Dumas's 'Comte de Monte-Cristo.' It was the *Débats* which first reported in full the proceedings of the Academy and of the other learned bodies, and which first began to pay regular attention to science. After the war of 1870 the *Débats* was the paper which led the way in the attention it paid to foreign literatures. M. de Vogüé, for example, keeps it informed about Russian literature, and in the list of contributors we find the names of Mr. T. B. Aldrich and of Mr. Marion Crawford, because French translations of novels of theirs have appeared in the *Débats* as serials. In this attention to science and to foreign literatures the *Temps* has vied with the *Débats*, and in the value of its correspondence, artistic criticism, and editorial writing generally, the *Temps* now seems to us to surpass the *Débats*. Indeed, all things considered, we hold the *Temps* to be distinctly the best of Parisian newspapers, and to represent what is best in the French character. It is the *Figaro* which has won a wider popularity by not representing what is best in the French character, by pandering to the taste for the sensational in ways not unlike those of the London *Telegraph* and the New York *World*.

Readers of Mr. Brownell's acute essays on 'French Traits,' desiring to see ample manifestations of the intelligence which the American critic finds at the bottom of French character, cannot do better than to read, for example, M. Renan's essay on M. de Sacy's management of the *Débats* during the Second Empire, and M. Jules Simon's account of the *Débats* during the Restoration; or, perhaps better yet, M. Halévy's description of the old house in which the *Débats* has found shelter for a century, or M. Jules Lemaitre's analysis of his chief predecessors as the dramatic critic of the paper, Geoffroy, Janin, Weiss. It is in the criticism of the arts, literary, pictorial, and dramatic, that we must admit the enormous superiority of the *Journal des Débats* over the London *Times*. Upon all artistic subjects the judgments of the *Times* are likely to be dull and dignified, commonplace and conventional, empty at bottom, but eminently respectable in form. An American visitor in London, after reading a rather platitudinous article on the Royal Academy in the London *Times*, ventured to suggest to an American artist who had lived long in France, but who exhibited frequently in England, that the art critic of the *Times* didn't apparently know much about art. "Know anything about art?" the artist returned cynically; "why, he knows less than my coachman—and I don't keep one!" This is a hard saying, and it probably goes beyond strict justice; but no one could ever say a thing of this sort about a specialist who wrote for the *Débats*.

Father Damien; A Journey from Cashmere to his Home in Hawaii. By Edward Clifford. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THIS little book hardly adds to our knowledge of Father Damien. Most people who read the newspapers know already that the name of the heroic priest and servant of God and man was Joseph Damien de Veuster; that he was a Belgian by birth, who went young into missionary work in the Pacific, and from the year 1873 to his death last spring devoted himself to the care of the leper settlement at Molokai. Most people, too, have enough general acquaintance with his life of labor and sacrifice to admire and love him. If they desire to add to their information some slight notion of how the good father looked, and, besides, some scanty knowledge of the disease of which he was the victim, they may read Mr. Clifford's little volume. But the only really valuable thing that they will find, we think, is the statement that, saint and lover of men as F. Damien was, he did not escape calumny. "Scorpio still follows Libra in the zodiac," even in the South Seas.

But, if we see not much of F. Damien in these pages, we see a good deal of Mr. Clifford, who is not always happy in his autobiographic essays. There is a portrait at the beginning of the volume. It represents a young, resolute face with an expression on it of pity mixed with pain.

Our Journey to the Hebrides. By Joseph Pennell and Elizabeth Robins Pennell. Harper & Bros. 1889.

IT appears that Mr. and Mrs. Pennell did not wish to take a tramp in Scotland, but editorial necessities overcame their distaste; they started thus with clouded countenances, and went upon their way, only to be more and more sure that Scottish travelling was not to their liking. The prettily bound volume into which their magazine articles have been bound is consequently rather dreary reading. It is one long complaint, devoted to the woes of the weather, of walking with knapsacks, and of the varied unpleasantness possible to the Hebrides and other places Scottish. Only the woes of the crofters exceeded their own, and afford a black background for their misfortunes by the roadside. It is not strange that papers written in so inhospitable and fault-finding a vein should have met with not very tolerant criticism from lovers of the Highlands and the West Coast. It was well to tell the story of the crofters and to awaken sympathy for them; but if a traveller has found only weariness, wet, and hunger on his journey, and has come back in so discontented a frame of mind as to find Scott's novels stupid reading after just visiting their scenes, he may be sure that he has missed seeing what the country had to show, and he ought not to expect the public to be interested in mere discomforts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bixby, J. T. Religion and Science as Allies. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 30 cents.
Edgerton, J. A. Poems. Marietta, O.: E. R. Alderman & Sons.
Great Words from Great Americans. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Kent, Prof. C. W. Elene: An Old English Poem. Boston: Ginn & Co. 65 cents.
Le Clerc, M. E. Mistress Beatrice Cope. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Phyfe, W. H. P. Seven Thousand Words Often Mispronounced. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Poor's Manual of Railroads, for 1889. H. V. & H. W. Poor.
Richards, J. Manual of Machine Construction for Engineers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.
Richardson, L. Lord Dunmersey. John Delay. 50 cents.
Savage, T. Manual of Industrial and Commercial Intercourse between the United States and Spanish America. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.; New York: N. Ponce de Leon.
Snyder, W. L. Laws [of N. Y.] Authorizing the Incorporation of Clubs, Societies, and Associations. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 50 cents.
Spofford, A. R. American Almanac for 1889. Am. News Co.
Steinitz, W. The Modern Chess Instructor. Part I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XIX. Finch—Forman. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. The Morgesons. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Strong, Prof. A. H. Systematic Theology. 2d ed. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $5.

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Johns Hopkins University, BALTIMORE.

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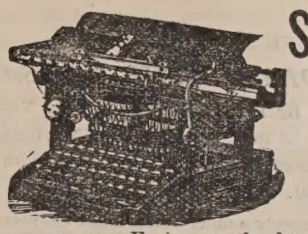

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....		$3,865,166 38
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888.....		1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,253,404 39
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....		$3,867,269 52
Losses paid during the same period.....	$1,998,897 36	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$687,287 98	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....		$7,501,315 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..		2,469,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....		569,947 20
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....		1,374,912 12
Cash in Bank.....		252,812 02
Amount.....		$12,167,986 34

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1884 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending December 31, 1888, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the seventh of May next.

By order of the Board,
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 5, 1889.

The Week.

THE public-debt statement for August, just made public, shows another increase, and a large one. What Republican "spell-binder" of former campaigns can have forgotten how constantly useful were the public-debt statements of other Republican administrations to him, and how he clinched his argument in behalf of the honesty and economy of those administrations by citing the millions of dollars of decrease in the public debt month by month? Under Harrison there has come a change. That this change is not due to any causes regularly operating at this time of year becomes evident from the following comparison of debt changes for July and August under Presidents Cleveland and Harrison:

	UNDER CLEVELAND.	
July, 1885.	Decrease	$8,662,790
Aug., 1885.	Decrease	2,879,052
July, 1886.	Decrease	9,049,103
Aug., 1886.	Decrease	1,910,699
July, 1887.	Decrease	4,844,896
Aug., 1887.	Decrease	4,809,475
July, 1888.	Decrease	4,137,299
Aug., 1888.	Decrease	7,324,675
	UNDER HARRISON.	
July, 1889.	Increase	1,317,312
Aug., 1889.	Increase	6,076,692

Much as the average Republican may admire Tanner and his policy towards the Treasury, there is in these figures matter to give him pause. Over $7,000,000 *increase* in the public debt under the Republican President during the two months in which, during each year of President Cleveland's Administration, there was an average *decrease* of about $10,000,000! How will this sound on the hustings if it is kept up? It is death to the surplus, surely, but what is it to the taxpayer?

Commissioner Tanner's policy of rerating pensions has got a member of the Indiana Legislature named Wilson into serious trouble. Wilson has been devoting himself for several months past to having rerated the pensions of soldiers' widows who had been deprived of them by remarrying. His plan was very simple. He hunted up widows whose second husbands had died, induced them to swear that their second marriages had not been legally made, and then brought suit to have the marriages annulled. When he had won these suits, he applied to Tanner for rerating and back pay. He succeeded in getting this for no less than sixteen widows, the back pay amounting in some cases to $1,200. Something suspicious about one of the cases led to an investigation, and the result is, that Wilson and one of his sixteen widows are now awaiting examination by the Grand Jury on the charge of conspiring to defraud the Government. It has been shown that this widow was married a second time in 1873, and had three children by her second husband. The latter died a few years ago, and Wilson induced her to swear that she was never legally married to him, had the marriage annulled, got her pension rerated, with back pay from 1873 amounting to over $1,000. The other cases are similar to this. Wilson, of course, got a handsome commission in each case. It would be interesting to know in how many other States Tanner's "liberal to the boys" policy has led to similar frauds.

The Grand Army of the Republic discussed Tanner on Thursday, and showed a degree of moderation in the matter which was not expected. A Kansas delegate led off with a resolution "heartily endorsing his conduct of the Pension Bureau," and "denouncing the bitter and malignant criticisms of the press upon his official conduct." The resolution was of the same order as Tanner's recent interview in which he denounced his critics as "whelps"; and, judging from the tone of most Grand Army deliverances, its prompt passage was to have been anticipated. There were delegates, however, who appeared to have some conception of the proprieties, and they objected to such action. "Who knows anything about Tanner's administration of the Pension Bureau?" asked one of these delegates, adding such sound doctrine as this:

"We should not try to force the Administration to suspend this investigation. I was in Washington last week, and I heard it charged upon the streets and everywhere else that men employed in the bureau were all getting their cases made special and taken up immediately and rerated much higher, while the poor devils of the rank and file have to stand back and wait. I told them that it was a lie; but if he has done that and we pass the resolution, we endorse such action on his part. This encampment knows nothing of the details of Tanner's work and cannot pass judgment upon it. We may believe it is all right, but we do not know it. If we pass the resolution and the Committee of Investigation should exonerate him, the opposition press would say that the Administration dare not oppose the G. A. R., and they would have good reason to say it."

The upshot of it all was the adoption of a substitute resolution declaring "that we thank President Harrison for the appointment of our comrade, James Tanner, as Commissioner of Pensions, and that, notwithstanding the assault made on him, we declare our complete confidence in his integrity, and our approval of his endeavors to do all that can be done, under the laws, for the veterans of the war; and in connection with him we ask a full investigation of his administration of the affairs of the Pension Bureau." Except for the assertion that there has been an "assault" on him, there is little to criticise in this resolution, while the demand for "a full investigation of his administration" is most fortunate. The necessity for a thoroughgoing investigation is made more plain by the revelation, through the Washington correspondence of the *World*, that Tanner has resumed the practice of rerating pensions for his cronies and giving them great sums of money in the shape of back pay. When the rerating scandals were brought to light a few weeks ago, Secretary Windom became alarmed lest the surplus should be exhausted and the Government run into debt unless a halt were called in this business of handing around such sums as $5,000 and $6,000. A halt was called, but it appears that Tanner has resumed operations on the same line. The *World's* correspondent gives the names and amounts in eleven cases where pensioners have been rerated and granted back pay in sums aggregating $72,622.92—or about $6,600 apiece. The most offensive case is that of Hiram Smith, Deputy Commissioner of Pensions, who draws a salary of $3,600 a year in that capacity, and yet has been granted a large pension, with $6,035.72 in the shape of back pay.

We should think that genuine army veterans, proud of their record, would look with great suspicion on the announcement made at Milwaukee last week, that the Grand Army organization has increased 21,431 members during the last year. The war ended twenty-five years ago, and, in the natural course of events, the number of surviving veterans should show a yearly decrease. The Grand Army, too, is no novel scheme, but has been gathering soldiers into its membership for many years, and it ought to feel the effects of the soldiers' death-list. The rush to enroll as members now can have but one explanation. The high-tariff Republicans have found in this organization of soldiers a possible means of so depleting the Federal Treasury that a curb may be put on the demand for decreased taxation; and the organization, in lending itself to the scheme to make every reputed soldier the recipient of Government alms, and in condemning every effort at Washington to sift the honest from the dishonest applicants for pensions, is attracting to itself every needy person in the land who can make out any ground of eligibility. Speaking of the Grand Army the other day, the Philadelphia *Telegraph* said: "As every one knows, there is a very considerable portion of the organization made up of men who only saw, as it were, the edge of the great conflict, who went into service almost at the close of the war, but who now indiscriminately share the honors of an organization which should command the very highest respect of all patriotic men." It seems strange that among the whole number of genuine soldiers who attend the Grand Army meetings, there is not one to raise his voice in protest against the present uses to which the organization is put.

The fight which the Republican Boys have been making to gain possession of the Surveyor's office in the Custom-house has met with another check, but it is evident that

they are pretty certain to win it in the near future, probably before the work of the fall campaign opens. The history of the fight is an interesting one. When Surveyor Beattie came into office, he abolished the system of employing weighers' and gaugers' laborers and other like assistants by the hour, and employed them at $2.50 a day. The change is said to have been an improvement in many ways. Since the Republicans "came into their own again" there has been great anxiety to have the old system restored in order to get places for the ward workers of the Republican Machine. As there are about three hundred and fifty men employed, it will be seen that the fight is worth making. In July last an order was received from the Treasury Department abolishing the $2.50 a day system, and authorizing the employment of laborers at thirty cents an hour. This was scarcely issued before it was suspended till September 1. Many reasons have been given for the suspension, but one of the most powerful was a protest from the 'Longshoremen's Union, which had fixed the rate of wages for such work at forty cents an hour. It was known by the Government that thirty cents an hour would largely increase the expenditures of the office, because in times of political activity excuses could be found for employing almost any number of men. To raise the rate to forty cents would simply make matters worse, while to leave it at thirty cents would bring upon the party the wrath of organized labor. The problem appears to be a perplexing one to the Treasury Department, for on Thursday an order came to continue the suspension till September 30. The appetite of the Boys long since passed the limits of control, and their present condition is pitiable. The party is likely to lose the services of many of its best workers on election day if the change is not made soon, and for that reason we think it will be made.

An early demand is made in the leading journals of both political parties in this State for the selection of "good men" to the next Legislature. We are glad to see it, and hope it will be heeded by the nominating conventions in all parts of the State, and especially in this city. Unless there is a change for the better, the city will be worse off than usual at Albany next winter. The President has deprived us of the services of Mr. Crosby by giving him an appointment in Egypt, and the only other member upon whom we were able formerly to depend for honest legislation, Mr. Hamilton, has put an end to his public career by the shocking performances which are now set forth daily at such great length in the newspapers. In the last session, both these young men, who had previously been faithful to the interests of the city, faltered at critical moments, and even gave their support to notoriously vicious measures. The cause of Mr. Crosby's change of front was afterwards revealed by his appointment from the President through "Tom" Platt. He was obliged to refrain from opposing bad legislation in order to gain Platt's approval, but he went beyond what was required of him when he sought to defend his course by writing abusive letters to the press for criticising him. Aside from Messrs. Crosby and Hamilton, the last New York delegation to the Assembly was of very little service to the city, and if the next one is to be an improvement upon this, there will have to be a great change in the character of the nominations.

That civil-service reform amounted to something under Mr. Cleveland is illustrated by a list which the Washington correspondent of the Louisville *Courier-Journal* furnishes that paper, of the dates when the terms of postmasters in Kentucky appointed by the President expire. Of about forty such officials, two hold commissions signed by Mr. Cleveland in February, 1889, two during the year 1888, nine during 1887, and nine during 1886, their Republican predecessors having been allowed to serve out their terms. So far from having made a "clean sweep," therefore, Mr. Cleveland made scarcely any changes in the chief post-offices of Kentucky until the four years for which Mr. Arthur had commissioned postmasters ran out. The Washington correspondent of the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press* recently showed that the same rule was applied in Minnesota, where there are nearly sixty Presidential postmasters, twelve of whom were appointed during Mr. Cleveland's last year, nineteen in 1887, and fifteen in 1886.

The sudden rise into a sort of eminence of an obscure and somewhat ridiculous young man, simply because he happens to be the son of a gentleman elected to the Presidency, and his progress in foreign countries as somebody whom Americans are apparently proud of and like strangers to see, is one of the disagreeable phenomena of the day. There would be some excuse or palliation for it if we in any way recognized the heredity principle in our system of government, or even in our social arrangements. Nobody's son but the President's is a bit the better in the eyes of the public for being his father's son. On no point of social ethics do Americans generally insist more firmly than that every man shall stand on his feet and make his own position. It is, as a rule, only at dinner-parties that it does a man any good to have had an eminent father or grandfather. And the rule would be strictly applied to a President's son, to the great advantage of public morals and manners, but for the spoils system. It is because he stands near to the dispenser of patronage, the lavish and not over-particular bestower of post-offices and things "equally as good," that the country is afflicted with the itinerant professional Presidential son, who figures to foreigners as a sort of chromo "heir apparent," the fine flower of American society, as if the people, when they voted for Gen. Harrison, meant to royalize the whole family. If offices were distributed as they were meant to be when the Government was established, either in fear of God or with a decent regard for the opinion of mankind, this new plague could never have come upon us. It is because he is supposed to be an "inflooence" that we have to follow the movements of youths like Mr. Russell Harrison round the world with the national eye, and receive him on his return, with flowers, in our best tug. But it is a process which perverts the public judgment and lowers the public standards both about men and things.

Republican newspapers at the North which want to understand the situation in Virginia will do well to put the *Valley Virginian* of Staunton on their exchange lists. It is an ably edited journal, which, in its own words, "has maintained its consistency and its integrity as a Republican journal in defiance of persecution, proscription, and ostracism that few editors of papers have been called upon to endure." It declares that it will not support Mahone for Governor, because the body that nominated him was not a Republican Convention, representing the sentiment of the party in the State; because "his election would be a calamity to the commonwealth, in that it would paralyze industrial progress, arrest the inflow of capital and enterprise, and inaugurate a reign of hate and revenge that would disturb and aggravate every relation of business, and every influence that contemplates the material progress of the State"; and because "it would be a menace to the Republican party of the nation, in that it would be an endorsement of bossism." It therefore advises all self-respecting Republicans to vote against him, and predicts that he will be beaten by from 25,000 to 50,000 majority.

The *Virginian* addresses an earnest appeal to the New York *Tribune*, which applies equally to all the Northern Republican organs which have followed the *Tribune's* lead, to cease lending countenance to Mahone, on the ground that they know nothing about the internal workings of Mahone's machine, which is characterized as "the most cruel and relentless political despotism ever known in this country," and that the influence which it represents, if successful in Virginia, "will wreck the Republican party of the country." The difficulty about this sort of an appeal, however, is that the Republican press is generally committed to bossism. Mahone only represents in the South what Quay represents in the North, and there is hardly a Republican paper of any prominence in the North which protests against the dominance of Quay.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia has joined hands with the *American*, temporarily, in decrying the tariff-protected Trusts. Like the *American*, it considers their existence a menace to the protective system. "The protective system," it says, "cannot continue in existence unless it commends itself to the sound judgment and the self-interest of the mass of the people. If they perceive that it will promote the general interests of their

country, while in the long run it gives them low prices, they will maintain it; but beyond doubt they will not vote for a tariff to exclude them from low European prices if American manufacturers, behind the tariff shelter, are going to combine to shut them out from low American prices. *A community composed of men willing year after year to vote to let somebody rob them is hardly fit for free government, and men of that class are scarce in this country.*" That the support which the *Manufacturer* gives to the *American* is likely to be only temporary and fitful, we infer from another article in the same issue (September 2), urging that the right way to discomfit the Sugar Trust is not to reduce the duties on sugar, but to "stimulate the production of beet and sorghum sugar." Can anybody tell us how long we have been working at the beet and sorghum problems? More than twenty years on beet and nearly thirty on sorghum, and all this time we have had the "stimulus" of tariff duties of two and a half to five cents per pound.

Mr. Simeon E. Baldwin, in discussing, before the Bar Association at Chicago on Thursday, the growth of journalism, seems to have somewhat overrated what has been done within the last century by way of putting "a new limitation on the suffrage" in the shape of minority representation. He speaks of its adoption "twenty years ago by the British Parliament for the election of its own members from some of the larger constituencies," as well as its adoption in Illinois at elections of members of the Legislature, and in Pennsylvania for the government of her private corporations. As a matter of fact, the system has declined in popular favor in England, and was definitively abandoned in the election of members of Parliament under the Distribution Bill of 1885. The large "three-cornered constituencies," as they were called, in which the minority had a member of their own, were cut up into small "one-member districts," in each of which the majority has its own way as of old. In fact, the theory of minority representation owed much of its vogue twenty years ago to the powerful advocacy of John Stuart Mill, then in the zenith of his fame and influence. Since his death it has lost ground, in large part through the excessive zeal of its advocates, of whom the ablest and most prominent was Mr. Courtney, the present Chairman of Committees of the House of Commons. They claimed more for it than they were ever able to get ordinary men to see in it, and asked sacrifices and labors in its behalf which were too much for human nature in its present stage.

The *Tribune* will have it that the London strike is all along of free trade. But we should think the sapient originator of this idea would hesitate to produce it in the presence of such occurrences as the Louisiana riot on Sunday, the like of which has never been seen in a free-trade country. An excursion train filled with women and children is deliberately fired upon by persons waiting for it at the station, and the passengers have to "fly in all directions, shouting and screaming and leaving dishes, baskets, and hats and shoes behind them." A similar conflict was reported to be imminent at Shell Mound in Tennessee, as well as in New River Valley, Fayette County, W. Va. We hope our protectionist friends enjoy these spectacles. It is idle to say the high tariff has nothing to do with them. We answer by asking whether anything of the kind occurs in England or in the colony of Victoria. Are trains full of colored men and women ever fired on even in any country where the duties on imports are low—say Turkey, for instance?

The London dock companies have a responsibility put upon them in the present crisis such as no commercial body in England has ever before had to face, for if they yield to the huge combination now made against them, it will be the same thing as transferring the control of their business to the Socialist leaders—namely, Burns, Hyndman, Cunningham & Co.—and a repetition of the attack on some other trade or industry would be sure to occur before long. The present leaders are men superior in every way to those who engineer strikes in New York, but they are as unfit as any men in the world for the power of making organized attacks on trade, or industry, or capital. The London dock laborers now on strike are, perhaps, the lowest class of labor in England. They are the drift from the country, who hang around the docks for jobs by the hour, and live literally from hand to mouth. Anybody with strong arms can do their work. Their sole trouble is that there are twice too many of them where they are. The only effective remedy for their distress is to send half of them away. Giving them what they ask—sixpence instead of fivepence per hour, and engagements for not less than four hours—would have only a momentary effect on their condition. It would draw thousands more from the country districts to compete for the work, and London would then have more discontented laborers than ever.

The Tories are apparently making one of their old-fashioned attempts to "dish the Liberals" by offering to endow a Catholic university in Ireland—an offer which the Parnellites are said to be disposed to accept—of course as an instalment of their just rights. The object of this is to mollify the Catholic clergy and detach them from the home-rule cause, and also to make a split between the Parnellites and the Liberals. The Liberals count on the Parnellites refusing to make any compromise with the common enemy, and especially a compromise of this sort, which is sure to offend the English Nonconformists, who compose the bone and sinew of the Liberal party. Although the Nonconformists' hatred of "Popery" has softened into hostility to "Romanism" since the great fight of forty years ago against the grant to Maynooth, the well-known Catholic divinity college, they are not yet ready for the establishment, with British Government funds, of a denominational university which would inevitably be, as all Catholic institutions of learning are, governed by the clergy. The disgust of the English Nonconformists, however, would be nothing compared to the disgust of the "loyal Orangemen" of Ulster, for whose future and welfare the Tories have thus far shown the greatest tenderness. It is true they do not constitute a very formidable voting force, as they only send ten or twelve members to the House of Commons, but they almost make up for their numerical weakness by their ardor and vociferousness. The Tories can cite plenty of Liberal arguments in favor of the establishment of a university of this sort in Ireland, as the gratification of a legitimate popular desire. But it is certain, on the other hand, that there is not a Catholic university in the world whose influence is not hostile to popular government.

The demand which Mr. Washburn has made on the Swiss Government for compensation for the arrest and false imprisonment of four American tourists, raises seriously a question which has often been raised jocosely: What can be done to enforce a demand against Switzerland by a Power which has no adjoining territory? France, Italy, Austria, and Germany could all bring armed pressure to bear on Switzerland, but what could England and America do if Switzerland chose to snap her fingers at them? She has no ports, no maritime trade, no foreign possessions, and, in fact, is absolutely unassailable by any but border nations. It would seem as if the only mode for us to get satisfaction, in case the Swiss sense of honor and fair play failed us, would be to capture a leading hotel-keeper when on his travels in winter, and hold him for a ransom.

The Comte de Paris's alliance with Boulanger, or at all events his willingness to use Boulanger, and get his friends to take the adventurer seriously, has been a sad disappointment to many of his admirers, and is, it is understood, greatly disapproved by his uncle, the Duc d'Aumale. It will probably do more than anything that has happened since the death of the Comte de Chambord to make the royalist cause seem hopeless. Boulanger, in the meantime, far from answering any of the disgraceful charges against him, has issued another manifesto denouncing his enemies, and has nominated forty candidates to represent his cause in the coming election, about the end of September. He is relying on the plan with which we are so familiar here of "vindication" by the vote of some constituency. He cannot since his condemnation be himself legally voted for anywhere, but, if his candidates are elected, he will claim that this disposes of the charges of peculation and corruption. He is a sorry charlatan, and the probabilities now seem to be that he will end by keeping a café and billiard-room for shady characters in London or Brussels.

OHIO'S QUEER POLITICS.

THERE is little in the political campaign which is about to open in Ohio in which a non-partisan adult observer can take serious interest. The Republicans have renominated for Governor the absurd Foraker, and the Democrats have put up against him ex-Congressman James E. Campbell, a politician of much the same type. Gov. Foraker is in the field for a third term, and he stands upon a platform which is thoroughly suited to him and what he represents in politics—that is, extreme demagogic views upon the tariff, pensions, and all other leading questions of the time. Mr. Campbell's platform is much better than his personal record. It stands squarely upon the national Democratic platform of last year in demanding "reduction of tariff taxes," and pledges the party to "continue the battle for tariff reform until the cause of the people is triumphant." Mr. Campbell is said to be thoroughly in accord with this declaration now, though he was, during the greater part of his service in Congress, one of the small squad of "Randall Democrats," who would more properly have been styled "Protection Democrats." He voted against the Morrison bills for revising the tariff, but refused to act in opposition to President Cleveland's message, and voted, under protest, in favor of the Mills bill. In a recent interview he declared his belief that the Democratic party would in the long run gain by advocating tariff reform.

Aside from the declarations of the platforms, the tariff will be likely to play little part in the campaign. The Democrats declare their intention of making the fight solely upon State issues, attacking the shortcomings of the Foraker Administration, and making all the capital they can out of the fact that he is the first candidate in the history of the State to seek and obtain a nomination for a third term. They say very truly that the tariff has nothing to do with the contest, since it can in no way be affected by the result; and that all that they could be expected to do was to keep the party straight on the record by defining their views in the platform. The Republicans, on the other hand, are disposed to use the tariff as far as possible both as a shield for Foraker's shortcomings and as a means for raising "fat" from outside sources to swell their campaign funds. It looks now as if it would be hard work to accomplish much in the latter direction, as the protected interests are still feeling poor because of their heavy contributions in the national campaign of last year.

If the Democrats had selected a man of more ability and character for their candidate, there would have been more reason to take interest in their efforts to rescue the State from the control of Foraker; but it is impossible to see any reform in the possible substitution of Campbell for Foraker. The two bear different party names, but there is little difference in their political methods. Mr. Campbell is universally known as "Jimmy," and belongs to the class known as the Boys in the politics of every State. If he were to be elected, he would supplant the "Foraker crowd" with the "Campbell gang," and the State would be no better and probably no worse off than before. As for the chances of such substitution, it is far too early to speculate. The Democrats profess to be very confident of success, chiefly because of the alleged popular prejudice against a third term; but it is never safe to count much upon the influence of a rational idea in Ohio politics. Foraker is unquestionably a popular hero in the State, and comes nearer to being the idol of his party than any Governor that the State has had in recent years. A party of which this can be said is not one to be easily shaken in its allegiance.

It is entirely probable that Mr. Campbell's nomination may prove to be much stronger than that of a man with higher political principles and aims might have been. Ohio politics must not be estimated by the standards applied to most other States. No one who reads the leading political organs of the State can fail to realize this fact. Their discussions of political principles do not seem to be intended for the consideration of adults, but rather for children or persons of undeveloped minds. As this style of discussion has prevailed for many years, and as the newspapers practising it are prosperous, it must be that the people of the State like it. If they do like it, Messrs. Foraker and Campbell are candidates after their own hearts, and the approaching campaign will be one of the most warmly contested since Gov. Foraker appeared as a leader. The Democrats have not carried the State for Governor since 1883, when they elected Judge Hoadly by a plurality of over 12,000 and a clear majority of about 1,300. Two years later Foraker carried the State by a plurality of 17,000, and was reëlected in 1887 by a plurality of 23,000, but in neither election did he have a majority over all, or anything like it. He was, in fact, 13,000 short of a majority in 1885, and 31,000 short of it in 1887.

WHY NOT WEAR OUR FLAG?

THE brief history and the present condition *in law* of the steamship *City of Paris*, which has by her conduct on the ocean secured, if we may use the Hibernianism of Sir Boyle Roche, "such a footing in the public ear," make a good object lesson for Harrison protectionists to study. Precisely how she is owned, whether by a corporation, or a joint-stock company, or a partnership, is immaterial. Her owner is said to be the Inman Company, whose residence and citizenship, the seat of whose affairs, may be English or may be American, for all that we know. Whether a majority of the shareowners, or partners, and of the capital is English or American, we are unable to say. Mr. Andrew Carnegie is reported to be a large owner. To an assemblage of the passengers on her recent voyage, Mr. Medill of the Chicago *Tribune* is reported to have explained that "the ship and the results attained by it were due to American enterprise backed by American capital. He knew that the application of American inventions to the machinery of the steamship had increased her speed one knot an hour, and that *nine-tenths of the capital of the Inman Line was American money.*" A State Senator of New Jersey, Mr. Warwick, confirmed what Mr. Medill had said of her ownership. He regretted the fact that the British flag had to fly over the *City of Paris* when she was practically owned by Americans. He said that the American flag ought to fly over the product of American enterprise and American pluck.

If Americans are the majority owners of the capital embarked in the Inman Line, and those majority owners are fairly patriotic, it must be annoying not to be able to fly the American flag, but to be compelled to wear the British flag, on their vessels. To be sure, the building of the *City of Paris* was by foreigners in a foreign country; her model, machinery, officers, and seamen are foreign. Nothing is American about her, excepting some of the money expended on her, and one of the ports to and from which she sails. But assuming her ownership to be as entirely and intensely American as if in the hands of Harrison, Blaine, Wanamaker, Platt, and Warner Miller, even then, if foreign-built, she could not be navigated under the American flag or take part in our coastwise business. She must, although American-owned, be a part of a foreign country and under a foreign jurisdiction. And why? Simply because born abroad. She can never be naturalized, under our existing laws, so that she can wear our starry flag and be commanded by Americans. Why is such legislation permitted to encumber the Federal statute book? To protect our own shipbuilders, it will be said, by thus excluding a foreign-built vessel. But we do not and cannot build and navigate ocean steamers in competition with Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans, and Italians, even when aided by the exclusion of foreign-built vessels from naturalization, and even although (what is not fully appreciated) the taxes on all imported materials used in American vessels have been taken off to aid the late John Roach and our domestic shipbuilders. And if we could cheaply and safely build ocean steamers, we probably have not now officers and seamen to navigate them—so long have we, thanks to protection, been without ocean steamers trading swiftly with European ports.

It is to the credit of President Grant that, when war began between France and Germany in 1870, and, owing to various causes, foreign vessels could be cheaply bought, he personally, and on the solicitation of Secretary Fish, urged Congressmen to repeal the exclusion, and enable our countrymen to naturalize foreign-built vessels; but the partisans of John Roach were too powerful, and the repeal was defeated in committee. At the end of nearly twenty years, what is our condition? Some seven years ago Mr. Gladstone made a speech at Leeds, and may we not ask our protectionist readers to ponder this part of his utterances in 1882?

"On the occasion of the repeal of the Navigation Laws, the whole protectionist party of the country went into the deepest mourning. They told us that the repeal of the Navigation Laws was the destruction of the wooden walls of old England, and meant neither more nor less than her reduction to the rank of a third-rate Power. The tonnage of Great Britain in 1840 was

6,490,000 tons. In 1880 it had risen to 41,348,000 tons.

"Now, what is the state of shipping in protected countries? What has become of the shipping of the United States in its competition with British shipping? My boyhood was spent at the mouth of the Mersey, and in those days I used to see those beautiful American liners, the packets between New York and Liverpool, which then conducted the bulk and the pick of the trade between the two countries. The Americans were deemed to be so entirely superior to us in shipbuilding and navigation that they had four-fifths of the whole trade between the two countries in their hands, and that four-fifths was the best of the trade. What is the case now, when free trade has operated and has applied its stimulus to the intelligence of England, and when, on the other hand, the action of the Americans has been restrained by the enactment, the enhancement, and the tightening of the protective system? The scales are exactly reversed, and instead of America doing four-fifths, and that the best, we do four-fifths of the business, and that the best, and the Americans pick up the leavings of the British and transact the residue of the trade. Not because they are inferior to us in anything—it would be a fatal error to suppose it; not because they have less intelligence or less perseverance. They are your descendants; they are your kinsmen; and they are fully equal to you in all that goes to make human energy and power; but they are laboring under the delusion from which you yourselves have but recently escaped, and in which some misguided fellow-citizens seek again to entangle you.

"I am reminded that I was guilty on a certain occasion of stating in an article—not a political article—that, in my opinion, it was far from improbable that as the volume of the future was unrolled, America, with its vast population and its wonderful resources, and not less with that severe education which, from the high price of labor, America is receiving in the strong necessity of resorting to every description of labor-saving contrivances, and consequent development, not only on a large scale, but down to the smallest scale of the mechanical genius of the country—on that account, the day may come when that country may claim to possess the commercial primacy of the world. I gave sad offence to many. . . . I at present will say this, that as long as America adheres to the protective system your commercial primacy is secure. Nothing in the world can wrest it from you while America continues to fetter her own strong hands and arms, and with these fettered arms is content to compete with you, who are free, in neutral markets. And as long as America follows the doctrine of protection, or the doctrines now known as those of fair trade, you are perfectly safe, and you need not allow, any of you, even your slightest slumbers to be disturbed by the fear that America will take from you your commercial primacy."

Will not Irish-Americans meditate on these things?

A FEDERAL ELECTION LAW.

THE Constitution provides that "the times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators." The reason for inserting this clause, as is made plain by the discussion of the subject in the *Federalist*, was the fear, which was entertained by many people, that if the control of these elections were left exclusively to the States, "they could at any moment annihilate the Union, by neglecting to provide for the choice of persons to administer its affairs"—a risk which, slight as it now seems, may well have been considered grave enough to demand consideration by men who were trying so novel an experiment in government.

That this clause of the Constitution gives Congress full power over the election of its members, with the unimportant qualification that it cannot interfere with the State's choice of the place where its Senators shall be chosen, is obvious. If any shadow of doubt remained, it was removed by the decision of the Supreme Court in what is known as the Maryland election case, rendered ten years ago, which says in express terms: "The power of Congress over the subject is paramount. It may be exercised as and when Congress sees fit to exercise it."

Hitherto Congress has been slow to avail itself of this latent power, and has confined its interference to comparatively minor details. Thus in 1842 it passed a law providing that Representatives must be elected by separate districts. Later it was provided that such elections should be by ballot. A few years ago the day for such elections was made uniform throughout the country—"the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November," except where special acts enable three or four commonwealths which hold their State elections earlier in the year to choose Representatives in Congress at the same time. In like manner, by the act of July 25, 1866, provision was made for the method which should be followed by the two branches of the Legislature in electing a Senator.

Beyond these matters of detail, Congress has never gone except in the provision which was made by the act of February 28, 1871, for the appointment, by United States Circuit Courts, of supervisors of election whose duties are to attend at the registration of voters for the detection and exposure of any attempted fraud, and on election day to challenge any doubtful voter and scrutinize the counting of the votes. But as such appointments are to be made only upon written application to a circuit court, and as such application has seldom, if ever, been made in many of the States, anything like complete control of Congressional elections by Federal authority has never been known throughout the country.

A serious attempt is now making to organize sentiment in the Republican party in favor of a scheme to have the Fifty-first Congress assert to the fullest extent its latent power in this matter, take the election of Congressmen away from the State authorities, in whose hands it has rested during the first century of our history, and give entire control of the voting arrangements to officials of the Federal Government. In an article in the *North American Review* upon the duties of the new Congress, Henry Cabot Lodge declares that it "will fall far short of its duty and of the expectations of the people if it fails to pass an effective election law." Many Republican organs endorse this position.

Mr. Lodge notes with apparent commendation the bill to regulate elections introduced by Senator Sherman in the last Congress, the main features of which it is therefore well to recall. This bill authorizes the President to appoint in each Congressional district three voters as an electoral board, all to hold office during good behavior—in other words, for life—subject to impeachment for misdemeanor. The electoral board of each Congressional district is to appoint a registrar and three judges for each election district or precinct, and to increase the number of voting precincts whenever deemed necessary to secure a free and fair ballot; these officials to hold office for six years, subject to removal for misconduct. These Federal officials are to register the voters, count the ballots, correct irregularities, and declare whatever result seems to them best. In short, to take Vermont as an illustration, the entire control of all the steps connected with the choice of its Representatives in Congress would be taken away absolutely from those officials, appointed under State laws, who have for a hundred years had charge of such elections, and given to officials of the Federal Government over whom the people of Vermont have no power whatever.

We take Vermont as an illustration because of course a Federal election law must apply alike to every State in the Union, and because the real meaning of such a law is more clearly comprehended when applied to a commonwealth with so strong a sentiment of State pride as is entertained by the Green Mountain State. The motive of the proposed law is the supposed advantage which the Republican party would derive under such a system in certain Southern States where the elections are alleged not to be fair; but it must always be kept in mind that under the Constitution Federal laws must apply uniformly to all the States. If, therefore, the Government at Washington is to control Congressional elections in South Carolina and Mississippi, it must in like manner control such elections in Vermont and Iowa.

We do not believe that the people of the Northern States will ever consent thus to surrender control over their elections, and for this reason we think that the Sherman-Lodge scheme will fall through. The Republican majority in the House will be narrow at best, and a number of its members have already manifested their repugnance to the scheme. There is hardly anything to which the people cling more stoutly than to local control over their elections. Fancy, for a moment, the feeling in Vermont if there had been four years ago a Federal law under which Mr. Cleveland was to appoint three men in each Congressional district, who were to appoint subordinates in every town, these subordinates to control all the arrangements connected with the registration of voters, the casting of the ballots, and the counting of the ballots which they received. Imagine the feelings of the Republicans in the close Congressional districts of Connecticut last year if they had contemplated the possession of such power by Democratic officials.

"What are we here for?" is the question with Federal officials appointed under our present methods. The election officials appointed under the Sherman-Lodge plan would be "here" for the purpose of returning Republicans as elected to Congress—or Democrats, if the conditions of their appointment were changed. So long as we have political bosses like Quay and Mahone, on

the one hand, or Gorman and Voorhees on the other, nobody can contemplate with composure the idea of having the control of elections turned over to their tools. The plain truth is, that the people of the North will not stand it, and because they will not stand it, the people of the South will escape the infliction.

MR. BEACH ON TRUSTS.

THE article of Mr. Charles F. Beach, jr., in defence of Trusts, in the September *Forum*, is, perhaps, the best thing that has been said on that side of the question. Certainly it embraces in brief compass and distinct phrase all that has been said by others. On the legal branch, Mr. Beach comes near to giving himself away by saying that "Gen. Pryor's masterly argument in the sugar-refineries case is, from the standpoint of the law reports, conclusive and unanswerable." Notwithstanding this sweeping admission, Mr. Beach asks whether we cannot concede all that Gen. Pryor claims and yet ask for a verdict on the other side. Why? Because, when the reason of the rule fails, the rule fails also. To show that the reason of the rule has failed, Mr. Beach examines present economic conditions. The law cannot say yes and no at the same time. If it said no on Monday, it cannot say yes on Tuesday, unless conditions have altered in a decided and unquestionable sense.

Has there been any change of economic conditions of such a fundamental sort as would warrant us in saying that the reason of the rule has failed, and therefore that the rule itself must fail? Several facts are adduced to sustain the affirmative. The one of most gravity, and upon which the most stress is laid, is "overproduction." In consequence of overproduction, prices have fallen, profits have reached the vanishing-point, and producers have been driven to combine. The Trust is only a larger and more perfect combination than has hitherto been attainable. Such combination is not an evil to society, because "competition as business is now conducted costs the public a million of dollars, where monopoly, such as is possible under modern conditions, can extort a penny." "The slightest reflection," Mr. Beach continues, "enables the most unthinking man among us to understand that when two men employ themselves in doing what one man can do alone, there is a waste of energy for which, unless it vanish in the air, at last the consumers of those products must in some way or another pay."

Mr. Beach should have told us at the outset what he means by "overproduction." He means overproduction of refined sugar, white lead, and other particular things that have been or may be combined in the form of Trusts, but his language implies general overproduction. Now, general overproduction is a flat absurdity and an impossibility. If general overproduction existed, and if all persons accordingly could and should organize themselves into Trusts, the net result would be exactly the same as before any Trust was organized. As everybody would get the same advantage in disposing of his services and products, nobody would get any advantage. Advantage means getting something that somebody else does not get. We are naturally moved to alarm by the thought of general overproduction. It is a monster of such hideous mien as to be hated needs but to be mentioned in a hasty way in a magazine article. But if it is only overproduction of sugar or salt, and we are not sellers of those things, we can put up with it. The buyers are not responsible for the overproduction of sugar and salt; therefore, it does not rest on their consciences any more than the overproduction of railways in the Granger States.

How does competition cost the public millions of dollars where monopoly costs a penny? The answer is suggested by Mr. Beach in the example of two men doing what one man can do alone, the result being "a waste of energy for which, unless it vanish in the air, at last the consumers of those products must in some way or another pay." It would have been helpful if Mr. Beach had cited one case by way of illustration. We have sought to find one in everyday life, but have not been able to, or even to imagine one. Suppose that two sugar-refiners are at work where one can produce all the sugar required. Here is a waste of energy undoubtedly, and this waste will be just the same whether they compete or whether they combine. In the former case (that of competition) the cost will fall upon themselves, because they will be selling at the lowest possible rate. In the latter case (that of combination) it will fall upon the consumers, because the producers will sell at the highest possible rate.

Mr. Beach allows that "it is not proposed as any part of the Trust scheme that it share its economies with the public, and it ought not therefore to be judged of as an eleemosynary institution." We will add what every business man knows, that it is competition and not combination that produces and enforces economies. When money comes in easy, the producer takes things easy. When it is hard to make ends meet, he studies how to save his pennies. It was competition among railways that made the great saving in the cost of transportation during the past twenty years. It was competition in the sugar trade that reduced the cost of refining to one-sixteenth of a cent a pound. We hear a great deal about the economies introduced by the Standard Oil Trust, but as that is not "an eleemosynary institution" any more than the others, we need not dwell upon them. It is safe to say that its economies have gone wholly into its own treasury. What its economies would have been if it had had effective competition, it is impossible to say; but it is certain that, in that case, the public would have shared them.

If further testimony were needed to show the efficiency of competition to produce economies and to enable the public to share them, Mr. Beach himself is a first-rate witness, for he says that since 1880 "the selling price of almost every one of the staple articles of commerce manufactured in this country has declined from 16 2-3 to 50 per cent." It is this very decline, he tells us, which has caused the Trusts. It was during this period that competition, according to the text, was costing *the public* millions where monopoly, "such as is possible under modern conditions" (*i. e.*, Trusts), could extort a penny. It was during this period that two men were doing what one man could do alone, thus wasting energy and making the consumers pay for the waste by getting their goods 16 to 50 per cent. cheaper. And this is something which "the slightest reflection enables the most unthinking man among us to understand." Perhaps so, but to a thinking man it is something of a puzzle.

Another supposed change in economic conditions which causes the reason of the rule to fail and carries the rule overboard with it, is found in the "organized and aggressive combinations of laboring men." This is described as "a potent factor." "It ought not to be overlooked," says Mr. Beach, "that a potent factor in inducing Trusts has undoubtedly been the aggressive combinations or Trusts of laboring men which now exist, and the concerted attempt on the part of labor to dictate how the factories are to be run, who are to be employed, and what wages are to be paid. The manufacturer finds himself verily 'between the devil and the deep sea'; between all sorts of embarrassments incident to competition with insolvent rivals and a bear market on the one hand, and the labor organizations on the other." Hence Trusts.

Are organized and aggressive combinations of laboring men such a new thing in the world that they become a potent factor to upset the otherwise "conclusive and unanswerable" law arguments of Gen. Pryor? It is rather an odd coincidence that the article next preceding Mr. Beach's in the *Forum* is one by Prof. Hadley, entitled "The Outlook for Industrial Peace," and that its first proposition is that aggressive combinations of laboring men are not new things at all; that they are not confined to the present age nor to the present state of industry; that they are not as bad now as they have been in some former periods (*e. g.*, 1877); that they are found in every progressive age, and that, "if they are especially prominent in the United States, it is because the United States is a most progressive nation." Back in 1835, according to Prof. Hadley, labor combinations were just as aggressive as they were in 1885, and their methods were the same, including trade-unions, federations of labor, strikes, and boycotts, although the word boycott was not then used.

If labor combinations are not new, what shall we say of "competition with insolvent rivals"? We have heard much about this kind of competition which seems to be more provocative of Trusts than either labor combinations or ordinary overproduction. "Examples are familiar," says Mr. David A. Wells, in the *Popular Science Monthly* (September), "of joint-stock companies that have made no profit and paid no dividends for years, and yet continue active operations. The shareholders are content if the plant is kept up and the working capital kept intact; and even when this is not done, they prefer to submit to assessments, or issue preference shares and take them up themselves, rather

than go into liquidation, with the chance of losing their whole capital."

What are you to do if you are a shoemaker and one of your competitors in business sells shoes at less than cost? In the first place, you cannot prevent it. You can only let him go on till his capital runs out or he changes his mind. What ought society to do? Society will certainly accept shoes at less than cost and think that it has a good bargain. Will society be profited by all the shoemakers combining and putting up the price? Certainly not. Here Mr. Wells loses his footing. He says:

> "Society has practically abandoned — and from the very necessity of the case has got to abandon, unless it proposes to war against progress and civilization—the prohibition of industrial concentrations and *combinations*. The world demands abundance of commodities, and demands them cheaply, and experience shows that it can have them only by the employment of great capital on the most extensive scale."

Concentrations and combinations of capital are not the same thing, but they are here spoken of as though they were. There may be a dozen concentrations of capital for producing a certain article, but only one combination. Two combinations would not answer the purpose, while three would be worse than none. Mr. Wells's brief article reads like an apology for Trusts, but he would hardly contend that, in a case where so much capital is already embarked in a particular line of trade that "overproduction" exists, a combination to close a part of the works and pay them more money than they could make if they were running would be a gain to the public. It strikes us that instead of this being the employment of "great capital on the most extensive scale," it is the withdrawal of capital previously employed, and that it runs counter to the world's demand for abundance of commodities cheaply produced.

It is not necessary to berate the Trusts, or to impute any blame to them for taking all the trade advantages open to them. That is human nature, of which we all have our share. But the public will be to blame if they lend any countenance to them, or put up with them any longer than they are obliged to. Especially will they be to blame if they allow themselves to be hoodwinked by fallacies like those which Mr. Beach advances in the *Forum*, and which he evidently believes in firmly. Not more than one man in a hundred can by any possibility get his business, his calling, his daily labor, under the shield of a Trust. Ninety-nine per cent. of the population are therefore committed in the strongest manner to oppose the Trusts in every lawful way.

AN UNSEASONABLE JOKE.

"The National Editorial Association," which professes to represent the editorial profession throughout the United States, met at Detroit last week in convention. The occasion was considered so important that the delegates were, we believe, the guests of the city, and received an address of welcome from the Mayor. Its object was ostensibly, and we presume really, not only the improvement and elevation of the journalistic calling by the interchange of views between its members touching their common interests and aims, but its presentation to the public as one of the most powerful and valuable social and political influences of the day. One would naturally expect that on such an occasion, if there were either *esprit de corps* among the members, or any proper sense of the gravity of the functions which they claimed for themselves, an effort would have been made to put the best men of the profession into the foreground, and to give the proceedings a serious character; to make good, in such ways as the case would permit, the claims of journalism to be considered a safe and respectable commentator on all the great interests of American society; and to satisfy people that the reproach so often made, that American newspapers are comic publications, compiled for the amusement of big boys, was unfounded.

What happened, however, was this: The fundamental topic of the occasion was "Editorial Philosophy," a term which, if used seriously, means the spirit and aims which an editor brings or ought to bring to his work, the view he takes of its nature and responsibility. The subject is a large and weighty one. When one considers what the part is which the press plays in modern life, in educating the young, and moulding the opinions and cultivating the tastes of the old, it is not too much to say that the ablest and most experienced thinker and observer in any calling in the United States could hardly do justice to it. At all events, for such an essay every effort should have been made to secure the services of some representative journalist, whose experience, and judgment, and high personal character, and serious view of his calling would have secured him the ear not only of the Convention, but of the whole country. Instead of getting such a man, however, or, as far as we know, trying to get him, the managers turned the whole performance into a farce by inviting a man who is not a journalist at all, having simply bought the plant and good will of a newspaper a few months ago, and whose utterances through its columns during that short interval have been so grotesque as to create serious doubts in many quarters as to his sanity.

The result was what might have been expected. He treated the Convention to two or three columns of buffoonery, which could not have appeared appropriately anywhere but in the *Bloomingdale Weekly Chronicle*. We can recall nothing in the history of the newspaper press which would do so much as this incident to justify the abuse and contempt which a portion of the public is in the habit of heaping on it. We do not believe any organization representing an honest calling has ever before so deliberately offered itself and its constituency to the ridicule of civilized man. If the Shepard address was meant to be a joke, it ought to have been delivered after the proceedings were over, as a separate and distinct entertainment. But even then it would have been open to the criticism that it was too long and elaborate even for a farce, and that, as the public exhibition of the owner of a newspaper, it would tend to degrade the press generally in the popular eye. If, on the other hand, it was seriously offered and seriously received, what are we to think of the intelligence and general equipment of the conductors of the daily press? If this stuff passes as "editorial philosophy," people will naturally say, can anything be more preposterous than the claim of editors to be considered in any sense public instructors? What function have they to which a child or a lunatic is not equal?

The Shepard joke was a legitimate one enough as long as it was kept within proper limits. Nobody can prevent a rich fool or ignoramus from buying a newspaper and playing the buffoon in it, and it would be unfair, and perhaps unwise, even if it were possible, to keep his contemporaries from getting all the fun they can out of him. But if he is deliberately selected as the mouthpiece of the profession on a serious occasion, in order that the members may have a laugh over his folly and incoherence, the legitimate bounds of humor are transgressed, and we get into the region of unseemly and mischievous bouffe.

LONDON LABOR.

The London strike, which, as we write, has not yet been settled, promises to be a serious affair for London, whichever way it ends. If the dock companies give in and continue to employ the same number of men, they must recoup themselves by raising their charges, and to raise their charges is to drive away shipping from the port. At this moment the stock of all the dock companies except the Millwall pays no dividends, and the price is correspondingly low. The Alexandra sells at 17, the East and West India at 22, the London and St. Katharine's at 42, the Millwall at 85. All are laboring under heavy debts in the shape of preferred stock and debentures, or mortgage bonds, as we call them. Even before the strike occurred the outlook for them was becoming very serious, owing to the fact that London has been for some time declining as what is called a "distributing centre." The last great strike, which took place there eight years ago, and was the first blow to its commercial supremacy, was that of the shipwrights, and was quite as senseless as this one, but was supported by the same amount of sentimental palaver from philanthropists and clergymen. It took place on the eve of a great decline in the demand for shipping, and was persisted in in spite of the fullest explanations as to its probable results, until it absolutely killed shipbuilding on the Thames. When it was over, the trade was extinct, and some of the greatest ship-yards in the world were closed for good. The business had gone to the Clyde, where it has remained almost ever since.

The telegraph and the tramp steamers and the great extension of railroads have been sapping London's strength as a

seaport, as, indeed, that of all the great entrepôts of the world. Constantinople, which has, ever since its capture by the Turks, been the great market in which the traders of Persia, Asia Minor, Syria and Palestine, and Arabia bought their goods, is fast losing this position. The distribution, thanks to steam and the telegraph, is now more and more made from a dozen little ports in the Black Sea, the Mediterranean, and the Persian Gulf. Venice, in spite of the Suez Canal, can, for the same reason, never get back the trade which the capture of Constantinople took from her; nor can Trieste or any other port in the Mediterranean take her place. Vienna, which once supplied Hungary and all the countries on the Lower Danube with most of their western comforts and luxuries, is ceasing to do so, and is, in many respects, a declining city, less and less frequented by strangers. In other words, all over the world the producer is coming into more direct contact with the consumer, to the destruction of the vast commission business of the last six centuries.

The consequence of all this is, that the London strike is really a demand that a very large body of men shall be supported in comfort by an impoverished concern. It very much resembles the strike of the Belgian and French coal-miners a few years ago against coal companies which had not for years paid any dividends, and is indeed based on the theory, which we have frequently exposed here, that any one who is once hired by an individual or firm has a valid claim for employment, at wages fixed by himself, on that individual or firm for an indefinite period, whether the employer can afford it or not. It comes, too, as the direct result of the drift of population away from the land which is to-day one of the most striking phenomena of English economy. Go where one will in England to-day, one is met by the scarcity of farm laborers. The young men will not stay on the farms and bear the monotony of agricultural life. They go to London to seek their fortunes, their imagination filled with the cheap-literature stories of city doings, and, when they get there, join the great army who live by "odd jobs," and soon have their heads filled with the new gospel that a capitalist who employs anybody is bound to maintain him in decent circumstances as long as he requires it. The encouragement given to such theories by men like Canon Liddon and Cardinal Manning is one of the most deplorable features of these crises, because it is difficult for the unlettered man to believe that stark, staring absurdity can find refuge in the heads of doctors of divinity; and yet, in economical matters, it is too often true. The more the dock companies agree to do for the "odd-job" men, the more of them will come to compete for the business; and the more resulting suffering there is among them, the more heartless and tyrannical will the companies appear.

THE FUTURE OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.—I.

OREGON, August, 1889.

Two years ago, when I visited Southern California for the first time, it was in the midst of its extraordinary real-estate and business boom. All the hotels in Los Angeles were overcrowded, the post-office almost unable to get through with its business, the city growing like an asparagus stalk after an April shower, and the demand for labor so great that the workmen could practically dictate their own terms. The smaller towns and would-be towns had also caught the infection, and were building huge hotels, cement sidewalks, and street-car lines; not because it was supposed that towns of 2,000 inhabitants needed such things, but in order to be able to advertise in Eastern papers and in real-estate circulars that the place had street-car lines, cement sidewalks, and hotels "with all the modern conveniences." Each town printed a special illustrated pamphlet in which its unique attractions as compared with all rivals were set forth, culminating in the claim that its township was the "Italy of America," or of the West; while San Diego brought maters to a climax by styling itself "the Italy of Southern California."

On returning to Los Angeles County last January, I found everywhere evidences that the boom had collapsed. The street-car lines in the small towns barely paid expenses, though it was regarded as an act of local patriotism to ride on them; and the cement sidewalks, which had been prolonged far into the fields, had failed to charm into existence the rows of houses that had been looked for. In the metropolis itself workmen were grumbling at insufficient employment, merchants clamored that their rents were 50 per cent. too high, many store windows were pasted with closing-out notices, real-estate offices were no longer as abundant as saloons, and the book-stores, more wretchedly supplied than those of any town of 10,000 in the United States, were even selling the twenty-cent paper novels at "cut rates." The newspapers of Northern California, of Oregon, Washington, and other Western States as far east as Kansas, which had long been jealous of the prosperity of Southern California, and desired a boom of their own, crowed loudly over the "busted boom" of Los Angeles, while the papers of that city, no longer compelled by the pressure of real-estate advertisements to add two or four extra pages to their issues, had daily editorials to disprove the allegations of their envious rivals.

An unprejudiced observer, interested only in the climate and the scenery, and not in the real estate, of Southern California, could not but admit, from the signs just noted, that these "envious rivals" were right in insisting that the boom had collapsed; but the inferences drawn from this fact, that Southern California had been overpraised and that its road was to be down hill in the future, were absurd. Southern California cannot be overpraised, and, in my humble opinion, its future prospects are brighter than those of any other portion of the United States. To a large extent the late boom was nothing but a huge gambling scheme, an epidemic of wild land-speculation, which carried along in its rush thousands of thoughtless victims, like the mad stampede for Oklahoma. Southern Californians knew better than others that the sudden rise in their land prices was artificially stimulated and would be followed by a reaction, but they were bound to make hay while the sun shone, and found to their delight that the sun shone longer in California than elsewhere, in the metaphorical sense as well as in reality. At last the storm came and swept away many of the "tenderfeet," or late comers, and their new buildings, whose débris is now lying about, so to speak, and is pointed at as a terrible warning and lesson; but the only lesson it does teach is that people should avoid real-estate gambling. The fragments of the ruins will soon be cleared away, and then it will be found that, although many individuals have suffered during the storm, the country as a whole has been benefited by it.

In many cases the large, useless hotels built in the small towns have already been secured at a bargain for school buildings, and in the larger cities many public works have been provided which, without the artificial stimulus of the boom, would have been postponed to the indefinite future, as, for instance, the long flume, costing almost a million of dollars, which now provides San Diego and vicinity with abundant pure water, and will do more to develop the resources of the country than the discovery of several gold mines. Los Angeles made the great mistake of not building a sewer to the sea during flush times, and now suffers under the disadvantage of vitiated air, which, if not speedily remedied, will destroy its reputation as a health resort. In other respects Los Angeles is already recovering from the effects of the collapse. Fine new buildings are again going up, the streets are always animated, and the cable-car tracks have been lately prolonged into the picturesque hilly region behind the city, which affords the finest imaginable sites for suburban cottages, with superb views of the mountains and a glimpse of the Pacific Ocean, fourteen miles away. Though founded in 1781, Los Angeles had less than 5,000 inhabitants in 1860, and only 13,000 in 1880, while to-day it has 75,000 or more. Thirteen years ago no railroad connected it with other parts of the world, while to-day it is one of the greatest railroad centres in the West. And as it still remains, what it always was, unsurpassed by any city in the world for climatic and scenic advantages, it has every reason to look forward to a prosperous and brilliant future—provided that a sewer is built at once.

Southern California includes five counties—Los Angeles, Santa Barbara, Ventura, San Bernardino, and San Diego—embracing, as General N. A. Miles points out, "a territory nearly the size of the State of New York, and with natural resources of ten times its value." This seems a big statement, but its truth can be realized, without the use of figures, by considering that these five counties are capable of supplying the United States with all the figs, raisins, prunes, wine, olives and olive oil, oranges, lemons, nuts, and canned fruits that are now imported from France, Italy, and Spain; most of them, with proper care, equal in quality if not superior to the imported articles. Although large quantities of all these fruits are already raised, they are a mere trifle compared to what the soil is capable of yielding to a larger population. It has been proved over and over again that ten to twenty acres of good irrigable land are all that is needed to support a family, and there is therefore room for hundreds of thousands of immigrants. However, it is candidly admitted that Southern California is a land of more promise to the farmer who has at his disposal a capital of a few thousand dollars than to the emigrant who brings with him little but a team and a pair of muscular arms; for improved land, with bearing vines and fruit trees, costs from $100 to $500 an acre, while unimproved land, though it may be had for one-fifth those prices ($20 to $100), yields no return for several years, unless grain is raised; for all of the semi-tropical fruits above named require from three or four to ten years before a profitable crop is yielded.

And yet personal observation has led me to believe that there are special opportunities in this region precisely for the farmer with limited means, if he is willing to curb his ambition and content himself with dairy farming and the raising of poultry on a large scale for the market. The farmers now settled in Southern California are so ambitious to become orange, olive, or vineyard kings that they entirely neglect the farmyard, and have hardly enough milk and butter and vegetables for home consumption. It is almost impossible in any part of Southern California to get a good piece of beef or mutton, and chickens are imported by the car-load from Kansas and other "Eastern" States, and sold at absurdly high prices at Los Angeles, although in this mild climate it is easy to raise chickens all the year round, and I have myself seen splendid broods of young ones grow up in about half the time they need in the East to reach a marketable size, the simple precaution being taken of providing them with dry housing during rainy nights. If this is not done, their growth is remarkably retarded, and many of them become diseased, and, if not killed or isolated, will infect a whole yardful of poultry. Cattle raising, too, must prove profitable in a region where the animals can feed on the green foothills and valleys all the "winter," and in summer eat the sun-dried grass or clover which covers the whole country. The wild, clover-like alfileria, which furnishes most of this natural hay, grows in profusion along the roadsides and in the meadows, and even fills up the empty patches in the cactus fields. After the spring rains it attains a height of ten to fifteen inches, with a dozen plants to the square inch, and is so juicy and tender that one can mow it down with a cane or with the hands; and a week later it is as high as if it had never been cut. It looks so luscious and sweet as to almost make one long to be a cow or a sheep in order to be really "in clover" for once. Again, the cultivated clover, or Chilian alfalfa, if sufficiently irrigated, yields half-a-dozen or more crops of hay a year, which makes the sweetest butter and meat in the world. Yet the Southern Californians, as I have just said, import most of their butter and meat; consequently, if any farmers should undertake to supply the local market with home-made products, fresher and cheaper, because with no freight charges on them, they would have a sure source of prosperity before them. It is probable that the drought of 1863–64 discouraged the cattle business; but there has been none since that time, and, with the present railway facilities and a reasonable foresight in storing hay, no disaster need be feared in the future. Moreover, one of the best and cheapest kinds of cattle food, pumpkins, as large as beer-barrels, can be raised here by the thousand with hardly any trouble and expense. Sometimes they lie in a field so densely that one might almost walk over it without touching the ground; and I saw several fields in which hundreds of fine pumpkins, for which the farmers had no use, owing to the scarcity of cattle, were left to rot on the ground.

Before purchasing land in California of the South, it is well that the investor should have made up his mind in regard to what branch of agriculture he wishes to devote himself to. For although it is one of the chief advantages of this soil that it can be made to produce most of the fruits of the temperate and semi-tropical, and some of the tropical zones, yet each township or locality has its special adaptedness for this or that product, and to ignore this is to labor under disadvantages. Thus, Riverside and vicinity has been found most favorable to the culture of the orange, because the destructive scale-bug does not flourish here as it does nearer to the coast. Of lemons the finest specimens are grown near the Mexican border, in San Diego County, which also furnishes some of the best raisins and olives. Santa Barbara County yields the finest pampas plumes and the best walnuts, and Los Angeles County is still the wine centre of the South, notwithstanding the ravages of the mysterious vine disease. The conclusion, too, is being gradually reached that for vineyards the foothills are the best localities, since in Europe all the best vines are raised on the hillsides. Plants of a distinctly tropical type also, like tea, bananas, etc., might perhaps be successfully raised on the lower foothills, which have an immunity from the light frost that occasionally, in winter and spring, visits the lowlands near the ocean. And besides these facts, it is well to know that in the same locality the soil often presents great differences, so that in a twenty-acre field one-half may be well adapted for the orange or olive, while the other half needs a different crop. Above all things, "tenderfeet" should beware of buying land immediately after the spring rains, for then the whole face of the country is covered with a rich carpet of grass and flowers, so that it is difficult to distinguish the good land from the sand-bottomed site of a former river bed, useless for anything but cactus.

Finally comes the most important of all questions—the facilities for irrigation. Grain, if sown in winter or early spring, ordinarily needs only the regular rains of the season to reach maturity, and there are localities where many other crops can be raised without irrigation; but these are the exception, and as a general thing the semi-tropical fruits which constitute the specialty of Southern California, need water for profitable culture. So well is this now understood that it is a favorite joke of the natives to say that if you pay for the air and water, they will throw in the land gratis. Fortunately there are no fewer than six sources from which crops are supplied with water, if we include rain. For small vegetable or flower gardens sufficient water can be raised by means of windmills, which are kept in brisk motion every afternoon by the sea-breeze in the whole region within twenty or thirty miles of the ocean, except during two or three of the "rainy months," when they are not needed. These mills also supply the kitchen, and it is curious to note how cold the water remains in the large tanks exposed all day long to a semi-tropical sun. Much of the water used in town and orchard is supplied by artesian wells, which, however, occur only in certain belts, especially in Los Angeles and San Bernardino Counties, although none of these, I believe, equal one dug in Sonoma County last winter, which is 115 feet deep, cost only $200, and yields almost half a million gallons every day. Rivers of the size of the Sacramento, or those of Oregon, Southern California has none, but there are some smaller rivers and a large number of creeks, fed by the mountain snows, which are tapped in two ways for irrigating purposes—on the surface and below the bed. The surface water is often carried many miles in ditches, and wise is the community which lines its ditch at once with cement, else in summer it loses almost two-thirds of its water supply by absorption on the way. The Santa Ana River, which is quite a respectable stream in winter, and after rains becomes a formidable torrent, liable to overflow its banks and change its channel (thereby causing boundary disputes), is in summer tapped so freely that its bed becomes dry, and not a drop reaches the ocean.

Much more curious than this surface tapping, however, is the tunnelling, by means of which the water which has buried itself beneath the sandy river-bed, as if to escape the merciless pillaging of the hot sun and the greedy farmers, is brought to the surface again and utilized. It is in this way that the Santa Ana River is despoiled of its last drop, and the value of this procedure may be estimated from the statement made by the San Bernardino *Times*, that "the Ontario Land Company has driven a tunnel in under San Antonio Creek, a distance of nearly 1,800 feet, at a cost of about $52,000, and they have about 250 inches of water worth a quarter of a million of dollars." As it hardly ever rains during the summer, all the water thus drawn off the rivers in the irrigating season comes from the springs and the melting snows in the mountains. This is just about sufficient for the present needs of the population, but no fears need be entertained for the future, since, as the rural population increases, it will become profitable to expend large sums in building reservoirs in the cañons to store the abundant winter water which now runs to waste in the ocean. In this way the mountains can be made to yield an absolutely unlimited amount of water, sufficient to support tens of millions; and the lesson taught by the Johnstown disaster will prevent the dams from being carelessly constructed.

HENRY T. FINCK.

A CREMATION AT PÈRE-LACHAISE.

PARIS, August 17, 1889.

THE *crematoire* which the Municipal Council has presented to the city of Paris is situated in the new part of Père-Lachaise, not distant from the famous plot visited by Communists on revolutionary anniversaries. It is conceived in the pure mausoleum style—a noble façade with pillars, cupolas, and dome, a frieze composed of myrtle leaves, with funeral urns of most classic pattern capping all the angles of the building. The architect even anticipated in the plan of ensemble a delicate point—that of concealing behind the dome and frontal of the portico the indispensable chimneys, which, in spite of their delicate carving, must needs look lugubrious. The temple comprises a vast rotunda under the dome, with aisles to receive the public during the ceremony of incineration. At the back, occupying the whole width of the building, are the three furnaces, with anterooms provided with elevators which bring the caskets from the ground floor.

While the edifice is not yet completed, the three cupolas at the back under which are the three ovens are finished. Those at the right and left only are in use. The space intended for the middle one is reserved as a reception-room for the mourners during the ceremony. The Paris crematoire has in this a great advantage over that of Milan, the second one in Europe, inasmuch as the latter includes no reception-room, and the family and friends are brought face to face with the operation—a trying ordeal—and have to remain to the end in sight of the oven.

Since the law authorizing "la liberté des funerailles" was passed, the partisans of cremation have scored but a few obscure cases. The first one on record in Paris was entered January 30, 1889. It is only during the last two months that anything like statistics exists. Thirty incinerations were recorded during that period—a small figure in comparison with the 8,000 burials representing the average of mortality in Paris for eight weeks. Last Monday the cremation of M. Gagneur, Representative

for the Department of Jura, added the most distinguished French name to the record; his example has attracted some attention, and is considered a step in favor of this funeral rite.

The first impression as one approaches the crematoire is a not unpleasant one. The well-kept lawn and crimson geranium hedges that surround it relieve the depression one may have felt on the way. Such a sad ceremony could not be begun under better auspices, I thought, as the cortège following the late Deputy passed between the double file of the sky-blue-coated keepers of Père-Lachaise that kept watch at the gates. The procession halted at the foot of the high stairs. The family of the deceased ascended the steps and passed into the reception-hall. Those of the friends who wished to be present as the body was committed to the flames, repaired to the room in front of the furnace chamber, where the elevator would deposit the casket. This part of the ceremony of cremation can be mitigated. The room in itself is forbidding, with its sable hangings, and suggests the mediæval torture-chamber. The iron truck on wheels standing in the middle looks, indeed, very like the old rack upon which the Inquisition made converts. The truck bears a long iron tray covered with a sheet of asbestos. Upon it is placed the coffin, made of light pine wood in order to offer the least resistance to the flames. All is ready: a black curtain is drawn aside and reveals the oven, a simple brick structure with double doors. These are opened, and the truck briskly pushed into the mouth of the furnace, whence it is withdrawn by a crank, leaving tray and coffin within. The black curtain is closed, and the superintendent of the crematoire marks the time.

A gust of hot air had filled the room, and the friends who had paid the last farewell returned to the waiting-hall bathed with perspiration. One of them mounted the tribune to pronounce a eulogy on the deceased, absent from the catafalque heaped with wreaths. Several speeches followed, but what was uttered from the dolorous rostrum was of personal interest. The last speaker alone, a member of the Municipal Council, discoursed on cremation from a hygienic and philosophic standpoint. Some audible assents encouraged him, but sympathy was not unanimous. The truth is, many were impressed with a sense that we were listening to the advocate of a school whose creed is annihilation, rather than witnessing a funeral rite renewed after eighteen centuries of Christianity.

The ceremony of cremation as celebrated to-day has one great drawback—its duration. During the interval that elapses between the committing of the body to the flames and the collecting of the ashes, time hangs heavy on the hands of the mourners. If prayers are dispensed with, funeral eloquence is taxed to fill the space of an hour and more to the exclusion of ennui. There is bound to be a hiatus extremely restless, uncomfortable, and awkward to say the least. For my own part, I do not think the recourse suggested by one of the apostles of cremation on the occasion in question—to smoke a cigarette behind the building—the last word of correctness at a funeral. Undoubtedly this assumption of stoicism finds its explanation in a hidden desire to react against sentimentality.

Close upon an hour had elapsed since the corpse was placed in the furnace, when the mysterious curtain was again drawn aside. In turn we advanced, and, armed with a small pane of glass to protect the eyes from the glare, looked through the holes of the furnace. In the vortex of flames the remains appeared like a burning heap of vine branches. The superintendent announced that the operation would soon be at an end. In the interim we went down stairs. What we saw was simply the arrangement of a high furnace in a foundry, fed from the bottom. The fire never goes out—not from constant need of it, as has already been explained, but on account of the time required to get the proper degree of caloric. Four or five hours of active firing are necessary to bring it to the proper pitch, 600° to 800°. In the beginning wood was employed at the crematoire—light, very well seasoned wood, the same as used at the factory at Sèvres. It was found too expensive and too slow; it required for one cremation five hundred kilogrammes of wood. Now the heating is done with coke, which is much cheaper, and reduces the cost of the ceremony to about $20, while the conflagration of the gases shortens the duration of the time.

The formation of a columbarium has been begun in the crypt. There are already a half-score of tiers, including each some twenty-five partitions, into which can be deposited the diminutive sarcophagi—0.45 by 0.15 centimetres—oblong earthenware boxes that have nothing in common with that triumph of the potter's art, the funeral urn of the ancients. Shall we add that the fashion of 1889 has ordained no shelves to hold the lachrymatory vases? I noticed only two partitions occupied, closed with marble slabs bearing the names and dates. Such is the dream of the enthusiastic cremationist—to file and store away in a comparatively moderate space the remains of a great city. For an idea how easily it can be realized, let the reader reckon the thousands of letter-boxes that could be accommodated on both sides of the corridor in the New York post-office.

Our meditations were interrupted by a whistle from up stairs notifying the firemen on duty to slacken the fire by closing the valves that act as bellows. We ascended to find the iron tray back on its movable truck in the middle of the room. The asbestos covering was rosy, as if still bearing the reflection of the flames. A small heap of bones, rosy too, bore witness that the work of destruction was accomplished. Where the feet had rested, smouldered a few scraps of charcoal, which some one explained had been placed in the casket as a disinfectant. These scraps had resisted the fire longer than the body, and were still burning after an hour and twenty-five minutes had elapsed. The diminished remains gave rise to an exclamation from one of the spectators: "What, not even the skull preserved, witness of the fine intelligence that can act no more!"

The iron tray was fast being cooled by a current of water that passed along the sides. A couple of silver tongs, a silver shovel, and a small broom made of bristly wires served to clear the remains from the sheet of asbestos growing less rosy every moment. It yielded less dust than was expected; in fact, there was very little to gather, and the employees gave their attention chiefly to collecting the remnants of bone, which they did very respectfully in spite of the almost unbearable heat. The small quantity of dust seemed to disappoint some of the spectators. The same one who had already raised his voice remarked harshly that the Romans gathered all the residue without any reservation; that in the present instance the waste was indecent. His neighbor, an old man and a great savant—one, no doubt, who shared with Cuvier the belief that one bone alone is sufficient to reconstruct the entire frame of poor humanity—responded, as if having but half caught his meaning: "With acids this dust would be very profitable to agriculture." What followed was lost to me in a biting rejoinder from another source, that cremation had still to find the mathematician who could regulate it properly.

Is there not something more lacking? It was only when the small oblong sarcophagus was enclosed in an oaken casket a trifle larger, and borne by carriers to the vault where it was deposited, that the ceremony seemed to lack solemnity, even sacredness. One lost sight, as it were, of the fact that we were following the remains of a fellow-creature to their last resting-place—which proves, after all, how much depends upon forms. Sentiment, in such matters, is and always will be the sovereign master. Mankind has developed in a familiar poetry the idea of the symbolic rest in the bosom of mother earth, and too many pilgrims cherish this image to accept a scientific disposal of the mortal casing that begins by curtailing the length of the last bed.

LeCocq de Lautreppe.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

IV.—JULES BRETON, LHERMITTE, JULIEN DUPRÉ, BENJAMIN-CONSTANT — LANDSCAPE PAINTING—CAZIN.

Paris, August 9, 1889.

Jules Breton, the oldest of the painters of peasant life, is represented in the exhibition of works of living artists by ten canvases. One of these is a portrait, another, "The Miner's Daughter," a head of a girl painted in out-door light; the rest are pictures of the farm and the village—two being sketches rather than finished pictures. One of these last is the sketch for his "Twilight in a Hamlet of Finistère," and seems more full and rich in color than the picture sold in New York at the Seney sale. "Young Girls Going to the Procession," a picture of considerable size and similar in subject and in composition to the "First Communicants," which brought such a fantastic price at the Morgan sale, is not a remarkable work. Breton is best seen here in a smaller picture with a single figure, a peasant woman returning from the fields at evening, called "L'Étoile du Berger," a picture recalling his earlier and better manner when this undeniably talented artist thought more of his art for its own sake than he has seemed to do of late.

The influence of the annual Salon is transforming landscape painting in France into the painting of panoramas. With a glorious past, including Corot and Daubigny, Rousseau and Diaz (and even Harpignies and Jules Dupré, though still alive), many of the landscape painters of to-day apparently have no other object in view in their work than to spread out a motive on ten feet of canvas, and draw and model it in monochrome. The drawing is in general excellent, and in this direction there is marked progress in the average of the work; the modelling leaves little to be desired in the way of breadth and solidity. But though the values at first glance look studied, and the pictures have a specious air of truth to nature, we find that it is not truth at all; that there is no air in the pictures, and for the ever-varying modifications of the local color under atmospheric conditions—the influence of sunlight on the hills and trees in the distance, the red and yellow in the lights, the blue in the shadows, for example—there is substituted an unchanging local tint, say a green, which, approaching truth in the foreground, is attenuated in the middle distance, but still remains the same green, is further diluted with a little white and blue fur-

ther off; and if then there remain other parts of the motive that cannot be made to conform to this miserable means for simulating values, there are at hand on the palette convenient mixtures of weak gray or wishy-washy purple. With these the parts are filled in, and swiped together with a facile brush into a semblance of light and air. It is deplorable. I do not believe that it has come to pass from any shirking of difficulties in the beginning, for there is too much honesty in the work in other ways. Most of these landscapes are admirably drawn, many of them show great cleverness in the arrangement of the composition. A few are really fine in this respect. But a landscape painted on an easel canvas is lost in the Salon. It may be a delicate piece of color like a Corot, or a rich one like a Rousseau; it will not be remarked in the flood of big canvases, or, if remarked, it will not show at its true value surrounded by the "noisy" pictures painted up to the highest possible key to stand the glare of the large galleries. So the landscape-painters have gradually made their pictures bigger, and pushed the key higher and higher, until they have arrived at the sort of things we see here in the Champ de Mars.

Distinction and refinement of color on such a scale are impossible; the picture must strike at first glance, and not be killed by its neighbors. Here is a strong, broadly handled canvas by Binet, one of the best of the younger men, called "The Plain"—a wide stretch of country covering a vast meadow in the foreground, one or two villages and clumps of woods in the middle distance, and a long range of hills at the horizon. The sky is rolled up with clouds high above, a great expanse of masses of white and gray. It is exceedingly well done. There is evident study in the drawing of the clouds, in the modelling of the ground, in the way the dark masses of the woods are placed to break up the monotonous horizontal lines of the plain and the hills. Yet how uninteresting it is, after all, and what a small amount of pleasure there is to be got out of such a picture! It is all seen at once, and there is no depth, no delicate blending of a hundred tints into a harmonious whole, no quiet reserve of color, no sober tones here putting in relief the gayer notes there; little more than a dexterous superficiality. To the works of Yon, a man of a great deal of ability; to those of Saïn, Rapin, Dameron, Saintin, Barau, Nozal, Le Poitevin, Joubert, Le Marié des Landelles, Petitjean, Diéterle, Boudot, and others of less talent, these remarks are pertinent. There are others, again, such as Montenard and Gagliardini, who catch the eye in another fashion. These are painters of sunlight. Their process is to force up the colors in the lights with white, opposing other cruder tints, a little lower in value, to set off the most brilliant ones, and exaggerating the shadows. The effect is striking enough, without doubt; but how much truer are some of Guillaumet's pictures, in which the sunlight burns with scorching heat, but where there is air through it all, and not a single discordant note.

Pelouze—the new school shows a marked influence from his work—has not changed either for better or worse. There are ten of his pictures here. No man knows better than he how to paint these big pictures. They are the best of their kind—full of knowledge, vigorously, unhesitatingly painted, marvels of skill, but never rising to the higher qualities of beauty and distinction. He is seen at his best in "Morning in the Woods in Franche-Comté" and "Evening at the Farm," in which the present tendencies of French landscape painting appear in their least unfavorable aspect. In Guillemet, Hanoteau, Bernier, Zuber, in Émile Breton, in Pointelin and Demont, whose works are among those not to be included in the list of scenic pictures, there is much to admire. Guillemet is particularly to be noted, for though he is not exactly a colorist, his pictures have a considerable amount of color quality, and they are anything but superficial. Hanoteau and Bernier made their reputations twenty years ago, and have remained faithful to sound traditions. Of the old school, Jules Dupré and Français, both of whom are represented here, are to be mentioned, principally because their work of to-day is of interest to us from what they have done in the past. Harpignies, a sturdy master of form, a draughtsman such as there are few of, an analyst and a thinker whose work is sure to last, can be studied in eight excellent pictures. He cannot be called a colorist—indeed, he seems to be too much occupied with form to search for color harmonies; but in so far as color is an element in his pictures it is truthful and consistent in all its parts. He never descends to the tricky devices I pointed out as the prevalent evil in so much of the present landscape painting, is always honest and never perfunctory. A composition of a group of naked trees in a picture called "Victim of Winter," is handsome in its elegant simplicity. In "Solitude" and "The Banks of the Loing" are to be found some of the best qualities of the true *paysagiste:* beauty of line, unity of tone, and simplicity of expression. Harpignies has long been a force in the development of landscape painting; much of what is best in it now—good drawing and composition—is traceable to his influence.

Two younger painters of the life of the fields have become prominent in the past ten years, and both are worthy. Lhermitte is the abler man of the two. Julien Dupré is, by comparison, a trifle superficial, and does not seem to be so much in sympathy with his subjects. Lhermitte as a colorist is far from satisfying in his two large pictures shown here, "The Harvest" and "Wine." The picture now in the Metropolitan Museum, called "The Vintage," is infinitely better in this respect. There is research of character, the types are truthful, and the rendering is broad and soberly conceived. What is deplorable is the size of these compositions; the figures are even larger than life. Reduced to a third on an easel canvas, the pictures might be painted with some thought of color harmony. As they are, the painter is not able to do much more than color his figures and their environment in certain tints more or less truthful-looking when viewed in their ensemble, but entirely lacking in the harmonies of local color. The charcoal drawings by this artist to be found in another part of the exhibition are on this account more satisfying, for he is not concerned in them with color at all, and we are not distressed by its insufficiency, as we do not expect it.

Julien Dupré, though he paints his simple subjects on a large scale, too, at times, succeeds better as regards color. It is fresh and bright without much depth, but with considerable variety, and answers the purpose—not much more. His picture of "Milking Time," from the Salon of 1888, and "Haymaking," both large canvases, are good examples of his skill. Both are well drawn and soundly painted, but neither has a breath of art—of that sort of art we find in Millet's work, I mean, where the peasants are real peasants who toil in the fields and look as if they belonged there. There is more of that in Lhermitte, but between him and Millet there is a long gap.

Benjamin-Constant is one of the few men in France to-day who paint a large canvas without forgetting that there is such a thing as color. He is a competent draughtsman as well. In his exhibition here his methods are best exemplified in two works, "Les Chérifas" and the decorative panels for the new Sorbonne. "Les Chérifas," two women in a dimly lighted room hung with heavy stuffs and carpeted with rich rugs, is one of those pictures of life in the Orient with which the painter's name is identified. It is not superficially colored, with glowing notes here and there, without regard to values, as many pictures of these subjects by other painters are. A vast number have been painted by Frenchmen, but only three before Benjamin-Constant have done them so well as to require special mention: Delacroix, Henri Regnault, and Guillaumet. Guillamet, an artist of very great talent who died a few years ago, has perhaps succeeded better than anybody else in reproducing the *couleur locale* of the Orient, and his works are marked by a sobriety of color unusual with painters of these subjects. Benjamin-Constant, while he sometimes uses the Oriental subject, as Delacroix and Regnault did, as a fit theme for the display of puissant color harmonies, also impresses one with a look of truth to the scene itself. In "Les Chérifas" he has apparently tried to be truthful and to produce a color work as well. While it is far from equalling the brilliancy of Delacroix or Regnault in the latter respect, it is yet so good as to make it a very creditable canvas. In the midst of the other big pictures in the galleries where it is hung, huge expanses of dull brown and gray, where the painters seem, after having placed a few figures laid in with conventional tints, to have filled up the rest of the canvas with whatever came handiest in the way of muddy palette scrapings, "Les Chérifas" is remarkable at first glance. Possibly it gains by its surroundings—almost anything with a pretence to real color should; but aside from that it has color quality that deserves recognition of itself without regard to comparisons. In "Les Lettres—L'Académie de Paris—Les Sciences," three vast decorative panels full of figures of heroic size, embracing almost everything from nude or partly draped female figures to doctors in robes of red or yellow or black, we find a distinct determination on the part of the painter to do something more than a composition of figures colored in neutral tints, a convenient way of making a wall decoration which shall not offend by lack of harmony with its surroundings, but which also is sure to be tame unless, as in the case of the work of Puvis de Chavannes, the composition itself is of such beauty and completeness, and the coloration of such delicacy and refinement, as to preclude a desire to see it changed in any way. Benjamin-Constant in this work has painted from a brilliant palette: the primary colors and infinite combinations of them are here laid in in broad, simple masses. It is brilliant, if not distinguished, in the direction of *la grande peinture* at least, even if it does not reach it, and hence commendable. Compared with similar work in the exhibition, where there is no effort to overcome difficulties, but where painters contrive by tricky means to evade them, it is absolutely refreshing.

A young painter of historical subjects, Ernest Bordes, whose success dates from 1884, when he received a third-class medal for a picture, "St. Julien l'Hospitalier," followed by one of the second class in 1886, deserves to be mentioned here for an excellent work, "The Death of Bishop Proetextatus," in which, along with able draughtsmanship and well-studied composition, there is an evident inten-

tion to *paint*, to preserve the equilibrium of values while searching the actual color in each. This has become so rare with the painters of to-day that it is worth noting whenever found, and it is gratifying to find it here and there in the work of the younger men. There is in this fact some hope that what may be included in the general term of historical painting will not fall into the complete decadence that the contemplation of most of the work of this class in the Champ de Mars gives us good cause to expect in the near future.

It is not necessary to study further in detail the work of individuals in the exhibition. The well-known painters I have not already mentioned are here represented by more or less satisfactory specimens of their art. The average is about the same as it was eight or ten years ago. Vollon, Duez, Jean Beraud, Dantan, Adan, Detaille, Le Blant, Renouf, Courtois, Pille, and Commerre are some of the most notable in the mass of contributors. Mme. Demont-Breton, always a conscientious painter, shows distinct progress over her earlier work, and makes a most creditable exhibition. Norbert Goeneutte, whose subjects are similar to those of Beraud—scenes of Paris life; Raffaelli, a man of much talent, but eccentric in his methods, a searcher after character above everything else; Marius Roy, a clever painter of genre; Guinard, whose exhibition consists of but one picture, but that a very good one—a life-size study of a man feeding a calf—are a few more names worth noting. Meissonier, whose best work occupies a place in the Retrospective Exhibition, is here represented by ten canvases—a portion of what he has produced in the last decade. "The Traveller," a man on horseback beating his way along the road in the face of a storm, is the best of these. A portrait of himself, "bricky" in color and dry in *facture*, is notable for the drawing only.

I have purposely left until the last in this review of landscape painting in France at the present day the work of the one man who stands out prominently as the possessor of a perfectly individual talent, and who is, beyond question, one of the greatest artists of our time. Cazin, though he is most properly classed as a landscape-painter, has also a decorative side in his painting, and frequently introduces figures, sometimes even making them the subjects of his pictures, but never treating them as the chief element, and never concentrating the interest in them at the expense of their surroundings. His "Judith—The Departure," "Tobit," and other pictures shown by him in the Champ de Mars contain figures, but they occupy only equal importance with the landscape. They are in it and a part of it, not accessories, like the shepherd under the trees or the man and the horse in the road, introduced in the conventional landscape for the sake of the opportunity to put in an accenting color note, and yet not absorbing the attention as in the works of the peasant painters, where the landscape is subordinated to the figure. It is best expressed by saying that Cazin is a decorative landscape painter. His landscape and his figures are treated as component parts of one harmonious whole, in which every note of color has its proper place and its proper strength. For Cazin is a colorist, a great colorist—not in the sense that Delacroix is, for example; he is far more sensitive and refined than Delacroix. He more nearly resembles Millet, though more diversified. We shall not be able to describe him by comparison with others, for he possesses something that belongs to none. His color schemes are always quiet and reserved; there is never a sharp contrast, nor what is often called an "effective" play of one high note upon its complementary. The contrasts and the counter-play exist, but they are subdued so that they do not attract notice by themselves; they are effective in the best sense of the word because they make themselves felt only in the ensemble. Analysis, in fact, is disagreeable, for Cazin's work is so delicately impressive that it seems like scraping a portrait by Titian to see how it was painted, to seek out the details of his methods. The result, however attained, is infinitely beautiful. It is beautiful in color, in the sustained unity of the atmospheric effect, in truth, in simplicity, in the charm of that real art that depicts nature with a faithful eye and sympathetic brush, and is infused with the loving tenderness of a poetic temperament. Whether it pleases the public, outside of a select few, I do not know—but moderately I imagine, though Cazin's place among his fellow-artists is a high one. In New York, partly owing to the exclusive worship of other gods, and partly because his best work has never been seen there, he does not hold the rank his marvellous talent entitles him to. I trust it may not be long before he is fully known and appreciated. There is scarcely any living painter whose acquaintance is so well worth making.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

A NORTHERN SHOOTING AFFAIR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That the South does not monopolize the reckless use of firearms, that lax notions concerning such recklessness are not confined to the authorities of Southern communities alone, has been illustrated afresh by an incident that came within my observation last week.

The town of Shamokin is one of the largest in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania, having a contiguous population of from eighteen to twenty thousand. One of its citizens, Tovey by name, came home from work last Thursday evening to find that his wife was at a picnic and that no supper had been prepared for him. When Mrs. Tovey appeared, a quarrel ensued, in which one Shovlin, the wife's brother, took part. It is not certain which of the men first armed himself, but Tovey procured an axe and Shovlin a revolver. In the fracas Shovlin shot at Tovey four times, without other effect than to collect a great crowd and to frighten the target so badly that he tripped on his axe. Shovlin then went to his brother's house, a few blocks distant, and there spent the night. In the morning he found a policeman, went with him to the Council Chamber, and was fined in the sum of five dollars *for shooting within the borough limits.*

One of the Shamokin evening papers had a full account of the affair, but the editor has not a syllable of censure for this gross abuse of power on the part of the town officials. And yet what an absurd distinction to draw with regard to a boundary line! Had Shovlin been considerate enough to take his brother-in-law outside the borough limits, a tedious and inconvenient journey, to shoot at him with his revolver, all would have been well. But to outrage the councilmanic dignity by trying to murder him in the heart of the town was too reprehensible, and a monumental penalty is necessary to deter future meddlers in family quarrels.

TARPY.

AUGUST 26, 1889.

LYNCH LAW AND CHRISTIANITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am sorry to see that the "Southern Pastor" thinks that I have misrepresented him. It seems to me that he must have misrepresented himself and his Christianity; for he says much harder things of himself than any I should ever have dared to write. It is very evident that his "standard of Christianity" and mine do not agree; but this is no place for a religious discussion. However, he says: "If any one that really understands the conditions can suggest a better remedy [than lynch law], no one would welcome it more readily than I." I cannot understand how a minister of "Christ's Gospel" could be obliged to ask any layman for a better remedy than lawless violence for any evil whatsoever. It is astonishing how good people who decry professed Anarchists will at the same time preach Anarchy themselves.

The "Pastor" admits that "the elevation of this barbarism by Christian education is the true method," but adds, "It works a little slowly, and meanwhile must innocence, etc." That is, if a man knows that honesty is the true method of conducting business, but finds "it works a little slowly," he is justified in doing a little stealing to help along the good cause of his fortunes.

In spite of all the "Pastor's" appeal to "the inherent right of self-defence," which, by the way, has been questioned by many Christians, notably the Quakers and the "noble army of martyrs," he misses altogether the main point in dispute, and that is, whether lawless violence is the proper cure for lawless violence. We certainly should not consider a man justifiable who tried to break his child of the habit of swearing by thrashing him and swearing at him during the operation. This "inherent right of self-defence" is too often, in the South, made the excuse for aggressive violence and murder. The reference to "Pinkerton's men" does not help the "Pastor's" argument. The pot should never call the kettle black; it does not help to clean the pot a particle.

I must say finally that I am not a "Northern philanthropist," but a Southerner, born and bred in a slave State, and that my knowledge of Southern chivalry and Southern barbarism has been acquired by personal experience and observation. I regard the characteristic vices of the Southern people as the natural outcome of generations of slavery. Thomas Jefferson has shown that slaveholding not only degrades the slave, but also brutalizes the master. It makes him unreasonable and violent in his temper, ready at all times to resort to force instead of milder and more Christian means. Besides, those who hold or have held slaves come to regard them as a different race of beings, to be governed by different means; and those of the "superior race" are always prone to inflict all manner of barbaric outrages upon their "inferiors," which they would not tolerate a moment if applied to themselves. They utterly fail to see that he who performs or attempts to justify barbaric actions is necessarily a barbarian himself.

WM. SCHUYLER.

WEBSTER GROVES, ME., August 27, 1889.

AMERICAN REPUTATION FOR ILLITERACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just seen a letter in one of your July numbers where your correspondent complains of the general belief among Englishmen in American illiteracy. This reminds me of an experience a short time since in St. John's College, Cambridge. We were wandering

about with one of the Fellows, who had been cordial and kindly in his attentions to us. As we entered the beautiful dining-hall, my eye fell on a fine portrait of Wordsworth, and I said, "So, this is Wordsworth's college." "It WAS. Wordsworth is dead," was the prompt though gentle correction.

Now for the other side. Later in the day one of the party was looking over some old coins in a curiosity-shop. He bought a three-penny piece of the time of Charles II. Presently he asked the price of a Jubilee six-pence, and was surprised to be asked three times as much as for his three-pence. He said he thought it would be the other way. "Oh," said the man, "a great many people know about the Queen and the Jubilee. Very few people here know or care anything about Charles II." AMERICAN.

MONT ST. MICHEL, August 18, 1889.

WATER-MARKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1258 of the *Nation* a reviewer raises a question as to the help afforded by water-marks in fixing the date of publishing of any book. The following may be of interest: I have seen a copy of the Aldine (1497) edition of 'Dictionarium Græcum,' in which there are at least six different marks. Of six consecutive sheets or leaves, two have no marks, while the remaining four have marks totally unlike. In these six sheets there are three, if not four, different kinds or qualities of paper distinguishable. WALTER B. SHEPPARD.

PENN YAN, N. Y., August 24, 1889.

SHORT POSTAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I appeal to the charity of the *Nation* for relief from an affliction which, if not grievous, is persistent and useless? I am in more or less continual receipt of letters from unknown friends in America on subjects connected with my letters to the papers or articles on Italian art in the *Century*. Sometimes they are directed to the *Century*, sometimes to Rome, and sometimes to Athens; and generally bearing a two-cent stamp. I have even received a double letter with a two-cent stamp, on which I have had to pay sixteen cents supplementary postage. Sometimes a directed envelope is enclosed with a two-cent stamp affixed. This of course, as any simpleton should know, is wasted. May I notify correspondents that my address is *always and simply* "Rome, Italy"; or, if I should be away from the city, "care of F. M. Handley, Banker," will reach me quicker? I will not, however, any longer notice letters that come to me with a two-cent stamp. Human patience draws the line there. Under no circumstances put *Poste restante* or the address of my apartment, if known, and don't put Esq. after the name.

Yours, with many thanks,

W. J. STILLMAN.

PIEVE DI CADORE, ITALY, August 18, 1889.

A RECTIFICATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly permit me to give publicity, through the columns of the *Nation*, to an injustice that has been done me? In my paper on "Iridescent Pottery in Mexico," in the current number of *Harper's Monthly*, I am made to say, "My attention was called by an American visitor to Mexico, some two years ago, to remarkable specimens of iridescent pottery which he had found at Patzcuaro," and later, that I "took up the clue," etc. During Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's visit to Mexico in 1886, I was one day praising to him the strong art instinct of these people, and, in referring to the fact that each section has its own particular style of pottery, whose characteristics readily mark its source, I spoke of the exceeding beauty of an iridescent variety which I had seen in the interior, but whose place of manufacture I knew not. Mr. Warner corrected my phraseology, at first with indulgent superiority, then with some degree of impatience at my insistence, and said: "You may mean highly lustrous pottery, but you cannot mean 'iridescent'; you do not comprehend the true significance of that term; it is out of the question that it be 'iridescent' ware." Then he told me briefly the history of these lustres in Europe.

While I am very ignorant of ceramics, save Mexican varieties, I do believe that I thoroughly understand the exact value of all terms, whose use I may permit myself, of the English language. I was much nettled by Mr. Warner's contradiction, and I assured him that while the ware might be not like that he mentioned, it was surely iridescent, and that I would prove it to him. This was *before* Mr. Warner went to Morelia or Patzcuaro. While he was at Toluca, I found at an Indian fair near Mexico some little jugs of the ware, which I purchased. It chanced that I, with some friends, visited Toluca on the day that Mr. Warner first went to Morelia, he taking the train from which we descended; when we met him on the platform, I laughingly told him that I was ready to make good my "I-told-you-so." On his return from Patzcuaro he brought four or five pieces, miniature cups and goblets, not over two or three inches long, and with barely a trace of the exquisite lustre. I helped him pack them, wrapping them all in a towel for transportation, and I then promised to find and send to him some of the handsome placques of which I had told him.

For over a year I worked hard and constantly to trace this pottery—how hard no one would believe, save those who know the almost insuperable difficulties of obtaining definite or accurate information in Mexico. A few brief lines setting forth these obstacles were eliminated from my paper, like all else tending to show my true part in the matter. Dr. Prime, in his "Introduction" to my paper, says: "Mr. Warner took measures to trace these wares to their origin," and, by implication, that "the result" of those "measures" was my "adventurous journey." The only measure he took was the stimulating, as aforesaid, of my pride and determination by his scepticism, and he had absolutely no other part in the matter. It is true that until Mr. Warner told me I did not know the importance of the beautiful ware, but it is equally true that I first told him, not he me, of its existence.

He knew that I had no resources but the earnings of my pen, yet, notwithstanding all the interest felt by himself and others in obtaining information, no one of them suggested advancing funds to prosecute, and which would have greatly expedited, the discovery. Every penny of the expenses incurred was earned by me by my pen-work, and I have never received any compensation save the usual rates from *Harper's* for my article. I refer to this point only because I think Dr. Prime's wording would give the impression that I was employed to study up the subject. When at last I learned where the pottery was made, I wrote to Mr. Warner, simply as a friend, naming the place and stating my intention to go there shortly. A week or two later I was told that a certain gentleman had gone to the City of Mexico, commissioned by his intimate friend, Mr. Warner, to visit San Felipe and learn the process of making the pottery. I wrote to this gentleman that we might co-operate, but received no answer, nor do I know what truth there was in the rumor of his mission.

A good many people in Mexico had become interested in my sustaining my assertions to Mr. Warner, whose strictures in *Harper's* had aroused some ill-feeling, so that numbers will remember the circumstances as I related them at the time. As soon as I returned from S. Felipe, a railroad employee—I believe he was a conductor—thought he saw profit in the ware, and he exported two car-loads, which he put on sale in the curiosity shops in El Paso, in Santa Fé, in California, and elsewhere. Mr. Warner and Dr. Prime meanwhile wrote to me, saying that they would gladly repay me the costs if I would send them some specimens. I had bought at San Felipe a large crate of the ware, and had it carried on an Indian's back to Guanaxuato, where I repacked it, and shipped it by Wells, Fargo & Co. to Mexico. The express messenger stowed it under a heap of heavy boxes, and much of it was broken. I at once procured more through the agency of friends, and, to insure its safety, carried it in a hand-basket all the way to El Paso, whence I sent to Mr. Warner and Dr. Prime a boxful each, as a present. In view of these circumstances, I think it unfair and ungracious that Dr. Prime should say, describing those pieces, "They had been discovered by Mr. Charles Dudley Warner in a shop in a Mexican city." The notes of the express company, the evidence of parties who saw me pack the ware and ship it from El Paso, and Dr. Prime's own letter of acknowledgment of the box, which he received February 7, 1888 (not "two years ago"), will prove this.

My first account of the expedition was not received by Dr. Prime, to whom Mr. Warner had asked me to send it, and I was out of postal communication much of the time for several months after posting it, being banished to the hot coast lands by the physicians, who pronounced me dying from lung troubles, principally due to exposure incurred on the San Felipe trip. This delayed my paper's appearance nearly a year. I had written also a humorous account of the trip, setting forth how the scepticism of Mr. Warner led up to it; a copy was sent to Mr. Warner of this sketch, which appeared in a leading journal of March 11, 1888.

I am at a loss to know why Dr. Prime should have taken such liberties with my manuscript. Surely Mr. Warner would not prompt or countenance such misrepresentations; it is in naught derogatory to him that he should have been wrong and I right, in a matter relating to a country that he had known but a few days, and I familiarly from childhood. But if Mr. Warner had seen fit to take exceptions to my wording, would not the courteous and just course have been to advise me of such objections, making the employment of the paper contingent upon my optional modification of the phrases which, for the sake of argument, I will say he might have considered vainglorious at his expense? But, no! Mr. Warner himself pronounced the paper "good" and available in a letter which I have before me, and in the course of several weeks that they (he and Dr. Prime) had my paper, awaiting my forwarding of the names of the substances I had sent to be analyzed, they made not the slightest suggestion of such changes, to which I most certainly

would have not consented, but would have recalled my paper, without filling the blanks in question.

It may be said that the changes are editorial. But, as a point of delicacy, Mr. Warner could not countenance, in an office where he fills an editorial position, alterations which rob me of my just dues to redound to his credit. And although one, to be sure, knows that the manuscripts one offers to a periodical are subject, if accepted, to editing, this relates to matters of form only, and does not authorize the interpolation in a writer's paper, and over his name, of sentiments or statements diametrically the opposite of those he has expressed. Again, the editor of *Harper's* cannot be responsible for the statements so utterly at variance with the facts, in Dr. Prime's introduction to my misused paper. I have written to Mr. Warner, asking him, as the person who put me in communication with Dr. Prime, to see that this wrong is righted ; but, lest his absence from home, or other cause, prevent or postpone such act of justice, I appeal to the press to make known the facts, which I declare, by all that I hold most sacred, are as I have stated. Also, as in my isolated place of dwelling I fail to see the current news regularly, I beg that some lover of justice will forward to me anything which may be published in this connection, that my cause may not go by default, as must be if my silence and failure to reply should make me appear to acquiesce in opposing statements. Y. H. Addis.

Chihuahua, Mexico, August 7, 1889.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish this month Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Master of Ballantrae,' and announce besides the second volume of Champlin and Apthorp's 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians'; 'Whither? A Theological Question for the Times,' by the Rev. C. A. Briggs; 'Foreign Missions: Their Place in the Pastorate, in Prayer, in Conferences,' by the Rev. Augustus C. Thompson; and 'A Collection of the Letters of Dickens, 1833-1870.' Scribner & Welford will shortly issue 'The Memoir of Count Carlo Gozzi,' translated by John Addington Symonds, with essays of his own on Italian impromptu, comedy, etc.

Franklin's Autobiography is to be printed once more in the Nuggets Series of the Messrs. Putnam, and edited once more by Mr. John Bigelow.

Mr. John T. Morse, jr.'s, biography of Franklin for the American Statesmen Series will appear immediately. 'Two Coronets,' a novel by Miss Mary Agnes Tincker, is also in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'Jacob and Japheth; or, Bible Growth and Religion from Abraham to Daniel,' is in the press of T. Whittaker.

An illustrated translation of W. Heimburg's new novel, 'Lora, the Major's Daughter,' is announced for immediate publication by Worthington Co.

'In and Around Berlin,' by an American lady, Mrs. Norton, will shortly appear with the imprint of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

A translation by Mrs. Wilson of Victor Tissot's 'Unknown Switzerland' comes to us from A. D. F. Randolph & Co. Graphic, vivacious, enthusiastic, it will serve as a vivid reminder of past pleasure to those who have witnessed the scenes it describes, and to inspire the untravelled with desire to see for themselves. Stories, anecdotes, accounts of manners and customs, and fragments of history diversify the diligence-travel and mountain-climbing. Our author detests the large hotels, the dress-coat waiter, Cook's tourists, the mountain railways; and, as the book's name implies, he deals largely with the less commonplace experiences in Swiss sight-seeing. We hear, for instance, much of La Gruyère, very little or nothing of Chamouni or the Rigi. The faults of the translation interfere but slightly with the pleasurableness of the book.

The appearance of the twenty-second annual issue of Poor's indispensable 'Railroad Manual,' for 1889, calls for no remark that has not been repeated twenty times. The preface will be found very instructive, especially on its retrospective side, cognizance being taken of the republic's having begun its second century this year. A population of 4,000,000 in 1789 has grown to 65,000,000, and, in the sixty years ending in 1888, has built for itself 156,082 miles of railroad, at a rate since 1865 of 5,260 miles per annum. Mr. Poor estimates the number of railroad employees at six per mile (say 936,000); the number of employees in affiliated and dependent industries at five per mile (780,000). These, with their families, make a total of 8,850,000, or nearly a seventh of the population. One can readily imagine the influence of this interest on legislation in favor of free exchange and against protection, could it ever be consciously exerted in this direction. But we well know that ignorance and selfishness abound even in the highest walks of railroading as of manufactures.

Two or three medical books of the present year have a general interest. Dr. J. L. Corning's 'Treatise on Headache and Neuralgia' (E. B. Treat) is from the pen of a prolific writer upon neurology. It gives a layman the impression that the author must know a good deal about a subject upon which he writes so much; but the frequent technicalities deny to such a reader much direct benefit. To the profession it would probably be more acceptable if less diffuse. The index is not as complete as a book intended for reference requires. The same publisher sends us a revised edition of the late Dr. Beard's 'Nervous Exhaustion,' edited by Dr. Rockwell, a suggestive book by an original man. Its style is more discursive than directly didactic, and the author's enthusiasm colors some of the statements. Dr. Beard's enthusiasm, however, did much to stimulate attention to functional nervous diseases. In certain social circles, or planes, it is confidently believed that the doctors take out damaged eyes, and, after repair, replace them, and that silver plates inserted in the skull are the correct finish for trepanning. Achievements nearly as startling are becoming actual every-day affairs in surgery, as we are reminded by a reprint of Dr. De Forest Willard's paper 'On Osteotomy for Anterior Curves of the Legs' (*Med. and Surg. Reporter*). The plain English of osteotomy is bone-cutting. Children whose legs utterly fail as locomotive agents by reason of eccentric and numerous curves, have them rectified and made useful by skilful treatment, which in this case means wonderful fractures and cuttings of bone. The author frankly remarks that he has "never ventured beyond six osteotomies at one time," although he adds, "as high as ten have been performed." The degraded physical life that has resulted in such travesties of limbs is frightful to contemplate, while the courage and tender cruelty by which this remarkable mechanical reformation is accomplished are worthy of all praise.

Seldomer than one could wish does one find in the *Magazine of American History* substantial contributions to knowledge like Mr. Robert Stiles's article in the September number, "Lincoln's Restoration Policy for Virginia." Messrs. Hay and Nicolay should be thankful for it when their narrative reaches this point—so near the end—of President Lincoln's career. Mr. Stiles, touching the famous interview with Judge Campbell, on board Admiral Porter's flagship below Richmond on April 5, 1865, quotes the Admiral's 'Incidents of the Civil War' and Grant's 'Memoirs,' which contradict each other as to Porter's being present, but agree in stating that the President, then and there, gave Gen. Weitzel an order to permit the Legislature of Virginia to meet at once for the purpose of bringing the State back into the Union. Admiral Porter also represents himself to have quickly changed Mr. Lincoln's mind, and to have pursued and recalled the order. Mr. Stiles proves, as we think, that this order was sent subsequently from City Point by the President. But his main contention is, that Mr. Lincoln was the author and sponsor of the call on April 11 for a meeting of the General Assembly, and that only on the 13th did he, in Washington, at Secretary Stanton's instance, change his mind and with his own hand prohibit the meeting. Gen. Grant represents this countermanding to have been done independently by the Secretary while the President was still in the neighborhood of Richmond.

The "instantaneous photograph" and "process" engraving seem to have been foreordained for recording what it is the fashion to call the "origins" of State-founding like that of Oklahoma. Those who wish to study the physiognomy of an American settlement in the act, so to speak, will do well to read Mr. Hamilton S. Wicks's article on "The Opening of Oklahoma" in the *Cosmopolitan* for September. The pictures, with dates affixed, tell almost the whole story.

The *Portfolio* for August (Macmillan) has a certain uniformity of contents as helping to a better knowledge and appreciation of three artists, viz., an English sculptor of to-day, E. Roscoe Mullins, an English engraver of the last century, William Woollett, and the German naturalist and animal designer, Joseph Wolf. Examples of the work of each are given. Mr. Mullins's performance has already been so considerable that Mr. Walter Armstrong's introduction of him to the public would appear almost superfluous. Mr. Armstrong is an interested admirer, but by no means a thick-and-thin eulogist. Incidentally he has much to say in praise of a recent provincial foundation, the Harris Museum, at Preston, for which Mr. Mullins sculptured the pediment. The building contains a library, a museum, and a picture-gallery, and seems well worth a visit from rich Americans who have not yet made their wills.

At the last meeting of the American Library Association, Miss Mary S. Cutler of the New York State Library presented the results of an inquiry into the practice of libraries having 10,000 volumes and upwards as to Sunday opening. Miss Cutler is a decided advocate of this practice, but a very fair and temperate one, and, as she wishes to pursue the subject further, she "will gratefully welcome any bit of experience throwing new light upon it," pro or con. Out of 59 college libraries heard from, as many as 12 are open on Sunday; only 3 out of 11 theological-seminary libraries. In Mt. Holyoke Seminary and College, only religious books may be taken out.

The annual report just published by the Trustees of the Art Institute of Chicago tells of their mature deliberation last summer, without opposition from any quarter, to open the Museum free to the public on Sunday, in addi-

tion to the free Saturday. This step "has appeared to justify itself from the beginning." In March last the number of visitors was 6,616. The cost of the opening has been $400 per annum.

Under the unexplained name "The Kyrle Society," a number of persons started twelve years ago a movement "to bring beauty home to the people." They confine their ministration to London alone, and this with the less regret because it is in London that beauty is most needed, and further "that the refusal of the London Society to undertake work at a distance often stimulates an outlying district to start a Kyrle Society of its own." There are already eight or nine provincial societies of this sort, it appears. The original society has four branches devoted to the four objects: (a) of providing and laying out for public use open spaces in towns; (b) decorating with pictures and otherwise hospitals, workmen's clubs, and parish rooms; (c) giving musical performances; and (d) distributing literature. The members of the society work at these tasks gratuitously, and therefore the money cost of its doings is but small. Nor are regular fixed dues exacted, but any one by contributing in money or in labor becomes a member for the year. Moreover, all its tendency being unsectarian, church buildings have to be eschewed; but there are mentioned as having been taken in hand by the Decorative Committee during 1888, "a Roman Catholic Boys' Club, a temperance hall, a Wesleyan mission-room, a Girls' Recreation-room in charge of the All-Hallows Sisters, and another managed by two deaconesses." We extract this information from the 'Transactions of the National Association for the Advancement of Art and its Applications to Industry,' a volume lately reviewed in these columns, and the matter seems worthy of the consideration of Americans alike in cities and in country towns.

The *Real Academia de la Historia* of Madrid proposes a worthy celebration of the Columbus centennial by offering prizes of 30,000 and 15,000 pesetas (about $6,000 and $3,000) for the best works on the discoveries of the Portuguese and Spaniards from the time of Prince Henry the Navigator, and the social, political, and economical results following upon them. Works written in Spanish, French, English, German, and Italian will be considered, and the successful authors will receive, in addition to the money, 500 copies of their books, which will be printed by the Academy. The tribunal will comprise the diplomatic representatives in Spain of any country presenting a work in the competition, within the time, which is limited to January 1, 1892. Any of our scholars desiring further information on the subject can address the secretaries of the Academy, Señores Juan Valera and Juan F. Riaño.

—In *Scribner's*, Mr. Andrew Lang takes up with some asperity the cause of Alexandre Dumas, in an essay which, though of little critical value, is written with even more spirit and cleverness than one confidently expects in this critic's defence of his own favorites. Romantic literature is really the thing at stake in the discussion, though Dumas rather than Sir Walter is chosen for the topic, and in more than one vehement passage the attack is pressed upon the unnamed but easily discerned American novelist who is the champion of "the school of the future"—of realism without any disguises. Mr. Lang's paper does not attempt more than the avowal of his own taste in fiction, and his faith that he is one of a multitude of witnesses to the immortality of fiction as it was; but it is entertaining and tonic. It is, moreover, a pleasure to see a literary paper in the great magazines of this city, since their inattention to literature, except on special occasions, is so marked a characteristic. In the railroad series we have this month an extremely well-managed article upon Safety Appliances; and a second special article is devoted to the subject of the "Small Arms of European Armies," in which the quality of our own armament is much scoffed at. We should notice, also, the beginning of a novel by Harold Frederic, which opens in the Mohawk Valley in 1757, and promises to be an adventurous story laid in an interesting period and country.

—The *Century* opens with one of Mr. Hamilton Gibson's ever welcome illustrated articles on the delicate things of nature. In this case it is the butterflies as "winged botanists" that he employs pen and pencil on, and with his usual success in both. Mr. Wores's pictures in Japan are also noticeable for their effects as engraved, and illustrate the interest of an artist in that country as plainly on the æsthetic side as his agreeable text records the impression he received of the people. The third fully illustrated paper is upon the subject of the Pharaoh of the Exodus, whom Mr. Paine finds in King Menephtah. His argument is very learned and exhaustive, and involves the telling of a very interesting piece of Egyptian history, together with the tragedy which there was in the slaying of the Pharaoh's only son, Setî Menephtah, by the angel of the Lord in his passage over Egypt. A remarkably complete series of cuts informs us as completely as is possible of the features and figure of the king and of his heir in whom his line came to an end. A paper of special interest to students of Napoleon consists of some unpublished letters of English officers, and a diary kept by one of them on the voyage to St. Helena, in which the conversation and trivial acts of the ex-Emperor are closely noted. Mr. Kennan tells the history of the Kara prison, for the misery of which his earlier papers have prepared us without making the story any the less revolting now that it is read in full. Masaccio is the subject of Mr. Cole's Italian engraving—an admirable group from the fresco of the Tribute Money at Florence; and Mr. Stillman takes the occasion to define again realism and naturalism in art. A spirited war-poem by Mr. Roche also deserves mention.

— Alike to those who grieve or rage over the word *reliable*, and to those who contemplate it with equanimity, the opinion touching it of the chief editor of the great English Dictionary now in course of publication will be of interest. Dr. Murray, as might have been expected, maintains that *reliable* is "good, useful, well-formed, and ancient"; thus accepting the character of it demonstrated again and again by Dr. Fitzedward Hall, especially in what his endorser calls "his scholarly and exhaustive treatise, 'On English Adjectives in *-able*.'" The incisive winding-up of Dr. Murray's defence of the expression is in these terms (*Notes and Queries* for August 17):

"When will people learn that the history of words, as of anything else, can be learned only by putting one's self in the position of a learner, and ought not to be invented to give support to pet prejudices or aversions? Let a man who has a chronic antipathy to *reliable* say frankly, 'I know nothing about the history of this word, and I care less; but its color irritates me and drives me furious.' We should then know where we were, and keep out of his way, recognizing that the case was one not for the etymologist or lexicographer, but for the pathologist."

—Apropos of our articles on Mme. de Staël, particularly as a conversationist, a Western correspondent writes:

"In 1857, introduced at Sunnyside as a friend of Commissioner Ellsworth, I enjoyed an hour's talk with Washington Irving. It will be remembered that it was with Ellsworth that Irving made the tour to the Rockies in 1832 which he commemorated in his 'Tour on the Prairies.' He recalled with special pleasure his crossing a river, tied up in a skin bag that closed around his neck, and was held upright by a swimming Indian, as Irving could not swim. But, as I had been an Italian traveller, he soon began to talk of his visit to Italy, about 1805, when he had just attained his majority. In Rome the chief reunion of strangers was at the palace of Baron [William] von Humboldt, then Prussian Minister Resident, and easily first among the literati. His residence was in the Trastevere, on the right of the street leading from the bridge of St. Angelo to St. Peter's. Mme. de Staël was then in Rome, and just inspired with 'Corinne,' the culmination of her genius. She was seldom absent from Humboldt's conversazioni, and was the observed of all observers. What Irving most vividly recalled about these gatherings was that De Staël was their uncrowned queen. She was already in the afternoon of her days, and few ladies there present were so plain-looking, but her passing pleasing tongue always drew listeners swarming around her. It seemed that the young and beautiful ladies must be envious as they saw themselves deserted by all men of head or heart for one who had no visible charms."

—Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè of Palermo is rapidly bringing to a successful termination his gigantic enterprise of illustrating the life of the Sicilian people in all its ramifications. We have already noticed his collections of Sicilian popular songs, tales, proverbs, festivals, and children's games. To these fourteen stout volumes he has just added four which are perhaps of even greater interest than their predecessors. They are devoted to uses, customs, beliefs, and prejudices ('Biblioteca delle Tradizioni popolari siciliane,' vols. xiv-xvii. Palermo: C. Clausen), and offer a rich mine for the student of superstitions. The first volume contains two extensive monographs, one upon the carnival and the historical development of its celebration, and the other upon the survival of Carlovingian traditions among the people. The latter is of the greatest value to the student of the mediæval epics of the cycle of Charlemagne, and reveals popular interest which is amazing. In 1885 there were in Palermo no less than nine permanent puppet shows devoted exclusively to the representation of plays from the Carlovingian epics. In 1883 there were in the rest of the island sixteen such shows. To these must be added the professional story-tellers, one of whom requires sixty days to exhaust his repertory. The professional singer of these epics is now found only in Naples. The Carlovingian traditions also survive in many local legends. It is worth noting that traditions of the Arthurian cycle are almost entirely wanting, an additional proof of the courtly and literary nature of this cycle. The first volume also contains articles on itinerant musicians and dances, cries of street venders, dresses, and household utensils, customs of the workers in the sulphur mines and of sailors and fishermen.

—The second volume is devoted to the various customs connected with marriage, birth, death, the relation contracted by godparents ("il comparatico"), and the mysterious Sicilian institutions of the *mafia* and *omertà*. The latter (meaning "manliness," from Lat. *homo*) is the sentiment of independence of social laws, and the solution of all controversies by violence or by the arbitration of the most prominent representatives of the *omertà* in the neighborhood. In other words, the *omertà* is precisely the same spirit which prevails to such an

alarming extent in our own Southern States. The *mafia* (the origin of which is doubtful) is harder to define, and does not seem to differ essentially from the *omertà*, although by some it is made a synonym of brigandage and organized theft (*camorra* and *malandrinaggio*). Other articles in this volume treat of gestures (we notice that Dr. Pitrè frequently cites our own Garrick Mallery), nicknames, imprecations, oaths, and greetings. The third volume is devoted to customs, superstitions, proverbs, etc., connected with agriculture, botany, zoology, etc., and contains in its five hundred pages a mine of material for the student of comparative mythology. The fourth volume is perhaps the most remarkable of all from the last-named standpoint on account of an extensive monograph of over two hundred pages upon supernatural and wonderful beings. We can now only call the attention of those interested in the history of witchcraft, etc., to this remarkable article. The remaining chapters are devoted to lucky and unlucky persons and things, buried treasures, uses and beliefs of children, and miscellaneous beliefs and superstitions. In the chapter on lucky and unlucky persons and things some astonishing details are given in regard to the lottery in Italy. In 1884 232,532,882 lottery tickets were sold, about eight and one-third to each inhabitant of the kingdom. A Neapolitan buys on an average fourteen and a half; a Sicilian about the same; a Venetian twelve; a Tuscan and a Roman over seven; a Lombard, a Modenese, and a Ligurian, a little over four; an Umbrian and an inhabitant of the Marches, hardly one and a half. What a story these figures tell!

—To the fourth volume are appended a glossary and an excellent index, and the value of the work is greatly enhanced by the admirable bibliographical notes which follow each chapter or article. Pitrè's great work will be completed by a nineteenth volume (now in the press) on popular medicine. It is impossible to speak too highly of this remarkable achievement, the like of which no other country can show, and we are lost in amazement when we reflect that it is the work of one man, a practising physician of narrow means. May he find his reward in the gratitude and remembrance not only of his countrymen, but of the students of popular customs and literature all over the world. Nor should we forget the enlightened publishers who have made this national monument possible.

NATURAL INHERITANCE.

Natural Inheritance. By Francis Galton, F.R.S. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

Mr. Galton's book has a twofold interest, viz., that of the questions under discussion and the results to which his inquiry points, and that of the methods employed in the investigation. The author's own keen pleasure in his work seems to be almost equally divided between these two aspects of it, though the novelty of the pursuit and the mysterious and alluring harmony of mathematical processes give a zest and attractiveness to the points of pure method, which the author at several places acknowledges with delightful frankness, and which cannot be paralleled by the satisfaction which the substantial results of the inquiry afford. Mr. Galton is not a professed mathematician, and one must admire the conscientious care, the courage, and the skill with which he has employed the refined methods of the theory of probability (or, more specifically, the theory of error) in interpreting his statistical data. The schemes adopted for tracking out the currents of heredity which underlie these given facts, the discrimination and care with which the details of these schemes are worked out, and the painstaking elucidation of the methods so as to bring them within the grasp of the non-mathematical reader (provided, alas! that he "brace himself to a sustained effort")—all these are alike worthy of the highest praise.

The point about which everything centres in the main portion of the book is the question of regression. Given a parent possessing some attribute in an exceptional degree, are the children of this parent likely to possess it in the same or a higher degree; or, on the other hand, are they likely to possess it in a lower degree? In other words, is there likely to be a regression towards the general level of the race? Mr. Galton not only answers this question in the affirmative, but, surprising as it may seem, gives a numerical measure of the degree of this regression, which applies to all those attributes in human beings which he has investigated.

But a difficulty confronts us at the very threshold. It is not only one, but two parents that are concerned in this matter; and their variations from the standard of the race—as regards the attribute under discussion—may be either alike or opposite, and they may be of different degrees of intensity. Must we concern ourselves with the status of each parent, or is it sufficient to consider the aggregate or average of the two? Mr. Galton satisfied himself by an argument which we have not space to present, but which it will be necessary to mention again further on, that the average character of the two parents is all that need be taken into account: so that, for example, the children of a very tall father and a mother of middle height are likely to present the same peculiarities of stature as do the children of a pair both of whom are moderately tall. And very fortunate it is for Mr. Galton's purposes that such should be the case; for it is plain that a very far greater mass of statistics would be required to reach conclusions of any trustworthiness if every important difference in the combination of the two parents required separate classification and discussion.

In the above illustration we have used stature as the attribute under consideration; in Mr. Galton's book by far the longest and most important discussion is that of the data of stature, these being, for a variety of reasons, best suited to the purpose. And here a minor point arises, which, however, is very easily disposed of. Since the standard height of women is different from that of men, a vexatious complexity would continually present itself in the discussion were it not obviated by the device of enlarging all the female measures in the proportion in which the average male height exceeds the average female height. This is accomplished by adding eight one-hundredths to the height of each female, or, roughly, one inch for every foot. The height of the female, thus increased, Mr. Galton calls her "transmuted" height, and the introduction of these transmuted females obliterates the question of sex in the remainder of the discussion, the average male height being henceforth the sole standard. The height obtained by taking the average of that of the father and that of the transmuted mother, gives the stature of a fictitious being very appropriately denominated the Mid-Parent. Now, Mr. Galton finds from a large array of figures, and verifies in an ingenious variety of ways, that on the average the deviation of a child from the standard height is two-thirds the deviation of its mid-parent. This is the numerical determination above alluded to. Thus, the mean stature of the population with which Mr. Galton is dealing being 68¼ inches, a mid-parent whose height is 71¼ inches will usually have children whose mean height (female heights being transmuted, of course) is 70¼ inches. Mr. Galton expresses this fact by saying that in the matter of stature the "regression" from mid-parent to child is two-thirds. It would have been more in accordance with mathematical and physical usage in analogous matters to call this fraction the "coefficient of regression," or "factor of regression"; a "regression" of two-thirds suggests the idea that two-thirds of the deviation is lost, rather than that two-thirds is retained.

It will be well to say a word here as to the reasons why this phenomenon of regression might be expected *a priori* to take place. Two such reasons may be given, both of which are but lightly touched on by Galton, as indeed, in the present state of knowledge, they must be. The first is that unless such a tendency to regression existed, deviations from the original type of the race would rapidly become more and more exaggerated, a state of things which is in general contradictory to the doctrine of organic stability—a doctrine which is somewhat vaguely but very suggestively discussed in the introductory part of Mr. Galton's book. While this reason rests upon a final cause for regression, the second reason points to an efficient cause of that phenomenon. As Mr. Galton puts it (p. 104): "The child inherits partly from his parents, partly from his ancestry. In every population that intermarries freely, when the genealogy of any man is traced far backwards, his ancestry will be found to consist of such varied elements that they are indistinguishable from a sample taken at haphazard from the general population." The point becomes plainer if we make use of the term "latent elements," which Mr. Galton employs elsewhere in the discussion of this matter. It is impossible, namely, for the offspring of two parents actually to present in his own person all the characteristics of them both; some of the physiological elements which determine these personal characteristics are transmitted to the offspring, and are capable of being further transmitted to his descendants, though not manifesting themselves in his own personal development. Now, since a given pair of individuals possess in their constitution such "latent elements," representing in a greater or less degree an indefinite number of preceding generations, their children's characteristics will be in some wise compounded of the visible characteristics of the parent pair and of the characteristics of this near and remote ancestry; and hence, from the consideration adduced in the foregoing quotation, there will be a tendency to regression towards the general type of the race.

To go back: we have seen that when the mid-parent's stature exceeds the standard by three inches, the child's stature may be expected to exceed the standard by two inches; the child's *peculiarity*—its deviation from the average—may be expected to be two-thirds the peculiarity of the mid-parent. But let us reverse the question: given a man who is taller than the average, what may we infer as to his mid-parent? The answer is not at all what one might at first blush give; it is not by any means true that the probabilities are that the mid-parent's stature will show an excess over the average three-halves as great as that of the child. Quite the contrary: though it is true that, given a tall mid-parent, the child is apt to be less tall than the mid-parent, it is also true that given a tall child, the mid-parent is apt to be less tall than the child. Though the child is apt to be more mediocre than the parent, it

is still true that the parent is apt to be more mediocre than the child. The explanation of this seeming paradox is very simple: given that a parent is exceptional, it is true that the child is apt to be less exceptional; but given that a child is exceptional, this may be due either to its parents being equally or more exceptional, or to the child being an exceptional child of comparatively mediocre parents. Now, mediocrity is so extremely preponderant in numbers, the number of people who are near the average is so very much greater than that of people who differ from the average in a marked degree, that in spite of the chances being against a *given* mediocre pair giving rise to exceptional offspring, the whole great mass of mediocre people will furnish among them a greater number of exceptional children than will the small body of exceptional parents.

There is thus regression from mid-parent to child, and also regression from child to mid-parent; and in the same sense in which the former is measured by the fraction two-thirds, Mr. Galton finds that the latter is measured by the fraction one-third. So that, in a population whose average height is 68¼ inches, if the height of the mid-parent is 71¼ inches, the safest guess for the height of the child is 70¼ inches; while if the height of the child is 71¼ inches, the safest guess for the height of the mid-parent is 69¼ inches. Before leaving this point, we may be permitted to quote this comment of Galton's on its significance (p. 106):

"The law of Regression tells heavily against the full hereditary transmission of any gift. Only a few out of many children would be likely to differ from mediocrity so widely as their Mid-Parent, and still fewer would differ as widely as the more exceptional of the two Parents. The more bountifully the Parent is gifted by nature, the more rare will be his good fortune if he begets a son who is as richly endowed as himself, and still more so if he has a son who is endowed yet more largely. But the law is even-handed: it levies an equal succession-tax on the transmission of badness as of goodness. If it discourages the extravagant hopes of a gifted parent that his children will inherit all his powers, it no less discountenances extravagant fears that they will inherit all his weakness and disease.

"It must be clearly understood that there is nothing in these statements to invalidate the general doctrine that the children of a gifted pair are much more likely to be gifted than the children of a mediocre pair. They merely express the fact that the ablest of all the children of a few gifted pairs is not likely to be as gifted as the ablest of all the children of a very great many mediocre pairs."

The two foregoing determinations—of "filial regression" and "mid-parental regression" respectively—suffice to give an idea of the nature of the determinations which Mr. Galton has undertaken to make, and upon which he has expended no less skill in the marshalling and discussion of his facts than patience and energy in their collection. We regret very much that we can here give no idea of his method of determining fraternal regression—or rather methods, for several distinct methods were employed, the point being one of peculiar difficulty; and the close agreement of the results of these methods is gratifying evidence of the soundness of the work. Suffice it to say that, by means of these three factors of regression, Mr. Galton proceeds to compute the extent to which a peculiarity possessed by a relative in any degree—uncle, cousin, etc.—may be expected to present itself in a proposed individual. Thus an individual may be expected to possess one-third of a known peculiarity of either parent; two-thirds that of a brother, two twenty-sevenths that of a cousin, and so on. So that if the degree of resemblance to be expected in personal peculiarities be accepted as a measure of nearness of kinship, a man's brother is twice as nearly related to him as his father is, and nine times as nearly as his cousin is.

The determinations of the factors of regression were all made from the data of stature, these being far richer and better adapted to the purpose than any others at the author's disposal. Perhaps the most interesting portion of the book is the application of the results thus obtained to the statistics of eye-color. It is, of course, quite conceivable that while there is a tendency to regression in respect of stature, there may be none or there may be a different degree of regression in respect to other attributes. But in the matter of eye-color, Mr. Galton, adopting the hypothesis that the same ratios applied there as in the case of stature, proceeded to test it as follows: Taking the statistics of three successive generations of a large number of families, he applied the hypothesis to the figures of the two older generations, calculating from them what the statistics of the last generation should be. The striking accordance of the results thus obtained—not only in large aggregates, but in numerous subdivisions—with the actual statistics of the last generation, seems to be conclusive evidence of the general correctness of the supposition that the factors of regression found for stature apply also to eye-color; and, of course, the trustworthiness of the original conclusion is itself greatly reinforced by this circumstance.

As it is not by any means obvious how peculiarities of eye-color can be made the subject of numerical investigation of this sort, a few words on this point are necessary. The scheme adopted by Mr. Galton is as follows: Most eye-colors can be distinctly classed as either light or dark; there is, indeed, an intermediate variety, which may be sufficiently indicated by the name hazel; these Mr. Galton distributes between light and dark in a satisfactory manner. Now, in all three of the generations studied by Mr. Galton, there was approximately the same proportion of light-colored to dark-colored eyes; and he measured the deviation from the average in a given family or group of families by the variation from this proportion which it presented.

To give some idea of the trustworthiness of the calculations, we shall cite a single example. There were in all 183 children whose two parents and four grandparents were all light-eyed. By Galton's formulæ there ought to be found among these 183 children 172 light-eyed ones; the actual number of light-eyed children was 174. The agreement in this case is somewhat more marked than usual; but it is striking throughout, and, as above intimated, is rendered much more remarkable by the number of classes in which it holds. In constructing his formula, however, Mr. Galton commits a curious error, which seems of sufficient interest to justify some exposition of it. He points out that the degree in which the child exhibits its parent's peculiarity is not a correct measure of the parent's own separate contribution to the child's peculiarity; for the parent's peculiarity implies (in the average of cases) a certain amount, though a less amount, of the peculiarity in the parent's progenitors; and it thus becomes a question how much of the child's peculiarity is really due to that of the parent, and how much must be ascribed to more remote ancestry. The fraction ⅔ was very well, as long as we knew nothing about grandparents; but when these are also known, we have to attribute to them a certain weight, and to the parents taken by themselves a correspondingly diminished weight. Now, there is no absolute method of deductively determining what the diminution should be, and Mr. Galton says that there are two limiting mathematical hypotheses which may be made, and by which the required fraction may be deduced. By one of these the fraction becomes ⅘, by the other $\frac{8}{11}$; and, with the true British instinct for compromise, Mr. Galton adopts ½ as the value, this being almost exactly midway between the above two fractions. Nor would this proceeding be other than wise, were it not for the circumstance that throughout the applications Mr. Galton works on the second of the hypotheses exclusively, and therefore ought obviously to have adhered to that hypothesis in the determination of his fraction. This would have given $\frac{6}{11}$ as the mid-parental contribution to the child's peculiarity, when deduction has been made for the contribution of the remoter ancestry, while Mr. Galton uses ½; and we may add that a recalculation of the eye-color table on this basis shows a somewhat closer agreement with the facts than is shown by Mr. Galton's table.

We have left to the last the mention of a criticism which may prove to impair the biological value of Mr. Galton's work, though it would leave the interest, both of his methods and his results, almost intact. This is the objection that has been made by Prof. W. K. Brooks to the inference of regression from such observations as those made by Mr. Galton on human stature. The objection is twofold. In the first place, Prof. Brooks insists very strongly on the distinction between inherited and non-inherited peculiarities. Peculiarities are sometimes due to accidents or influences having an external origin; and there is probably no more interesting or important unsettled question relating to heredity than the question whether such peculiarities may be inherited. Now, Prof. Brooks thinks that if Galton had eliminated cases of this kind, he might have found very different results, and no such tendency to regression as his figures now show. We cannot regard this point as having much force: first, because these accidental influences are as likely to have diminished as to have increased the parent's deviation from the average (for it must be remembered that Galton's cases were not picked cases of extraordinary stature, but a promiscuous lot), and thus their existence would not seriously affect the average result; and secondly, because the consideration of earlier ancestors forms, as appears above, part of Galton's theory.

Prof. Brooks's other point has reference to the similarity or diversity of the two parents, a difficulty alluded to in the early part of this article. Apart from the mere net resemblance in stature, Prof. Brooks insists that we ought to take account of resemblance in the numerous separate elements which together determine stature; and he thinks that "if Galton had studied by themselves the cases where the parents were alike in stature, both short or both tall, and had picked out from among these the ones where the exceptional stature was due to the same peculiarity, for example, a very long femur, . . . he would have obtained a very different result." This point deserves investigation. Mr. Galton did, indeed, find that resemblance or difference in stature on the part of the parents did not perceptibly influence the phenomena of stature presented by the children; but, while a sufficiently extensive and varied collection of results of this kind would be almost tantamount to a demonstration that resemblance in details was of no more effect than resemblance in the aggregate, it would require more than what Mr. Galton gives us on this head to justify a conclusion concerning it.

We cannot even mention a number of other subjects discussed in the book and in its inte-

resting appendices. Justice, however, requires us to say that the application of the arithmetical theory of regression to the data concerning the artistic faculty, while highly ingenious, strikes us as distinctly unsatisfactory, owing chiefly to the vague character of the data themselves. We wish also before closing to obviate a possible false impression by saying that Mr. Galton does not pretend that his figures have more than an approximate correctness; and, moreover, to encourage non-mathematical readers by the assurance that a large part of the interest and the instruction which the book affords can be obtained without mastering the mathematical portions. It is difficult to say to what class of readers this extremely interesting book can be most warmly commended; its substantial results appeal most to the scientific student of heredity, its methods to the mathematician, its numerous and almost bizarre tables to him who has a craving for curious facts and to whom *nil humanum alienum*. But perhaps most of all we feel moved to commend it to those facile statisticians—and their name is legion—to whom two or three columns of figures are sufficient for the settlement of any proposed question of political economy, and who might here learn something of the spirit in which he must work who would make the stony figures of statistics speak, and force them into the service of truth.

AMERICAN SONNETS.

American Sonnets. Selected and edited, with an introduction, by William Sharp. (The Canterbury Poets.) London: Walter Scott.

When an Englishman, however kindly of purpose, undertakes a collection of American sonnets, the wonder is apt to be, in Dr. Johnson's phrase, not that he does the thing well or ill, but that he does it at all. In Mr. Sharp's case there is an excellent intention and a cordial though not always discriminating fulfilment. In preparing his little volume of two hundred and fifty sonnets, he has one or two obvious advantages in his nationality; for example, he is not obliged to ask leave of publisher or author, and can take a dozen of Longfellow's sonnets, where an American editor might find himself limited to three or four. Publishers are willing that a few plums should be borrowed from their favorite pudding, but the privilege must not be used very far. On the other hand, an English editor is necessarily limited to the larger collections and the leading magazines, and misses the good things to be found in obscure volumes, in books privately printed, and in the newspapers.

There is no evidence, for instance, that Mr. Sharp has ever seen the admirable bibliography of sonnets published in American magazines, prepared by Mr. J. C. Rowell and published in the *Berkeleyan* (University of California) for October, 1887. If he has seen it, he certainly has been beyond the reach of many periodicals mentioned in the list, or has made an imperfect use of them. Again, he is little acquainted with the minor American poets of the last generation, and omits sonnets which have what may be called an historical value, as Garrison's prison-sonnet on "Freedom of the Mind," Allston's on his friend Coleridge, Daniel Webster's on "The Memory of the Heart," Theodore Parker's "The Way, the Truth, the Life," T. G. Appleton's "Pompeii," and Percival's and Willis's acrostic sonnets to Miss Emily Marshall. Among living poets he wholly omits John Albee, Mrs. Elizabeth Akers Allen, W. E. Channing ("The day is past"), George H. Boker ("To England"), Louise Brooks, Ina D. Coolbrith, Héloise Durant, Louis Dyer, W. Gibson, Mary T. Higginson ("The Playmate Hours"), Maria Lowell ("I love thee!"), O. M. McKnight, Henry Timrod, Sarah H. Whitman, Sarah C. Woolsey ("Love me for what I am"), and George E. Woodberry ("Gibraltar"). All these have written better sonnets than many given by Mr. Sharp, yet he does not even mention their names.

The proportion to be given to various bards is so much a matter of individual taste that we will not insist upon it, though we could certainly have spared the sonnets of Miss Rives and Mrs. Wilcox, and some at least of Mrs. Moulton's eight, in order to have more than two of the thoughtful and noble poems of Jones Very. But there is in Mr. Sharp's dealings with names and personalities much of that confusion which is the inconvenience of a foreigner. He is evidently under some confusion as to the way in which married women's names are written in this country. Mrs. Ella Wheeler Wilcox appears always with a hyphen between her last two names, and is indexed under Wheeler-Wilcox. Mrs. Botta appears successively as Lynch, Anne (p. xiv.), Anne Lynch (pp. 152-'5), and Lynch-Botta, Anne Charlotte (p. 289). Amélie Rives is cited under her maiden name only; Gertrude Bloede only as Stuart Sterne, and Lucia Jennison as Owen Innsley. Christopher Pearse Cranch has his middle name contracted into "Pease." The editor does not know that Auringer's poems have appeared in a volume, and says that Jones Very was "once well known, but is now seldom read," the fact being that he was known to few during his life-time, while two distinct editions of his poems have appeared within ten years. There is occasional carelessness of editing: thus, the "flush of sun" in Helen Jackson's sonnet "Her Eyes" is weakened into "flash of sun"; and Higginson's lines in "The Baby Sorceress,"

> "Yellow, like the sands
> That lend soft setting to the azure seas,"

are made extremely realistic by the substitution of "netting" for "setting." Such minor criticisms could easily be multiplied, but they mostly illustrate only the necessary drawbacks of a transatlantic editorship, and leave Mr. Sharp's good-will and generous intention unimpaired. Great credit is due him for what he has accomplished in the way of selection, in spite of all this; that he should have singled out from the mass of contemporary literature so fine a sonnet as the late David Wasson's,

> "As unto blowing roses summer dews
> Or morning's anthem to the tree-top choirs,"

and should have first introduced to the English public the rare and delicate genius of Edith Thomas.

The preface, while intended to be critical, is uneven in quality, and the notes at the end are often of the shallowest description. The editor has "waded through"—as he not very graciously terms the process—"considerably over two hundred volumes of American minor verse," and his conclusion is, that "a finer body of sonnets on general themes could be selected from the writings of the secondary poets of America than those of our own minor bards" (p. xxix). He makes, however, some criticisms whose value is impaired by the quality of the sonnets he praises; he selects for compliment, indeed, Mr. Aldrich's fine sonnet "Fredericksburg," but equally compliments his halting "Pursuit and Possession," in which "haunt me" is made to rhyme with "want thee." He complains of sonnets that are "Petrarchan in all respects, save a rhymed couplet at the close" (p. xxix); ignoring the fact that Petrarch himself, with all the wealth of Italian syllables at his command, closed with a rhymed couplet whenever he wished (as in sonnets lxxiv, cxxxiv, cclxxxiii); and would doubtless have done it still oftener had he written in English, where rhymes are so much less abundant that Coleridge thought an English sonneteer should be excused from all strict sequence in his rhyming. He complains of the "extraordinary structural looseness" that prevails among his American authors, whereas he himself practically creates that looseness by including as sonnets the rhymed couplets of Mr. Charles Heavysege, a Canadian, whose productions are about as sonnet-like as Pope's "Essay on Man." He justly censures those foolish people, if such there be, who have mentioned Sidney Lanier as "the American Keats," but himself employs a yet flatter phrase—if flatter be possible—when he describes Saxe as "a kind of American Christopher North" (p. 291). His assertion that "*every* American poet who writes sonnets has addressed one to, or composed one upon, Sleep" (p. l) is simply silly; and his eking out his book with thirty pages of quatrains affords a meaningless and inappropriate enlargement. We ought, perhaps, to give a certain meed of patriotic acknowledgment for a well-meant and doubtless laborious compilation; but a really critical and satisfactory collection of American sonnets is still a desideratum.

Impressions of Russia. By Dr. Georg Brandes. Translated from the Danish by Samuel C. Eastman. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

This is by far the most important book on Russia that has been published for some years, in spite of the number which have appeared since things Russian have become the fashion. The author is no novice to travel, to literature, or to thought. He is one of the foremost of European authors, understands how to make comparisons, how to discriminate, and how to judge what he has seen or read. History, biography, philosophy, and criticism have been his themes; and his chief work, the 'Main Currents of the Literature of the Nineteenth Century,' shows that he was acquainted with the literature of Russia long before the present curiosity about it sprang up. His remark that he can never forget the impression which Lermontoff's 'A Hero of Our Times,' in the French translation of Marmier, made on him when a schoolboy, and how he loved and admired the book—the first which he understood as a grown-up man—shows that with him the knowledge of Russian literature is no new thing.

One is naturally inclined to give weight to the ideas about Russia expressed by such a man, even when they purport to be only the impressions of a brief stay. The journey of Dr. Brandes, however, was not one of an ordinary kind. He had been invited in 1887 to deliver a course of lectures in French before the Russian Authors' Association at St. Petersburg. He subsequently delivered his lectures in Moscow, then remained for a while on an estate in the south of Russia, and then returned by the way of Smolensk and Warsaw. He was thus enabled to spend some time in the three most characteristic parts of Russia, and to be on terms of intimacy with all classes of society, having access to some which the ordinary traveller very rarely sees. At the same time he says: "I am not unmindful of how little of what I did see I was able to understand fully, nor of how inconsiderable a portion of a country like Russia and of its inhabitants was placed before me. But naturally I believe in my capacity for observation and in the soundness of my judgments."

Thus Dr. Brandes has been able to call atten-

tion to many points of life and character which have either escaped the notice of previous travellers, or have not been mentioned by them; and occasionally he throws a light on the inside history of events. He has something to say about the internal political condition of the country, and the causes which produced it, as well as about the relations of the court and society. He naturally devotes much space to contemporary literary history, and gives sketches and characterizations of living authors whose names are hardly known in the West except to specialists, while in a few pages he relates the history and present position of Russian art so well that the reader would be prepared to understand and enjoy with more knowledge the next exhibition of Russian pictures he might have to see.

The book displays great breadth of view and calmness of judgment. One of the very best parts is the sixth chapter, where the author maintains that in order to understand what Russia really is, we must perform the process of exclusion—by first eliminating those elements which are common to all European peoples, as well as to those who have accepted European culture; and then those characteristics which are common to all Slavic races. Then only can we judge what is purely Russian, or Russian moulded by Asiatic influences. Of this manner of procedure he gives some interesting examples, each of which is instructive. But, alas! there are not many travellers who make even an effort to become acquainted with other Slavic peoples before judging of Russia, except Germans; and their relations to other Slavic peoples are so intimate and complex that race-hatred is apt to warp their minds.

Fully half the book is occupied with a review of Russian literature from the earliest times. The fact that the author is a Dane, and versed in the old northern ballads, gives an additional interest to what he says of the old Russian ballad epics. His special studies add weight to his criticisms on the Russian poets and novelists of this century. The judgments of so great an authority may be deemed conclusive by ordinary readers; and it is to be hoped that no one—for we know of no one else equally qualified to speak—will dare to publish a book on this subject for some time to come. The translator might turn his attention to what perhaps would now interest us, a rendering into English of Dr. Brandes's similar book on Poland. The present translation is generally well done so far as we can determine without comparing it with the original; but one is curious to know what the author really said when speaking of what the translator calls "Saltykoff's *gory* description of Russian provincial governors" (p. 77). A male member of the Imperial family is usually styled *Grand Duke* and not *Prince Imperial* (see p. 111); and—lest we may be criticised in turn—we may remark that the translation of technical terms is generally governed by usage without regard to derivation, and that while *Prince* is an equivalent of the Russian *Kniaz*, that of *Velikii-Kniaz* is *Grand Duke*.

Origins of the English People and of the English Language. Compiled from the best and latest authorities by Jean Roemer, LL.D. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. xxiv, 658.

THE successive chapters of this work treat of the Kelts, Romans, English, Danes, and Normans, Anglo-Norman French, with specimens, and the fusion of Anglo-Norman French and Anglo-Saxon English into one language, with specimens of Early English. An appendix follows on the French sources of modern English, giving an historical sketch of the French language, its etymology, and specimens of Early French; and this appendix is, to our mind, the most useful portion of the book. A large mass of information has been collected from various authorities, a list of which is prefixed, but it does not seem to be well digested. It would have been well to give the particular authorities followed for each chapter or section, that the reader might have a ready reference to them. It is plain that Sharon Turner has been followed for the Anglo-Saxon period, and this is unfortunate, for while Turner's work was creditable for the beginning of the century, his knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon language was deficient, and will not stand the test of modern criticism. No better evidence of this is needed than a comparison of his translation of the poem on Athelstan's victory at Brunanburh (pp. 111–112) with any modern text and translation. It is full of errors, some of them ludicrous in the extreme, as, for example, "the hoarse toad," intended for a translation of *hasupâdan*, ashen-hued, an epithet of the following *earn*, eagle; but it would take too much space to point them all out, even in this short extract.

The compiler regards the *Jutes* as Dutch (p. 67), "*Deutsch*, or *Dutch* [being] pronounced *Jutes* by the Britons, to designate the early German marauders"; and in chapter xi long lists of words are given from the 'Ancren Riwle' and from Chaucer as of Dutch origin, which are simply direct descendants of Anglo-Saxon, and so originally cognate Teutonic, and not at all derived from Dutch. They stand on a very different level from the French words in the 'Ancren Riwle,' of which a partial list is also given.

The difficulty in writing about the origins of the English language without a practical knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon, or oldest English, is illustrated throughout the work, but especially in chapter ix, section 2, in which the author treats of the "loss of inflections and grammatical changes in Anglo-Saxon before and after the Norman conquest." He is betrayed into such statements as the following (pp. 354–5): "The Anglo-Saxon syntax was also singularly anomalous and disorderly. Its prepositions were used as if possessed of the power of altering the cases of the nouns they governed, as occurs in Latin and Greek; but so irregular and capricious were the principles of this government that in the same sentence the same preposition throws its connected substantives into four different cases. To the confusion of all regular grammar, almost all its prepositions have this inconceivable power" (!) Truly an inconceivable power—so inconceivable that its possession might well be questioned, especially as the line given at the foot of page 355 to sustain the statement shows the preposition *mid* construed, as usual, with but one case, the dative. A very slight knowledge of Anglo-Saxon inflections would have prevented this error. The so-called "confusion" and "anomalies" of Anglo-Saxon grammar are still further commented on, which but shows the importance of the historical study of English in our schools and colleges, based on a competent knowledge of the oldest English. Lack of space will not permit the pointing out of other errors, and of numerous misprints, which might have been corrected by more careful proof-reading. By excision and revision the book may be improved. It contains much useful information, but it is too bulky for general use.

Henry V. By the Rev. A. J. Church. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 1889. Pp. 155.

KING HENRY V. is one of the problematic characters of history. As a "man of action" he is perhaps the greatest among the successors of William the Conqueror. The legends that have grown up about the story of his youth have been pretty effectually disposed of, and, negatively at all events, we must agree that "there is absolutely no evidence to show that Henry was accustomed to the society of vicious and disreputable companions" (p. 46). There remain the more serious charges that, while a man of "almost ostentatious piety," he engaged unprovoked in a war of conquest against a nation distracted by feud and misgovernment, that the war was distinguished by acts of the grossest inhumanity, and that he was eager in the policy of persecution, allowing an early friend, a man of high character, to be burned over a slow fire on a charge of heresy.

Mr. Church does not extenuate these faults, but ascribes them to the age:

"It would be unjust to doubt the sincerity of his piety because many of his acts seem inconsistent with our own conceptions of the character which piety should produce. . . . His religion made him what few kings have been, temperate and chaste. It did not make him merciful; it would not be too much to say that in Henry's eye it made no man merciful. We must compare it, not with the religion of a Havelock or a Gordon, but with the grovelling superstition of a Lewis the Eleventh. It would certainly be more just to charge him with fanaticism than with hypocrisy" (p. 152).

Elsewhere he says (p. 117) in relation to the atrocities at the siege of Rouen: "He was a soldier first; and to his conception of a soldier's duty, which was to use every military advantage which came in his way, he subordinated everything. For wanton cruelty he had no taste: it did not come within the scope of his business; but from cruelty that was not wanton—that is, was dictated by some consideration of necessity or expediency—he never shrank." But what military end was furthered by allowing the twelve thousand non-combatants, thrust out from the city, to perish miserably between his lines and the walls? It may be said that the beginning of the inhumanity was with the authorities of Rouen, and that their crime was as great as Henry's. But every non-combatant expelled from the city added just so much to the capacity of resistance; while, if they had been permitted to pass through the English lines, the capitulation of the city would not have been delayed a single day.

In regard to the French war, Mr. Church has some interesting and ingenious remarks:

"He seems to have looked upon his wars for the acquisition of the French crown as a devout prince two centuries before might have looked upon a crusade. It was his mission to recover what he seems, difficult as it is to believe it, to have sincerely regarded as his rightful inheritance. By one of those processes of self-deception that are so difficult to imagine of others, so easy to perform for ourselves, he had persuaded himself of the soundness of a title which seems to us to need no refutation; and all his candid, his almost audacious confidence, his unhesitating rejection of compromises, as well as the earnestness of his prayers and thanksgivings for victory, indicate a profound conviction that he was doing a work to which he had been divinely sent. If we are to compare him with the famous conquerors of the world, we should find his parallel in Alexander, convinced that it was his mission to take the vengeance of force for centuries of Persian wrong, rather than in Napoleon, whose faith did not go beyond a conviction of the power of his big battalions" (p. 153).

This comparison is very felicitous—as historical parallels are very apt not to be; and the remarks upon self-deception are much to the

point. But such self-deception—in the case of Henry as well as of Alexander—is commonly tacitly assisted by an estimate of advantage to one's self. It is not likely that Edward III., who first advanced this claim, deceived himself as to its validity, although it was far more plausible in his mouth than in that of his great-grandson; there were abundant causes of complaint, and this claim afforded a pretext for a war which was in his mind desirable of itself. But during the fourteenth century these undetermined rules of succession, exemplified in the claims to the French and the Scottish crowns, had been gradually determined by the logic of events, and what had been plausible a century before was ridiculous now. If Henry's claim to the French crown was valid, he had no title to that of England; and, great as is the power of self-deception, it is hard to believe that so vigorous an intellect as Henry's could have deceived itself in this matter.

In short, when we have to do with religious persecution and wars of ambition, we do not deny that the motives are sometimes of the purest; but we are entitled to demand in both cases the most unimpeachable evidence, and to feel some degree of suspicion when there is room for the workings of intellectual pride, individual or class interests, or self-aggrandizement.

Elementary Lessons in Heat. By S. E. Tillman, Professor of Chemistry in the United States Military Academy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

THIS work is to be regarded rather as a compendium than as an elementary treatise. We are reminded on reading it of a well-written series of lecture notes from which much relatively less important matter is omitted. From this point of view, if supplemented by good lectures supplying fulness of detail, it may be really useful. It has many special merits. It is refreshing to meet with a treatise on heat in which we do not find a large number of forms of apparatus which have long had only an historical interest, but which have been copied from text-book to text-book as if they formed established principles of science. It is also pleasant to find—for the first time, we believe, in a text-book—an account of the work of Wm. Ferrel on the deflections of the atmosphere due to the rotation of the earth on its axis as part of a general mathematical theory. The whole subject of meteorological phenomena, as connected with heat, receives an amount of attention very unusual in American works, and the treatment is both good and interesting. There is a brief sketch of thermo-dynamics, chiefly in connection with the steam-engine. The other general headings are those which are found in all text-books on the subject, and do not require special notice. They are perhaps somewhat meagre, but are clear and intelligible. We regret not to find the metric system of weights uniformly employed, as it should be in every treatise upon a scientific subject. On the whole, however, Prof. Tillman's work deserves commendation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. A Crooked Path. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Baring-Gould, S. The Pennycomequicks. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Bayfield, M. A. The Ion of Euripides. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Billings, Dr. J. S. Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A. Authors and Subjects. Vol. X. O—Pfutsch. Washington.
Carr, Mrs. Comyns. Margaret Maliphant. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Clegg, J. Directory of Second-hand Booksellers and List of Public Libraries, British and Foreign. Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg; New York: Westermann.
Daniell, M. G. Exercises in La in Prose Composition. Part I., based on Cæsar's Gallic War. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Dostoyevsky, F. M. Crime and Punishment. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge. Catalogue of Casts in the Museum of Classical Archæology. By Chas. Waldstein. Macmillan & Co.
Flagg, I. Euripides: Iphigenia. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. III. 1775-1776. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.00.
Gagnebin, Mme. A Happy Find. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Hayden, E. West India Hurricanes and the March Blizzard, 1888. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Hiorns, A. H. Iron and Steel Manufacture: A Text-book for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Lawyers' Reports, Annotated. Book III. Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co. $5.
Lockwood, I. A Lawyer's Don'ts. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Lucas, F. Sketches of Rural Life, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
MacLean, J. P. A History of the Clan MacLean. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Matheson, Rev. G. Voices of the Spirit. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Mill, H. R. Elementary Class-book of General Geography. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Morgan, H. H. English and American Literature for Schools and Colleges. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.00.
O'Rell, Max. Jacques Bonhomme: John Bull on the Continent. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Report of the Proceedings of the American Historical Association, Dec. 26, 1888. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Russell, Dora. Jezebel's Friends. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Russell, W. C. Marooned. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Sergeant, Adeline. The Luck of the House. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Sherwood, M. E. W. Sweet-Brier. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Smith, Laura A. Through Romany Songland. London: David Stott; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. The Salt-Cellars: A Collection of Proverbs, with Notes. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Tales from *Blackwood*. 3d series. White & Allen. 40 cents.
Thayer, Eli. A History of the Kansas Crusade; its Friends and its Foes. Harper & Bros.
The County: A Story of Social Life. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
The New Litany: Blots and Blemishes. G. W. Dillingham.
The Sermon Bible: Psalm lxxvii. to Song of Solomon. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Thompson, E. T. Chronicon Galfridi le Baker de Swynebroke. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Tillman, Prof. S. E. Elementary Lessons in Heat. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Tissot, V. Unknown Switzerland. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.
Transactions of the National Association for the Advancement of Art and its Application to Industry, Liverpool Meeting, 1888. London: 22 Albermarle St., Piccadilly.
Uncle Piper of Piper's Hill: An Australian Novel. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Van Loon, Mrs. E. A Heart Twice Won. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
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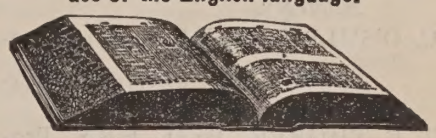

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1889.

The Week.

THERE appears to be no doubt that the Administration has decided that it would not be expedient to call an extra session of Congress. The arguments against one are so many and so obvious that serious consideration of the matter was scarcely necessary. Aside from all other considerations, the President and his advisers must naturally be in no hurry for the assembling of a Congress in which the Republican majority will be so small that firm support of the Administration would, under the most favorable conditions, be a difficult thing to obtain. With an enthusiastic and harmonious party, thoroughly in accord with the President's course, it would require very careful management to maintain party support for him in a Congress having barely a Republican majority to elect a Speaker; and with any discord or dissatisfaction, such support would be out of the question. Nobody can tell now how the Republican members as a whole will feel towards the Administration when they come together, but it is notorious that there are some of them who are not at all satisfied with the President's course in regard to appointments. This was inevitable from the moment he decided to give himself up to a personal supervision of the distribution of patronage. He was certain to make in his own party as many enemies as friends. When the Congressmen get into Washington, the wrangles over offices will increase rather than diminish, and the President's burdens in this direction will be greater than ever.

The first six months of President Harrison's term are ended, and what are the most conspicuous developments of his policy? What topics connected with him are most discussed in the press? First, there is Tanner and his course in the Pension Bureau. That is, by common consent, a national scandal of such serious proportions that leading newspapers of the President's party are calling for Tanner's removal as the only thing which can save the Administration from disgrace, and the national Treasury from possible bankruptcy. Second, there is the choice by the President of "Tom" Platt, "Matt" Quay, and Mahone of Virginia as the men to whom he prefers to hand over the patronage of the Government to be used by them in building up a political Machine. Third, there is an increase of over $7,000,000 in the public debt during the last third of the six months, though for the corresponding period in every one of President Cleveland's four years there was an average decrease of about $10,000,000. Fourth, in removals from office without cause the President has surpassed all previous records, and has so completely broken not only the pledges of his party's platform, but his own personal pledges as well, that there is a formidable movement in the Republican party for the unconditional repeal of the Civil-Service Law. The net result of this six months' work is a lower moral tone in politics than the country has shown since 1872.

That the Administration begins to be troubled by the increase of the public debt is shown by the repeated attempts of the organs to explain it. An extremely mysterious account of the cause of the increase during the month of August given by the *Tribune* last week had, we think, the effect of causing considerable public alarm owing to its great darkness. The financial writer of the same paper comes to the relief of his editorial brother, and tries to show that it is "an extraordinary credit to disbursing officers in the last monthly statement of over $50,000,000 which is the occasion of the apparent increase in the debt"; and this, he adds with a sheepish air, "is so much money now in the Treasury that soon is to be paid out by the disbursing officers, thus increasing the amount of money in circulation." We presume the real cause of this queer stuff is the writer's fear that the public supposes that the Treasury has been paying out more money than Congress has appropriated. But the public is not so simple-minded as that. It knows very well that all Government money is got rid of by giving it to the disbursing officers, or giving them power to draw it, and that when a man's accounts show an increase of his liabilities, the matter is not explained by alleging that all the checks he has given have not yet been presented, and that when they are there will be more money in circulation. The true way to clear up the whole matter is to admit frankly that Tanner has been too "liberal to the boys," or, in other words, has been spending money too rapidly for the good of the party, and must be dismissed or put in charge of a lighthouse.

Somebody in England, apropos of the late discussion over the grant to the Prince of Wales on his daughter's marriage, has put forth the theory that the monarchy there is much less expensive than our Presidency, in answer to some American who made the account stand thus:

Crown	$2,781,279 per annum.
President	50,000 " "

The Englishman says that to know what the Presidency costs, we must take into account the expenses of the quadrennial election, which include outlays of every description during the campaign for party purposes, and these he estimates at $20,000,000 for a period of four years. The account will then stand thus:

President—	
For election	$20,000,000
Salary	200,000
Total	$20,200,000
Crown—	
Succession	Nil.
Four years' civil list and annuities.	$10,873,120
Balance in favor of monarchical government	$9,326,880

It is to be said, however, that the Queen's income by no means includes all the cost of royalty. There are a great many expenses made necessary by the "dignity of the Crown" which are not covered by the royal income, and which would probably double the cost of royalty. It is also to be observed that there is no comparison between what America and England can afford to spend on government—a consideration of very great political moment. On the other hand, there ought to be added to our expenses the various means now resorted to for getting rid of the surplus. All squandering of the public money in order to secure votes is really an addition to the cost of the Presidency. Tanner's outlay, for instance, should undoubtedly be added to what President Harrison will cost us before we are done with him.

"Corp." Tanner appears in a somewhat new light in the revelation which comes from Detroit concerning a pension agency there. The agent applied to Tanner some time ago asking for an increase of $1,500 in his allowance for office expenses. The "Corp.," with customary liberality to the boys, no sooner received the application than he granted it twice over, giving to the office an extra credit of $3,000. One can imagine him saying on reading the request: "An extra allowance of $1,500? Why, of course. But while you are about it, hadn't you better take $3,000?" The agent joyfully accepted the $3,000, raised the salaries of all his old clerks, and employed a new clerk in addition. The office was enthusiastic over the liberal Tanner policy, and things went merrily on till the vouchers for the extra expenditures reached the Auditor at Washington whose business it was to consider them. He refused to allow the increase. Then there was a panic in the agency. The agent had to supply in some way the new clerk's salary, while the old clerks failed to get the increase they had expected. Worse than this, the agent, rather than pay the new clerk's salary out of his own pocket, assessed all the old clerks sufficiently to make up the necessary amount. He says of this extraordinary act: "The extra expense was incurred under the supposition that a larger appropriation was to be made for the office. The appropriation was not made and the expense had to be met. You know that people working under the Government must submit to any arbitrary decision or get out." This view of the civil service of a great nation is the Harrison-Tanner one which came into vogue with the victory of the party of moral ideas last November

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"President Harrison is allowing all the Democratic collectors in Maine and elsewhere to serve out their terms, unless there is special reason otherwise," says the Lewiston (Me.) *Journal* (Rep.); "but not one of the civil-service *par excellence* papers gives him credit for this, but continues representing that he is disregarding civil service." The *Jour-*

nal is probably no better authority as to the President's course regarding collectors outside of Maine than it proved to be as to his policy regarding postmasters, who, it announced some time ago, were to be allowed to serve out their terms, whereas the President has ever since been removing them wholesale. Presuming, however, that it is correct in the statement that he is allowing Democratic collectors in Maine to serve out their terms, we take great pleasure in giving him credit for keeping his word as to one class of officials in one State. How much better he would stand to-day if he had been equally conscientious in living up to his pledges regarding all classes of officials in all the States!

Congressman Houk of Tennessee, the most prominent Southern Republican in the House, announces that he will "test the sentiment of the House on this sham Civil-Service Law" by offering an amendment striking out the item making an appropriation for the support of the Commission when the appropriation bill containing that item comes up. Nine-tenths of the members, he says, know that the law is a fraud, and say so in private, and he is "going to smoke those fellows out and put them on record." This is good news. It will be a satisfaction to learn exactly how many Republican Congressmen there are of the Houk school, who are shameless enough to confess that when they pledged themselves last fall to live up to the platform of their party, which called not only for the maintenance of the Civil-Service Law, but also for "the further extension of the reform system," they meant as soon as their party came into power to repudiate their pledges.

Valuable testimony as to the good effect of the Civil-Service Law, even in Maryland, is furnished by the Hagerstown *Herald*, a Republican weekly. The *Herald* takes up and condemns the recent action of the Republican clubs of the Third Congressional District of Maryland in calling for a repeal of the Civil-Service Law, declaring that "if the Republican party should go before the country on the platform which these Baltimore politicians have laid down, it would be beaten out of sight." In arguing for the superiority of the merit system to the spoils policy, the *Herald* makes the following statement as to the operation of the former in Maryland under Mr. Cleveland, which is of value as the testimony of a political opponent: "Without the Civil-Service Law, the Democratic heelers in Baltimore would have held high carnival in the Federal offices. With it, we have had an honest management of the public business, and only in a few instances has the public sense of decency been shocked by the appointment of notorious rascals to responsible positions. If there had been no civil-service law, so fair and moderate a man as ex-Gov. Groome would not have been made Collector of the Port, and certainly a very different class of men would have forced their way into all the subordinate places."

No pretence is made by the friends of the Administration that any other than political influences were considered in the three appointments for this city and Brooklyn which were announced on Tuesday. In each case the appointee is an experienced political worker who has been given a public office as a reward for political services in the last campaign. For six months the filling of two of the offices thus bestowed, those of Surveyor and Naval Officer, has been under almost constant consideration at Washington, and almost innumerable visits have been made to the President by "Tom" Platt, Senator Hiscock, and other leaders in order to pick out the men whose choice would be recognized by the party as best entitled to the rewards. The President himself has been reported frequently as saying that he would appoint the men whom the party leaders could thus agree upon as worthy. There has been no pretence made that either the President or his New York advisers were seeking the good of the public service. In commending the appointments, the *Tribune* recognizes the political aspect as the controlling one by saying of the new Naval Officer, Mr. Willis, that "he did capital work for the cause led by Gen. Harrison a year ago," and of the new Internal-Revenue Collector for Brooklyn, Mr. Nathan, that "he has also established his claims to special recognition at the hands of his party." It was said of Mr. Willis early in the contest for these offices that he must have one of them not only because of his work in the Harrison campaign, but because he represented a ward in Brooklyn which raised $50,000 for the Harrison campaign fund. The money claim has steadily outweighed all others, as precedent would have led us to expect.

Mr. George W. Lyon, who receives the Surveyorship, has been a strong aspirant for almost any good Federal office since the moment of Harrison's election. He will make the office as much of a Republican stronghold as Mr. Beattie has made it a Democratic one, and that is about all that can be said of the change. It is the substitution of one politician for another, and one set of Boys will have to "go," while a new set will take their places. The removal of Col. Burt before his term has expired, and the replacing of him in the Naval Office by a politician who will use the office for political purposes, is a far different matter. Col. Burt has conducted the office solely in the public interest and in strict accordance with civil-service-reform rules. He has, in fact, been for years a model public servant, devoting all his energies to the sincere, intelligent, and indefatigable purpose of doing his whole duty to the country without fear or favor and without regard to politics or political considerations. Of his ability, integrity, and usefulness there has never been a question. What a spectacle it is when such a man is turned out of office before his term has expired, in order to make a place for a political worker who "did capital work" for the election of the President who thus rewards him.

The tale which Gen. Joseph C. Jackson tells in the *Times* of Tuesday, of the perfidious treatment which he has experienced in the matter of the District Attorneyship at the hands of the Hon. William M. Evarts, well merits the attention of our best moralists. It appears that the General's testimonials were signed by so many men of wealth and influence residing in this city and the suburbs that they would have compelled his appointment at the hands of the most hardened administration, had not the President been able to take refuge in the fact that he had turned the matter over to Senator Evarts. Gen. Jackson accordingly kept a close watch on Mr. Evarts through the summer, and so overawed him that he left him under the impression that he (the Senator) was working for him like a beaver. When pursued to his Vermont farm, he confirmed this impression by his looks, his general demeanor, and by driving the General about in a wagon. There was one little defect in the General's arrangements which might, if unrectified, have accounted for the subsequent disaster; but it *was* rectified. The name of Colonel Elliott F. Shepard appeared in the testimonials at first among "the men of business," of whom the Colonel is an ornament. But he does not carry as much weight as a business man as he does as a lawyer—a fact which he pointed out to the General. The name was accordingly shifted to the forensic side of the document, where it naturally led all the rest, and seemed to make the General an irresistible candidate. Now comes the catastrophe. The Senator, it appeared, had all along been supporting another man, who got the place, and he accordingly fled to Europe to escape the exposure of his infamy, while the Colonel sneered in his paper at the testimonials! If Gen. Jackson's nature should now be soured, and he should take a sombre view of the future of his race, who could blame him? If he should indeed lose his confidence in man—one of the worst of human experiences—who ought to shoulder the responsibility? Is it not Senator Evarts? And yet we have little doubt that he is at this moment cracking jokes in some resort of European nobles, in utter forgetfulness of the wreck he has made of Gen. Jackson's faith and hope and charity.

The tariff plank of the Pennsylvania Democratic platform is strong and to the point. It not only reaffirms the national platform of last year, but it applauds President Cleveland's efforts to impress the need of tariff reform on Congress, and states the ends sought by the reform in a way which shows that the platform-makers are comprehending the strength of the issue much better than they have hitherto done. There is no recognition of the time-honored falsehood that protection benefits wages, in the demand for a "revision and reduction of tariff taxes for the relief at once of American labor, American industries, and American taxpayers, by the repeal of such tariff taxes as now invite and protect monopoly, a greed that lessens production, lessens employment of labor, decreases wages, and increases cost to consumers; and by the ad-

mission of raw material free of duty in all cases where it will enlarge our product, multiply our markets, and increase demand for labor." An equally excellent plank is the one favoring the Australian ballot system as being "adapted to meet the requirements of our Constitution and the special wants of our people." Gov. Hill's view of that system as a "mongrel foreign one" evidently finds no favor among Pennsylvania Democrats. The chief defect in the platform is the absence of all mention of civil-service reform.

The Philadelphia *Press* on August 30 led off its editorial page with a paragraph which said: "The leading newspaper of Manchester, England, the *Examiner*, declares that 'if the United States were to abolish the duty on cotton goods, we should shut up every one of their cotton-mills in less than ten years.'" This alleged quotation had so much the appearance of the false quotations put out during the last campaign by the Secretary of the Home-Market Club and by Mr. Plummer of this city that we at once set to work to verify it. First we telegraphed to a London correspondent to attempt this task. He cabled us directly: "I have searched the file of the Manchester *Examiner* for the last fortnight and can find no trace of the statement cited." Next we addressed a written inquiry to the editor of the *Press*, asking for the date of the *Examiner* quoted from. To this we have obtained no answer whatever. We have not given up the search by any means. But meanwhile we have no doubt that the paragraph will be doing duty in the high-tariff press all over the country, with the added statement, perhaps, that if the American mills do not close fast enough, the Cobden Club will send over some of its "gold," buy them up, and set fire to them. If these Englishmen do think that lower duties will hand over our home markets to them, they are very kind to give us such a warning as the *Press* publishes. Little acts of this kind ought to go far towards promoting international friendship.

A telegram from Mr. Armour, the head of the great dressed-beef combination, which Senator Vest produced before the Senatorial Investigating Committee in Chicago last week, and of which Mr. Armour subsequently acknowledged the authenticity, ran as follows:

> FREELAND, Penn., Dec. 18, 1888.
> Can't allow Schwab to continue killing live stock. If he will not stop, make other arrangements, and make the price so we can get his trade. ARMOUR & Co.

Mr. Armour refused to appear before the Committee, but he explained that this telegram was addressed to "our own agent, whom we had a perfect right to tell that he should not kill cattle if he sold our dressed beef." This seems perfectly reasonable. The Trust has a perfect right to prescribe the qualifications of its own agents, and to dismiss them if they are not satisfactory. The point to which we wish to direct attention is, however, that in this case it was not content with taking its business away from Schwab. Instructions were given that if he continued the perfectly legitimate trade of killing cattle, he was to be driven out of it by making prices so low in competition with him that he could not continue it. This brings us at once to the great political objection to Trusts—an objection which would remain overwhelmingly strong in every free country, even if all that is said of their economical advantages were true. Granted that they do not raise prices; granted that, on the contrary, they lower them; granted that they save capital and labor by preventing overproduction—it is still true that, in order to accomplish their purpose, they claim and frequently exercise powers which, as against individuals, are irresistible, and which no free people could ever be induced to lodge in the hands of any body whatsoever—legislative, executive, or judicial.

The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* has for years rendered the country a service by presenting, about the 1st of September, an annual review of the progress made by the South during the preceding twelve months. The showing for the present year, made in its issue of Monday week, is the most encouraging yet made, the progress having been greater than in any previous twelvemonth, and a healthier one as well, there having been "a steady advance everywhere and in all lines of business." The assessed wealth of the South, which was $2,164,792,795 in 1880, now amounts to $3,759,053,367—an increase of almost 75 per cent.; while the value of agricultural products has risen from $611,679,048 to $868,979,523, and of manufactures from $315,924,000 to $651,202,000, with a growth of railroad mileage from 17,808 to 36,686. No feature of the showing is more encouraging than the great increase in the amount of money expended for schools, which has much more than doubled, leaping from $6,145,706 in 1880 to $13,905,304 in 1889. Better still, the *Times-Democrat* finds that while there has been a steady movement during the decade, "no greater progress has been made during any period than the past twelve months." It was back in 1880 that the agitation for Federal aid to education in the South was started, upon the theory that the South was then raising as much money for schools as it could possibly stand or could possibly raise for years to come, while at least double that amount was needed; and yet, in 1889, it appears that the expenditures have been far more than doubled, and are growing faster now than ever before.

The proposed ceiling-scandal inquiry by the Albany Grand Jury is looked upon with pretty general suspicion as to the sincerity of the moving forces behind it. The presence on the jury of two men who admit not merely their personal friendship for ex-Superintendent Andrews, who had nominal charge of the "job," but that they were actually employed by him, is not a guarantee of strictly impartial inquiry. Albany is notoriously a bad place in which to conduct an investigation of any kind of legislative jobbery. It has always been so, for perfectly obvious reasons, and its reputation in this respect has not improved during the period in which Gov. Hill's influence has been so powerful. The ceiling scandal can never be thoroughly probed without seriously damaging many of the foremost politicians in both political parties, including the Governor on the Democratic side and the Speaker of the Assembly on the Republican. The chances for such probing, therefore, in a city especially sensitive to "pulls" are not great.

Judge Hughes, the well-known "Tom Brown" of other years, has a pathetic article in the last *Forum* about his "lost leader," Mr. Gladstone, of whose mental and moral aberrations touching the Irish question he gives a sad account, and he winds up with the following very startling warning to the American admirers of the British statesman:

> "I cannot but warn you that you are deceived, and that while you are meaning only to express admiration for and confidence in a statesman with whose career you are not familiar, you are in reality doing what in you lies to palliate crime and to set aside the old commandments, 'Thou shalt do no murder,' 'Thou shalt not steal,' 'Thou shalt not bear false witness,' 'Thou shalt not covet.'"

What is curious in all this is, that Judge Hughes should not perceive that on a question of the character of a foreign statesman Americans are sure to take testimony on *both* sides, and weigh it. Therefore, there is a certain naïveté in his giving us a list of eminent men who have refused to follow Mr. Gladstone, but no list of those eminent men who have followed him. Those who have abandoned him, he says, are the Duke of Argyll, Mr. Bright, Lord Selborne, Lord Hartington, Lord Derby, Mr. Goschen, Sir Henry James, Mr. Chamberlain, Leonard Courtney, and Mr. Jesse Collings. But, says Judge Hughes:

> "I will not speak of those who followed Mr. Gladstone. Many of them are old friends and men of high standing and character, and no unnecessary word of mine shall add to the bitterness of the present crisis."

This is surely very funny. He is, of course, bound to tell who they are who have followed Mr. Gladstone, especially since "many of them are men of high character." How can Americans judge until they hear *all* the witnesses? Among those who have followed Mr. Gladstone are Lord Spencer, who was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in the worst days; Lord Aberdeen, who filled the same office; Lord Hampden, so long Speaker of the House of Commons; Lord Rosebery, Earl Granville, Sir George Trevelyan, Mr. Shaw Lefevre, Mr. Edward Freeman, John Morley, James Bryce, Cardinal Manning, nearly all the leading Nonconformist ministers in England, and a large proportion of the Presbyterian ministers in Scotland. In fact, the Gladstonian list seems at this distance to have vastly more moral weight than Mr. Hughes's. So that he must pardon us for looking upon his suggestion to Americans that these men are "doing what in them lies to palliate crime and set aside the old commandments, Thou shalt do no murder, etc.," as exceedingly droll.

THE COMING AMERICAN CONFERENCE.

THE international conference, soon to assemble in Washington, deserves a more intelligent and a more critical consideration than—so far as we have seen—it has yet had in our country. Whether or not the proposal, and the law of the last Congress, to invite Brazil and Mexico, with each and all the republics of Central and South America, to a conference with each other and with our own Government, for the purpose of commending and urging the doing of certain things, will turn out a wise and far-seeing proposal and law so far as we are concerned, nobody can now foresee. The conference was promoted by Democratic revenue-reformers, and by those protectionists who fancy that free trade will be safe along parallels of longitude, but not safe along parallels of latitude, and by those Republicans who "guess" that our manufacturers—unable, as those protectionists say, to compete *in* the United States (unless aided by custom-house taxes) with Britons, Germans, and Frenchmen sending hither their products and wares—can compete with Britons, Germans, and Frenchmen *outside* of the United States, and in Central and South America, without such custom-house walls, fences, and barriers; and especially so if our Government will pay for steamers to carry cheaply our products to the people at the south of us and bring hither theirs.

The law of the last Congress to which we refer, is so diffuse and sprawling that it embraces among the objects to be sought by the conference almost everything a government can attempt. One expressive object is, for example, the securing for each government of more extensive markets for its products. Among the enumerated objects is *anything* "presented by any of the said States." Besides peace, prosperity, arbitration, extradition, there are enumerated in the law, as objects to be sought, a customs union, regulations governing imports and exports, the *classification* and *valuation* of merchandise in the ports of each, a uniform system of invoices, a silver coin to be a universal legal tender, and the establishment of regular, swift, and cheap means of transportation and intercommunication. Did the draughtsman of the law, or did Congress, enumerate merely for buncombe all those topics to be discussed and voted on by the conference, or is the conference really to have power to bind, in some form, those governments participating? Have we really committed the requirements of our custom-house invoices, our customs taxes, our customs nomenclature and classifications to the discussions and deliberations of this conference? If not, what does the law really intend?

There may be eighteen Spanish-speaking governments represented by as many delegates as each government may see fit to send, but no State can have more than one vote. Our Government may be one among nineteen votes on our tariff system or on silver as exclusive legal tender. If Mexico and the States of Central and South America shall decide to go *earnestly* into this conference, and not in a perfunctory way, and send their very best men as delegates, our Government at Washington will inevitably be over-matched, not only in numbers and votes, but in knowledge and diplomatic expertness. All of those delegates will probably speak Spanish and French accurately and fluently, but not English, while probably few, if any, of our delegates will be able to speak or understand any language besides English. Spanish America is not behind ourselves in the learning of its publicists, political economists, and diplomatists, the best of whom have had European education and training, which ours have not had. It has sent forth the very best of modern treatises on international law. The accuracy and completeness of knowledge of European literature—touching finance, taxation, political economy, and public law—possessed by the leading public men of Spanish America, is superior to that possessed by our leading men, and especially by such as those selected, or likely to be selected, by Mr. Harrison to attend this conference. And, besides, the linguistic ignorance of our delegates will put us at a disadvantage if Spanish America, either of her own motion *or under the inspiration of British diplomacy*, shall really set out to control the conference. It is not unlikely that Germany and France may slyly "chip in and take a hand." Peace, prosperity, arbitration, and extradition are harmless topics, but when we invite such an international conference at Washington in order to persuade the Spanish American peoples not to trade with Europe, but to trade only with us, the Satan of diplomacy, which is money, will inevitably be at work, and not on our side. Spanish America is largely in debt to London, Paris, Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Berlin, but not to New York. In current trade our merchants do not, as a rule, give the long credits to Central and South American buyers that British sellers can give and do give.

While the chief obstacle in the way of our more unrestrained trade, fuller trade, and closer business relations of every sort with the Spanish-speaking peoples at the south of us is our clumsy and provincial system of taxation, which impedes those peoples in selling to or buying from us (which impediment could not be altogether overcome if our Federal Government maintained vessels, steam and sail, carrying merchandise to and fro, up and down lines of longitude, free-gratis-for-nothing), there are other advantages over us which Europe, and specifically London, has. South and Central American youths of both sexes go rather to Europe to be educated, than to us. European States have sent to South and Central America the most promising of their diplomatic and consular agents, while our own Government at Washington has looked on those States as a sort of Botany Bay dumping-ground to which can be sent political workers with a "pull" who cannot safely be accredited to a European government. Nowhere in the wide world has there been, or is now, a more promising field than in South and Central America for an ambitious and clever American wishing to make a name for himself in diplomacy, and nowhere have we needed, and do we now need, more diplomatic comeliness, grace, shrewdness, tact, and skill in the use of foreign tongues; yet our budding diplomatists prefer Berne, Lisbon, Copenhagen, St. Petersburg, Rome, Brussels, The Hague, and such like posts, where there is nothing to do and no glory to be won, and our Government commissions to sensitive Spanish American governments men who are off color as much as "Pat" Egan. It will require a good many American international conferences at Washington to obliterate the impression created by the Landreau claim and Mr. Blaine's Chilian policy.

Germany does no such stupid work in South and Central America as we have done. Her diplomatic and consular agents and commercial travellers soliciting trade are united, alert, complaisant, and persuasive in the language of the country. One sees with half an eye, by glancing at the money articles in the London *Times*, its reports of sales of bonds and stocks, how unlike are the commercial, financial, and business ties which bind Mexico and Central and South America to London from those which exist between the peoples of those States and New York. Quite one-half as much space is given in the London *Times* to the price of investments in Mexico, Central and South America as to investments in our own country. New York newspapers scarce ever give quotations and prices for the former. Everything in the way of Central and South American investments has attention in London. The great part of the money for internal improvements by the governments and people to the south of us on this hemisphere comes from London, and not from New York. As the volume of loanable capital increases among ourselves, and seeks the risks and higher rates of Spanish America (and yet Argentine 5s sell in London for 97, Brazilian 5s for 104, Buenos Ayres 6s for 103, Chilian 4½s for 104, Uruguay 5s for 74), our commercial relations with those countries will be closer, if we do not repel them by what we call our "protective system." Unless we can form with the States to the south of us a customs union, surrounded by a custom-house wall of protective taxes against all the rest of the world, we shall have to abandon competition with Britons, Germans, and Frenchmen in those neutral markets until we modify our own mediæval taxing laws and stop taxing imported raw materials.

It will be edifying to hear or read the reply of Mr. Harrison's delegates (and especially if they all shall be Republican protectionists) to their South and Central American colleagues when they are demanding that we shall tear down or reduce our custom-house walls in order that Spanish-speaking people to the south of us may send hither and sell to us their products; that we shall modify our clumsy and senseless taxes in order that our own people may produce as cheaply as Britons, so that Central as well as Spanish America may be thereby enabled to buy of us, instead of buying of Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Welshmen.

"CORP." TANNER.

THE indications are strong that Tanner will be dismissed from the Pension Bureau within a short period. He should never have been appointed, even if President Harrison had not solemnly pledged himself to the people of the United States that, "in appointments in every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test." Now, the presumption that a "Corp." is unfit to take charge of a great public office is just as strong as the presumption that a "Fatty" is unfit to take charge of a city prison. This particular "Corp." had undoubtedly a very strong claim on the public care. He lost both his legs at Bull Run, but it is only in 'Alice in Wonderland' that the loss of a man's limbs becomes of itself a qualification for high public office. In this case there was no other. Tanner is an illiterate man, with no business training and a very slight sense of responsibility. He once held a sinecure at the Custom-house in this city, and at the same time carried on a pension agency, and was with difficulty compelled to do some work for his salary and give up the pension agency. Moreover, he is loose-tongued and light-headed, with little more sense of duty to the public than "Fatty" Walsh had when he became a jailer. That President Harrison, fresh from his oath of office, and fresh from his promises to put none but the fit on guard, should have sent for a man of this description, and have turned him loose into a great financial department of the Government, with the demoralizing remark, "Be liberal to the boys," was surely a very extraordinary act.

Consider for a moment what the office is of which Tanner was put in charge. He actually has the disbursing of a sum larger than the total expenses of the Government before the war. In 1860 the total expenses of the Government were in round numbers $66,000,000. The outgo in pensions last year was in round numbers $80,000,000, and Tanner said in a recent speech that he was debating whether he would next year ask for $110,000,000 or $115,000,000. Eighty millions was last year nearly one-third of the total expenses of the Government, besides the pensions. Were Tanner to get what he wants, he would next year have the disbursement of a sum more than half as large as the other expenses of the Government. The Secretary of the Treasury and the Treasurer, who are usually men of education and experienced financiers, have hardly any discretion in the distribution of the funds which they control. They are tied down by law in the disposal of every cent of it. They cannot be "liberal" with it without committing a crime. But the Commissioner of Pensions has, through his control of or influence over the examining boards, almost absolute discretion in deciding whether a man shall have a pension, what the amount shall be, and whether he is entitled to arrears, which in some cases amount to a small fortune.

This is prodigious power for any man to possess in dealing with a fund of $80,000,000. There are not many men in America fit to exercise it. We doubt if any man in any country was ever allowed to exercise it until now; certainly no man like Tanner ever was. Its committal to him was all the more extraordinary because the President, of course, knows as well as any one what big battalions of cheats and humbugs march behind the honest veterans who are now claiming the national bounty. Every one who witnessed a battle during the war knows what a host of skulks and deserters filled the fields and roads in the rear, how shameless they were, and how little they seemed to care how their comrades fared at the front. These men are not now trying to escape observation by any means. The memory of their exploits in active service does not cover them with confusion. On the contrary, they are everywhere the loudest-mouthed and most rapacious and most ostentatious applicants for cash rewards for wearing the uniform and keeping out of danger. Tanner himself has been tried by the Brooklyn post of the G. A. R. to which he belongs on the charge of having been a straggler when he was wounded. His account of the occasion was exceedingly cloudy. He was one of thirty-five men of the Eighty-seventh New York who marched to the second Bull Run without colors or officers, and there were only five of them together—he could not explain why—when he got under fire. But it is to his credit that he *was* under fire, and that the enemy were able to get at him with shell, while he was lying down reading in an orchard, after having distributed pears to "the boys." There are thousands of noisy veterans to-day who have not half so good a story to tell, and the more solemn the obligation of the country to reward those who never flinched, the more imperative the duty of separating the wheat from the chaff, and seeing to it that cowards do not share the rewards of valor. For such work there could, of course, hardly be a more unfit person than Tanner, and how to reconcile his selection for the place with Gen. Harrison's sense of public and private obligation, as described by himself, we confess we do not know.

THE TREASURY AND THE TARIFF BILLS.

PROBABLY until Congress has assembled will not be revealed unto the taxpayers the plan and purpose which underlie the call by the Treasury on the chief tax-gatherers at the large ports to examine the Mills bill, the Randall bill, and the Senate bill of the last Congress, and give their opinions on certain indicated features of each of the three bills. There is fair ground for inference that the movement is an Administration movement, having the assent of the Republican "Boys" and the associations of manufacturers which are in a position to dictate, if they see fit, the tariff policy of the present Executive. It is safe to say that neither the Mills bill nor the Randall bill has been committed to the examination and criticism of the newly appointed tax-gatherers in order to strengthen either of them. Nor is it absolutely certain that word has not been sent by the Treasury, through its special agents, to Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Chicago to "knife" the Senate bill.

The legislation on the tariff by the last Congress had for a chief motive and reason the extinction of a rapidly increasing and dangerous surplus; but between the conspicuously successful efforts of Tanner as a surplus-reducer, the payments for bond-buying, and schemes of various sorts for depleting the Treasury balance which have leaped to light since the 4th of March, a surplus will no longer be an exhortation to taxation reform. The Republican leaders may not now be willing to repeal the internal tobacco tax or cut down the external sugar tax. A great deal will, however, depend on Tanner. He has increased pension payments for July and August of this year by $10,000,000 beyond what they were for the corresponding months of last year. The Treasury surplus, which was $107,500,000 a year ago, is now only $40,500,000. Tariff reform is plainly not any longer to turn on the surplus. If our customs taxes were not so severe on consumption, and chiefly on consumption by workingmen, but bore heavier on the property and savings, or accumulations, of the well-to-do and the rich, Tanner might be looked upon as a butler siphoning, by Tichenor's aid, capital out of the rich man's bottle into the bottle of the "Boys"; but unfortunately the money which he pays out in pensions is wrung by Tichenor chiefly out of the wages of labor. Tichenor well knows that when he added 19 per cent. to the taxes on worsted clothing, he added that much more weight for the laboring men to carry on their holidays and Sunday outings. Tanner takes that money and flings it to the Boys in Blue, and would pour it into the laps of the widows of the "Boys" when they marry again.

It would be an orderly and commendable procedure if the Treasury would prepare a tariff bill *de novo* and submit it to Congress as an Administration measure. Only the Administration can know with how much money Tanner intends annually to enrich the "Boys," and what sum the Administration will require for the next fiscal year. It may be 300, or 400, or 500 millions all told. Perhaps Tanner knows not. Who does, if not the Administration? Congress will probably add liberal schemes of its own to the Administration fads, whatever they are, and will increase taxes to provide the money therefor. But the Administration should be able to say what annual sum it wished, and the Treasury should be competent to put on paper its plan of taxation to raise that sum. But is it competent? Who in the Treasury can do it? Assume the sum of money annually required to be 300 millions or 400 millions, more or less, who in the Treasury can, between now and next December, devise and vindicate the details of a safe and wise plan of taxation to bring in that sum? How much shall be assigned to the internal and how much to the external revenue? How much of it shall be paid by articles having an origin *outside*, and how much by articles having an origin *inside* our country? Who is there now in the Treasury capable

of preparing and sending to Congress two plans, one to raise the needed annual sum on a purely revenue basis, a tariff only for revenue, and the other showing a variation and increase of rates in order to promote, protect, and preserve our industries according to the protective idea on which Harrison was chosen, or believes he was chosen, to be President?

Such a task would be far beyond the physical and probably beyond the mental competency of Secretary Windom. He is already wearied and worn by the pestilent office-seekers. He has had no time carefully to familiarize himself with customs law, which is as abstruse and artificial as patent law or the law of real estate. He must take it all at second hand from Col. Tichenor or Capt. (it is pleasant nowadays to use a military title less than that of General) Macgregor of the Customs Division. Assistant-Secretary Batcheller has not much more acquaintance with the details of customs law, tariff law, and Federal taxation than a Sioux Indian chief. No one remains but Col. Tichenor, whose experience and training in the Treasury have been in the work, and according to the mental and moral methods, of a customs detective at home and abroad. And, besides, his health, never robust, has already been seriously impaired by his endeavor to work out in the Treasury the scheme of the syndicate of manufacturing associations which fancy they put Harrison in the White House, and demand the execution of the "bond of iniquity" by which the putting was accomplished. It is plain to see that Tichenor's tariff will be the tariff of that syndicate which has compelled an increase of taxes by Treasury order on worsteds, silks, and all along the line. But, nevertheless, if we are to have a new tax law from this Republican Congress, embodying the ideas which Harrison will say triumphed by his election, it is proper that it come from the Treasury. Will it? Can it? Who is to prepare it?

MANNERS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

We are hearing a good deal just now of the need of other kinds of training than mere literary training in the schools. There is a loud demand, not only for manual, but for moral and religious training—something very hard to get in a satisfactory shape, because its efficiency must largely depend on the character of the teacher. It is not every teacher who can make himself or herself a moral or religious influence, or even furnish a proper vehicle for moral or religious instruction. But there is a branch of ethics which might be taught in every school, and which ought to be taught in every school, but is grossly neglected to the great national detriment—we mean what is called manners or "minor morals." In this field it is safe to say our common schools do nothing, or next to nothing, and there is none within their reach in which they might do so much.

We are not now talking of the kind of demeanor in ordinary intercourse known as "politeness," though this is terribly deficient in nearly all our boys and girls. Little or nothing is done in the schools to combat the mischievous delusion that sauvity of manner is a confession of social or other inferiority, and that in order to preserve his self-respect and maintain his republican equality, an American has to be surly or indifferent, after the manner of hotel clerks or expressmen, and too often salesmen and "salesladies" in stores. The result is, that we have probably the worst-mannered children in the civilized world. And the result of this neglect of the schools is to give a great many young people a dull, unready air—that is, they avoid quick responsiveness, lest it should seem like servile eagerness to please, and the habit of dilatory answering ends in giving an appearance of dulness and stupidity. One of the great uses of schools is to fortify the children of the State against whatever is evil and deteriorating in the political or economical condition of their lives. One of the great uses of American schools should be to fortify American boys and girls against the bad influence, either on mind or manners, of the passion for equality pushed to extremes, and the still more corrupting passion for notoriety fostered by the newspapers.

One of the defects in our civilization to which attention is now being called by the preparation for the Exposition is the filthy and squalid condition of our streets and highways and the surroundings of our houses. Everybody who has seen a foreign capital anticipates with more or less shame the arrival in New York of people who are accustomed to the comfort and cleanliness of London or Paris or Vienna. No doubt much of this filth and squalor is due to defective municipal administration. But, unfortunately, it is not New York alone which suffers from it. Similar nuisances are to be encountered in every town and village in the State, and no merely legislative or official remedy will be effectual without a reform in popular habits, which must begin in the schools.

It is not easy to teach neatness to grown men and women, but it is possible to infuse into children a horror of the anti-social practice which helps a great deal to disfigure and vulgarize our cities, and especially this city, of throwing down refuse of whatever nature—peanut shells, bits of paper, ends of cigarettes and cigars, old shoes, hats, ashes, saliva or other excretions—in places frequented by or seen by one's fellow-citizens, such as streets, roads, lanes, sidewalks, public stairways, etc. Our indifference to this practice, which appears to be the result of a long familiarity, is incomprehensible to foreigners. It disappeared from European countries completely fully one hundred years ago. It is now found nowhere in the Eastern hemisphere except in Turkish or other Mussulman towns and cities, and is looked upon as the sure sign of a low civilization. It is considered in every European city a grievous offence against a man's neighbors to make any public display of offal, or to sit down quietly in the presence of filth or rubbish of any description. A horror of it might be taught to every child in the public schools by any average teacher. To instil it should be one of a teacher's first duties, for it must be remembered that the chief observable superiority of the civilized man over the savage lies in the greater cleanliness of his person and dwelling. Nothing about an Indian encampment is so revolting as the indifference of the inhabitants about their garbage and refuse. If they get it outside their door, it is the most they strive for. When it is remembered that two-thirds, probably, of the houses, stores, and offices in this city deposit their sweepings in the streets, and follow them in many cases with the slops, one has a humiliating sense of our nearness to the Crow or the Apache in some of our social usages. No child should leave the public schools without having a dread of refuse ground into him. He should be taught to hate the sight of unswept streets or sidewalks, of saliva-stained marble or granite, of ashes and refuse of every description, and especially of bits of newspapers and ends of cigars, as signs of gross selfishness and a low social tone.

THE FUTURE OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.—II.

Oregon, August, 1889.

That there could be no better way of investing capital than by building reservoirs is shown by the fact, recently pointed out by the California State Board of Trade, that ten years ago the lands of Fresno sold at from $3 to $20 per acre, while now, with water on it, the same land sells at from $75 to $750 per acre. Equally great is the gain from an æsthetic point of view. Without water four-fifths of Southern California is a dreary cactus-desert during the greater part of the year; with water it is a veritable garden-grove. Nothing could be more delightful than to watch the effect of water in this magic climate, when the first rains fall in October or November. Up to that period everything except the irrigated garden and orchard oases wears a parched yellow and brown aspect; but hardly has the rain penetrated a few inches into the soil when the grass turns green, and, before the eye has become accustomed to the change, gaudy flowers, gradually increasing in variety and abundance, spring up on all sides, even on land which appeared to be pure sand, but which on closer examination proves to be rich in decomposed vegetable matter. The irrigated gardens have an abundance of choice flowers all the year round, and the garden of the house where I lived, though without the slightest pretensions, had in full bloom, in January, petunias, calla lilies, violets, honeysuckles, geraniums (six feet in height), stock, California poppy, hyacinths, smilax, heliotropes, nasturtiums, red, white, yellow, and *green* roses, etc. In February a frost nipped the leaves of the bananas, heliotropes, and nasturtiums, but in a few days they were out again, and of the three or four subsequent frosts none was heavy enough to injure them, while the other flowers mentioned grew uninjured all the "winter." This was at Anaheim, twelve miles from the sea and twenty-eight miles south of Los Angeles, and gives a better idea of the climate than columns of statistics. Nor was it an exceptional year, for there are orange trees in the State over eighty years old, and at the San Fernando Rey Mission olive trees over a hundred years old, proving that in all this period there has been no

frost sufficiently severe or prolonged to injure these sensitive trees. In 1880 a little snow fell in Los Angeles County—just enough to astonish the young folks who had never before seen any; nor have they seen any since. The only time when ice ever forms (never more than a quarter of an inch in thickness) is immediately before sunrise, and hardly has the sun risen above the horizon when it disappears again.

To this short duration of the occasional frosts is attributed the fact that they do not kill the semi-tropical vegetation, as happens occasionally in southern Europe; and at nine or ten o'clock the California farmers may be seen ploughing for their winter wheat in shirt sleeves. Hence sufferers from pulmonary complaints who cannot endure cold, will not know that the thermometer ever reaches freezing point if they remain in bed till the sun has been out for half an hour. Immediately after sunset they will again need the protection of the house, or of a spring overcoat, as the temperature at that time suddenly drops ten to thirty degrees. But while the sun shines they cannot afford or desire to lose its rays for a single minute. It is the very luxury of existence to walk, ride, or hunt in the Southern California February sunshine. The oldest inhabitants, used to it as they are, cannot help muttering every morning, "What a fine day!" January, February, March, and April, the very four months which are the most disagreeable of the twelve in the East, are here the most perfect: the sky of the deepest blue, the air neither cold nor warm, exhilarating, and laden with the perfumes of orange blossoms and wild flowers. There are of course some disagreeable days, but they are few and far between, there being but twelve to twenty rainy days in Los Angeles County during the whole "rainy season" from November to May, so that invalids hardly ever miss their sun-bath. Dr. C. B. Bates mentions, in the *Southern California Practitioner*, the case of a consumptive who kept a record of the weather at Santa Barbara, and found that in a year there were but fifteen days upon which he was confined to the house, ten of them being rainy and five windy; and another case of a lady who, without any other than a brush shelter, spent all of eighteen months except nine nights in the open air.

This will appear the more remarkable in view of a certain peculiarity of Southern California rains. Elsewhere, people often exclaim: "If we only had fine weather in the daytime, I shouldn't care how much it rained at night!" Here this wish is fulfilled, for most of the rain falls at night. Some will be ready to cry out against the "eternal monotony" of this sunshine, but on arriving on the ground they will find this objection purely theoretical, and will be only too glad to know that they can make projects for work or pleasure, for picnics or excursions, weeks ahead, with an almost absolute certainty of having fine weather. Still, there are a few day-showers to break the "monotony," and they make up in profusion what they lack in frequency—a fascinating spectacle to the senses, and still more to the imagination, which evokes pictures of prosperous grain-fields and lovely flower-meadows. Surely that must be pronounced an ideal climate for an invalid and valitudinarian where every rainy day, even during the so-called rainy season, is regarded as a special dispensation of a kind "Providence," is commented upon in jubilant editorials by the journalists (who had for some time predicted "better weather," *i. e.*, rain), and is recorded in telegraphic tables noting the daily rainfall in every town, to the hundredth of an inch! And be it admitted that there is ground for this jubilation, for in three years out of ten the rainfall is insufficient, and then the crops suffer, except where irrigation is practised.

In this immunity from rain-storms, Southern California possesses a great advantage over other winter resorts for invalids, but it is only one out of half-a-dozen advantages which may here be briefly touched upon. The first and most important is the dryness of the atmosphere, which favors the rapid radiation of the earth's heat, so that the nights are always cool enough for refreshing sleep, even in midsummer, and sleep is the best of all medicines. So dry is this air that strips of beef can be jerked in it by simply letting them hang out doors till desiccated. And the strangest part of it is that the sea breeze, which always blows during the hottest hours of the day, is a dry wind too—a circumstance which some have tried to account for by considering it a sort of undertow, or a wave of air which came from the dry desert lands to the eastward and returns thither, absorbing but little moisture during its brief contact with the ocean. But whatever the cause of this dryness, it is a great hygienic factor, which this region can play out as one of its highest trumps against Florida and Italy. No enervating, malarial swamp winds, no sultriness, such as often makes suicide a welcome thought in the East, will ever oppress any one in this Western sanitarium, not even during the rainy spells. Nor has California ever suffered from yellow fever, like Florida, or from the cholera, which is a constant menace in Spain, Italy, and Sicily. Again, on the shores of the Mediterranean, in Europe as well as in Africa, the invalid will find it almost impossible to obtain comfortable lodgings and proper food, except in the large cities, while in California he can find home comforts in any village and many farm-houses in the midst of the wildest scenery and purest air. Never will his nostrils be offended here by the pestilential odors which poison the air within a radius of several miles of Italian and Spanish cities; nor will he ever be compelled by the muddy condition of the streets to take his walks all winter long on the roof of the hotel, as the proprietor of the Continental at Tangier told me some of his invalid winter-guests did. What a life compared with the floral walks, the hunting, fishing, and picnicking on the dry ground and under the blue rainless sky of Los Angeles or San Diego County! Surely, Southern California is destined to become the sanitarium, not only of America, but of Europe as well.

What makes the fulfilment of this prophecy the more probable is the circumstance that California is an all-the-year-round sanitarium, and not one of the mere winter resorts which compel the unwilling invalids to pack up and seek a new clime when May is gone. No one would dream of spending the summer at Malaga, Cannes, Naples, Palermo, Algiers, or Jacksonville, exposed to a sultry, malarial atmosphere and the danger of deadly epidemics; whereas California has countless places where summer and winter are alike, or rather alike unknown, the only season known being an eternal spring. Many residents in our Eastern and Middle States have often wondered what has become of the spring which used to form one of our seasons. It has followed the general tide of immigration, has gone West, and may now be found in riotous profusion along the coast and the foothills of California. Not that all parts of Southern California are as exempt from a summer season as they are of winter. On the contrary, there are many most desirable winter resorts which invalids and tourists will be only too glad to abandon in June, such as Riverside and other places too far in the interior to get the benefit of the afternoon sea-breezes. Even so near the sea as Los Angeles, it is by no means pleasant to be exposed directly to the rays of the July sun; yet, owing to the dryness of the atmosphere—which, moreover, increases as the heat increases—100° are not so oppressive here as 90° in New York. Besides, in the East there is no refuge from the all-pervading heat except in a cellar; whereas here one needs only to step into the shade to find relief, the difference between the sunny and the shady side of a house running as high as 30°. Finally, as Southern California has an average width of only forty miles, it takes only an hour or two to reach the seacoast, where it is always pleasant; and cool mountain resorts are equally accessible everywhere, as can be seen by a glance at the map, which is blackened by groups and chains of mountains, attaining in the San Bernardino range a height of over eleven thousand feet. No wonder that camping is the favorite pastime of the Californian in summer—and not only of the wealthy; for as the farmer does all his work in winter, he can lie fallow in summer, like his somnolent fields, and pitch his tent along any beach or cañon he chooses; and camp-life is so inexpensive, especially when rod and rifle are available, that the poorest can indulge in this luxury during the warmest months.

Surely, when the human race cuts its wisdom teeth, it will no longer crowd into dirty, noisy, malodorous cities, but will seek health and fresh air all the year round. Southern California will loom up more and more as an ideal place for building up a vast city in the country, so to speak—a city in which each house will be surrounded by ten or twenty acres of irrigated land, capable of producing all the fruits and vegetables, eggs and poultry needed by the family, and shaded by one of the fifty varieties of eucalyptus trees already imported from Australia, or by the spacious pepper tree, and a small orange, peach, and fig orchard. Such a city could be built up in a few years, with shade and all. Elsewhere when people plant trees, they do so for the benefit of posterity; here a row of the eucalyptus will grow in a few years large enough to afford abundance of shade. Noiseless electric railways will traverse this country town in every direction, bringing the scattered population to the business places and centres of amusement. But they will not crave the artificial excitements of city life as they do now, for when there are no excursions to the sea or the mountains, the fascinating care of the orange groves and flower gardens will absorb all the leisure moments. What novel, what theatrical play, could afford so much amusement as the daily irrigation of a flower-bed, and noticing how the plants grow visibly and in a few weeks develop into exotic wildernesses of tropical and semi-tropical flowers of the most gorgeous colors and unheard-of size? Or watching a rose bush as it gradually intertwines itself among the branches of an orange tree, which some morning will present the bewitching spectacle of a tree bearing red roses, white orange blossoms, and golden oranges all at the same time? Or sitting under this orange tree in February, listening to a mocking-bird perched on its branches, and reading in your paper about the blizzards and storms of the East, and the tornadoes and cyclones which you know will never visit your home? Why should our novelists lay the scenes of their tales in Andalusia when we have an Andalusia of our own right here on the Pacific Coast? At one time it formed part of the so-called Great American Desert, but in the next cen-

tury it will be known as the Great American Paradise.

Yet let not the coming population of the Pacific Andalusia fancy that they will be spared all the trials and annoyances of life. Even Southern California has its disadvantages — quite enough to prevent it from degenerating into a Utopia. Thus you will some morning be standing in your garden admiring your favorite banana bush. Suddenly it will tremble and sink into the ground a foot or two. Earthquakes are not unknown in this region, but they don't "strike in one place" like that. No, it was one of those irrepressible gophers, the terror of the rural Californian. They will eat the roots of your fruit trees and choicest flowers, regardless of expense, and though cats and traps will catch them and irrigation drowns them, the neighboring fields always furnish a fresh supply; and what is worse, their subterranean passages from these fields serve as tunnels which carry off your water, and make you pay twice as much for irrigation as you would have needed but for those holes. Then there are scale bugs of all colors, which attack your orange trees and have to be sprayed off; and a mysterious disease which kills your vines; and small green insects which eat up your flowers and buds; so you need a whole drug store to combat them. Rabbits will eat your vegetables and grape-vines, and the quails will feed on your grapes; and, to add insult to injury, the Los Angeles sporting clubs have succeeded in passing a law which prevents you from shooting these birds at a time when it would do most to protect your crops. However, if you are a sportsman, you will forgive and observe this law, which enables you at other times to shoot at a flock of quail in your own vegetable garden, though you live in a town of two or three thousand inhabitants.

The desolate appearance which all the unirrigated parts of the country present after May must also be reckoned among the disadvantages of this climate; for a sensitive soul can hardly help feeling pity for the drooping, parched vegetation, especially after noticing once with what eagerness it drinks in the first rain of the autumn, with as much evident enjoyment as a Bavarian emptying his mug of beer at a draught. Nor can one help admitting that the orange groves and eucalyptus avenues, delightful as they are, cannot entirely atone for the absence of green forests—for Southern California, except in the foothills, is as treeless as Spain, which it resembles in so many other respects—and a single oak tree has more than once furnished the nucleus of a town. The higher mountains are as bare of trees as the valleys, but this is compensated for by the consequent greater clearness and variety of the sculptured outlines, and by the snows which fall during every rain-storm, sometimes extending almost down to the foothills. In the clear southern atmosphere these mountains, though they be fifty or sixty miles away, seem to be almost within stone's throw, and as they are visible everywhere, they constitute one of the greatest charms of Southern California. Once in a while, however, this view is spoiled for a day or two by one of those desert winds and sand-storms which are the most annoying features of this climate, and are known as the Norther, or the "Santa Ana" wind, as the Anaheimers call it, in order to give a hated rival town a bad name. Without being a hurricane, or even a gale, this wind reaches a considerable velocity, is as dry and warm as if it came from an oven, and raises clouds of dust which obscure the sun and mountains as effectually as the smoke of the forest fires does in Oregon, and a film of which even lines the waters of the Pacific to a considerable distance from the shore. If I finally mention that this dust, even when it lies quietly on the ground two or three inches thick during seven or eight months of the year, is by no means a desirable thing to have about, I shall have mentioned all the serious blemishes that I could discover on the face of this fair country; and they are so insignificant compared with its attractions that I have given them the advantage of having the last word in this letter, confident that they cannot essentially modify the opinion therein expressed as to the future of Southern California.

HENRY T. FINCK.

ARTISTIC DISCOVERIES IN VITERBO.

ROME, August 10, 1889.

GIOVANNI BATTISTA ALMADIANO, a noble Viterbese, prelate of the chamber and friend of Leo X., was sent, soon after 1500, on an embassy to Germany. He there became acquainted with a gentleman from Mantua, whom he cared for most affectionately during a mortal illness. Before his death the Mantuan confided to Almadiano that his only regret was that he had not been able to carry out his cherished plan of erecting a church and monastery for the Carmelite brothers of the congregation of Mantua. To comfort his last moments, Almadiano promised that immediately on his return to Italy he would himself carry out this plan. And so he did, building in Viterbo a fine church, dedicated to St. John, and an elegant cloister, and giving them to the Carmelites. The architect was Giuliano da San Gallo; the sculptor, Andrea della Robbia; the painter, Sebastiano del Piombo. These names have only now been connected with the monument, through the following discoveries of Cav. Ettore Gentili, whose acquaintance with the monuments of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance in Italy is exceptionally thorough.

In 1870 the Italian Government, as is well known, deprived the religious corporations of many of their buildings, giving them to the communes for public use. The church of S. Giovanni was then made into a gymnasium, and an infant asylum was established in the monastery. The municipality appointed a committee charged to select whatever works of art were worthy of being placed in the museum. From all the contents of the church this committee selected for preservation only what they called "a wooden bust of little value," for the sole reason that on the pedestal was the inscription, *Jo. Bap. Almadianus MDX.* The bust was covered with several thick coats of plaster and colors laid on at various times by barbarous hands, but Gentili recognized that under all this must be a terra-cotta by a master of the best period of the Renaissance. A careful removal of the black, red, and yellow paint disclosed a superb work. The head is a remarkably living likeness, with high and thoughtful brow, lips full, and eyes large and intelligent. The broad and chaste style, the surety of modelling, and the masterly execution had already indicated Andrea della Robbia as the author; and this conjecture of Gentili was confirmed by the discovery of documents showing that Andrea was at this very time working in Viterbo for Almadiano, for whom he executed the beautiful lunette over the door of the church of S. Giovanni, while for the Dominicans he made the famous lunettes of the church of S. Maria della Quercia.

A few days later, Gentili was engaged in verifying some inscriptions in the chapel of Lorenzo di Giacomo, in the suppressed church of the Verità. The ladder was about to be placed on top of a pile of old canvases, but he opposed this act of carelessness and insisted on examining these paintings, though assured that they were merely old rubbish fit only to be burned. In one of these canvases, condemned to destruction, he recognized, under several pounds of dirt and plaster, the hand of Sebastiano del Piombo, the great rival of Raphael and the intimate friend and companion of Michelangelo. This painting, 2.85 metres high by 2 metres wide, was at once carried to the Communal Museum. It was cleaned and found to be in perfect preservation. It contains five life-size figures, and the subject is the Baptism. In drawing and color this painting is remarkable: the figure of Christ stands out in such powerful relief, is of so solid a coloring and so true an anatomy, as to fully justify the reputation of this master, great in a period of giants. It is strange that this work has never been mentioned or recognized, and still more strange that the committee, even if unable to recognize its author, should not have realized its merit. And this, notwithstanding the fact that two other famous works by Sebastiano del Piombo are in the Museum of Viterbo itself: the Flagellation and the Pietà. In both of these the life-size figure of Christ is identical with that in the Baptism in form, play of light, and color; and in the Flagellation the head of one of the executioners is the same as that of St. Peter Martyr kneeling by the side of Christ in the Baptism. The beauty and authenticity of the new painting are now generally recognized. Its history was investigated, and it was found to have been originally placed over the high altar of the church of S. Giovanni: it was consequently ordered by Almadiano.

The lucky discoverer also noticed in the church itself the following inscription: *D. O. M. Has Carmelitanas ædes ac templum per Leonem X. sacro fonte decoratum, illique B. M. Virginis de Peste sacellum prope fontem ejusdem Pontificis diplomate lenitum, Joannis Baptiste Almadiani nobilis Viterbiensis insignis pietas in Deiparæ obsequium excitavit, extruxit an. Dni. MDXV tanto benefactori oberat Patres grati animi monumentum posuere.* A search for this *sacellum prope fontem* dedicated to the Virgin disclosed an elegant little octagonal church, with a door whose imposts were beautifully carved in relief. But its interior was bare, covered with a yellowish coat of plaster. Gentili judged that neither Almadiano nor the Carmelites would have left the building so unadorned, and that under the plaster would be found paintings of the first years of the sixteenth century. The removal of the plaster in certain parts has already brought to light four large figures by Giovanni Spagna, the pupil of Perugino. Three are in a niche, and represent S. Antonio and S. Bernardino on either side of S. Sebastiano: this central figure is perfect in design, and, like all the S. Sebastianos of the Umbrian school, is of refined elegance. The figure is nude, and stands out from a background of a dark brownish red; the saint is wounded, and the expression of his face shows his suffering, but is self-contained and dignified. The opposite niche contains merely the figure of S. Giovanni di Dio, superbly modelled, and covered with drapery that falls in broad soft folds over slender and nervous limbs. The relief of this sympathetic and expressive figure is such as to give one, at first, the impression of an antique sculpture. Gentili hopes to discover other figures on either side. Meantime, he has uncovered, on the outer edges of the niche, two painted pilasters whereon, with facile hand, Giovanni Spagna designed two *candellieri*, in

which are graceful interlaced figures of men and animals, real and fantastic, leaves and branches, and vases of graceful shapes. C.

THE SON OF A KING.

PARIS, August 22, 1889.

THE letters written by the eldest son of Louis Philippe, who was called the Duke of Orleans after his father mounted the throne, have just been published by his two sons, the Comte de Paris and the Duc de Chartres. The premature death of the Duke of Orleans has always been considered as one of the causes of the Revolution of 1848. The nation lost its confidence in the future of the dynasty when it was represented only by an old king and a child. The Duke of Orleans had great prestige, and when he became the victim of the most unfortunate and unforeseen accident, he was mourned by the whole nation. I opened with much curiosity the volume, edited by his sons, as I was very anxious to discover from the Duke's correspondence if he was worthy of his great popularity and reputation. I have never heard anybody speak of him except with praise: his surviving brothers never mention him except with admiration and with a sort of respect which is rather uncommon between brothers. I must say that, after reading the correspondence of the Duke of Orleans, I came to the conclusion that his reputation has not been overrated, and I am inclined to think that the promises which he gave would even have been surpassed:

"Et les fruits passeront les promesses des fleurs."

The events which we see under our eyes help us to understand the past. The Duke of Orleans had, for a man just arrived at manhood when his father ascended the throne, a very clear comprehension of the state of Europe and of its future. Under the Restoration, Louis Philippe remained, as it were, in the shade; he did not conspire against the Bourbons, but he educated his children in a spirit which was somewhat different from theirs. His salon at the Palais Royal was opened to the marshals and generals of the Empire; his oldest son heard from their own mouths the history of the great wars of the Revolution and the Empire. He was allowed to mix with young men of his time who were more distinguished by their talent than by their birth. Among his friends we find Alfred de Musset; there are several letters of the Duke to him which show a great intimacy. (One of the finest of Musset's poems was the one which he wrote after the untimely death of the Duke of Orleans.) We find also letters addressed to Colonel (afterwards General) Marbot, who had been on the staff of Marshal Ney (the unpublished memoirs of General Marbot are among the most extraordinary documents on the period of the First Empire). His aunt, Mme. Adelaide, who was the Egeria of Louis Philippe till she died—a person of uncommon character and intelligence—took the greatest interest in him.

Under such influences, and with a father like Louis Philippe, who has not unjustly been called the modern Ulysses, and who had seen many men and many places, it is easy to imagine that the Duc de Chartres (so he was called till his father became king) developed rapidly, and as soon as he became Prince Royal we find him imbued with the highest sense of his duties and responsibilities. He must be judged from the standpoint of 1830. The Revolution of 1830 was not only a movement towards a more liberal and parliamentary form of monarchy; it must not be forgotten that it was also a national movement against the treaties of 1815. It was a form of what is now called the *revanche*—a protest against the Holy Alliance which had humbled France and placed her under a sort of tutelage. The Duke of Orleans was essentially a representative of the Revolution in a national sense; and in his remarkable preface, the Comte de Paris insists upon this point. In the will which the Duke of Orleans made at Toulon on the 9th of April, 1840, before starting for Africa, he says:

"It is a great and difficult task to prepare the Comte de Paris for the destiny which awaits him, as nobody at present can know what this child will be when the question arises of reconstituting on a new basis a society which has for its foundation only the mutilated remains of its previous organizations. But whether the Comte de Paris be one of those instruments which are broken before they have been made use of, or whether he be one of the workers in this social regeneration which is only dimly foreseen through great obstacles and perhaps rivers of blood; whether he be King or merely an obscure defender of the cause to which we all belong, he must above all be a man of his time and of his nation; he must be a Catholic, and a passionate, exclusive servant of France and of the Revolution."

Speaking of this passage, which has often been cited, the Comte de Paris says that "by the word Revolution, the Duke of Orleans merely means France in arms against the European coalition, resisting foreign intervention in its domestic affairs; France opposing the hostility of the European Powers by means of the pacific diffusion of doctrines which have become the basis of all modern goverunents, but which were then, let us not forget, proudly repudiated by the principal Continental monarchies."

The Duke of Orleans was not in the position in which the Comte de Paris now finds himself; the whole Legitimist party looked upon him as the son of a usurper. The division between the Legitimist and the Orleanist parties has now come to an end, since the death of the Comte de Chambord, and it is natural that the Comte de Paris should not desire to consider himself the representative of Revolutionary ideas. His personality represents exactly the reverse of these ideas. The European changes which his father desired have been accomplished; and, to the credit of Louis Philippe, it must be said that the hostility which Europe showed him at first, ceased when he revealed himself the most firm representative of peace.

A little temerity and enthusiasm can easily be pardoned in a young man. The Duke of Orleans was convinced that great changes were impending in Europe. He writes in 1831 to the Comte de Saint-Priest about the "complete and durable pacification of Italy, which can have stability only if it be supported by liberal institutions." Long before Cavour and Napoleon III., he thinks of the regeneration of Italy; he sees with "extreme pain" the invasion of the Romagna by the Austrians. During a visit which he makes in Alsace with his father, in 1831, he writes to his aunt, Mme. Adelaide: "What the King must say, with the clearness which is his characteristic, is that he will always put himself at the head of the nation and repulse the enemy." He did not perhaps understand very clearly the state of Germany. The King had received in Strasbourg the visit of four German princes—the King of Würtemberg, the Grand Duke of Baden, the Margrave his brother, and his brother-in-law, Prince von Fürstenberg.

"Since these German Princes are here," writes the Duke of Orleans to his aunt, "I should like the King to take advantage of it, and to render them thoroughly French. It is very important that France should undo slowly the Germanic Confederacy as constructed in hatred of us by the Holy Alliance, and should help to form a new one which would be in accord with our ideas, and in which we should exercise the influence which Austria and Prussia have exclusively reserved for themselves in the present confederacy."

You must not be too much surprised at this passage. When Napoleon III. embarked in the German war, French diplomacy was not much better informed as to the sentiments of the members of the German Confederacy. It must be said, also, that in 1831 the work of the unification of Germany was little advanced, that it was still purely ideal, and that it had found no expression in diplomacy and statesmanship.

In a letter to Marbot, written at Mulhouse in 1831, the Duke of Orleans returns to the subject:

"I have strongly urged the King to profit by the presence of the German Princes in Strasbourg to strike a blow at this rotten edifice called the Germanic Confederacy, to this association directed by Austria and Prussia against France and the liberal ideas of which they fear the propagation. . . . It seemed to me that the Princes of Baden were as French as Germans can be. As for the King of Würtemberg, he is completely under Russian influence, and I think he cannot be trusted. The Deputies from Darmstadt and from Frankfort also expressed with frankness their desire to bind themselves to the French alliance; and, in general, if some German Princes are hostile to France, all the peoples, without exception, and especially the armies, have felt the need of rallying to the tricolor flag, which left among them memories of strength and greatness which nothing has effaced. I have had on this subject curious details from the various French diplomats whom I have seen here."

At a distance of nearly sixty years, these lines sound very extraordinary. To be sure, the Revolution of 1830 in France had excited some revolutionary movements in Saxony, in Cassel, in Brunswick, in the Rhenish provinces. The personal observations of the Duke of Orleans were correct, but there was much illusion in the minds of those who thought that the tricolor flag was in the German eyes only a symbol of greatness; the wars of Napoleon were not forgotten, nor the sufferings and humiliations of the invasions.

In Belgium the Duke of Orleans found another field for his plans of reorganization. France had obtained the permission of Europe, in case of a Dutch invasion, to march to the help of Belgium and to occupy the Belgian fortresses. "Every day this necessity of reconstructing Europe on a basis more reasonable, and less hostile to France and to the peoples in general, presents itself more to my mind. . . . What I invoke with all my prayers, what I would seal with my blood if necessary, is the rupture of the treaties of 1815 and a new organization of European society." At the end of this reorganization he sees a general disarmament of Europe. Such were the generous dreams of the young Prince.

"It will only be when the people have obtained more or less complete guarantees, more or less liberal institutions, that the Powers will disband their armies, which, everywhere except in Europe, are only assembled in order to oppose progress and the just exigencies of nations. So long as a single Power maintains a system as ruinous as it is contrary to the true interests of Government, the disarmament will be an impossibility, because it can only be general, because it must take place everywhere at the same moment."

In home politics we find the Duke of Orleans, in that early period of the reign of his father, on the side of the most liberal doctrines. To his Aunt Adelaide he writes on October 27, 1831, from Maubeuge: "The question of the peerage seems still to present many dangers. I hope that the Ministry will prepare by all possible means to force the adoption of article 23 of the Constitution by the Chamber of Peers." This article abolished the heredity of the peerage. I could not help thinking, as I read these lines,

of the late Duc de Broglie, who once said to me: "Remember that, without an hereditary peerage, monarchy cannot live long."

The correspondence of the Duke extends till the time of his death. It will give every reader the impression that he was a man full of ardor, of patriotism; that he took an intense interest in public affairs, in the French army, in the greatness of his family and of his country. His style is very good, and at times becomes very eloquent. He clearly prepared himself for great things, and he died without having accomplished what he had dreamed. The preface of the Comte de Paris to the edition of his letters is a fine literary page. It is also a link between the past and the present, in a political sense.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

V.—THE RETROSPECTIVE EXHIBITION OF FRENCH ART, 1789-1889—THE SCOPE OF THE EXHIBITION.

PARIS, August 12, 1889.

IN default of a catalogue of the Retrospective Exhibition, and owing to the difficulty of defining its limits in the great display in the Champ de Mars without some sort of official designations, I find, now that the catalogue is published and the works properly numbered, that I underestimated the extent of this part of the exhibition. The approximate figure of seven hundred works, which I gave in my first letter, turns out to be that of the oil paintings only, of which there are 652. The exhibition of drawings and water-colors includes 558 works, that of sculpture 140, that of engraving on medals 129, miniatures 76, architecture 376, and engraving and lithography 465. The total number of works in the Retrospective Exhibition is therefore 2,396.

While the exhibition of drawings, including as it does well-chosen works by such men as Ingres, Prud'hon, Géricault, Delacroix, Delaroche, David, Carpeaux, Baudry, Barye, and many others of value, and a collection of thirty drawings, mostly in pastels, by Millet, is of the greatest interest to those who wish to study the exhibition historically and in detail; while in the exhibition of architecture and engraving there is a rich display in which the special student will find the period of a hundred years of French art in these branches admirably illustrated, I shall not attempt to do more than give them this passing notice. Even in sculpture I shall be forced to note only a few names and cite but a few of the best works among the considerable number of admirable ones in this part of the Retrospective Exhibition.

Rude, Houdon, and Barye, a trio whose names have been chosen for the places of honor on the tablets in the interior of the dome of the Palais des Beaux-Arts, must first of all be mentioned. "L'Amour Dominateur," a statue in marble, which has been brought from the Museum at Dijon, and a cast in plaster of the celebrated figure of Cavaignac on his tomb in the Montmartre Cemetery, best exemplify Rude. By Houdon there are seven busts, a bronze figure of Apollo, and a cast of the Diana in the Louvre; and Barye is excellently represented by thirteen bronzes—"Jaguar Devouring a Hare" and "Panther Seizing a Deer" (both from M. Bonnat's collection, by the way) being most noteworthy. Then come Carpeaux, Clesinger, Carrier-Belleuse, Paul Dubois, Guillaume, Chapu, Falguière, Mercié, St. Marceaux, Aimé Millet, Fremiet, Cavelier, Thomas, and others, some represented by a single work only, for the exhibition is a picked one. Rodin has here a single piece, one of those bizarre manifestations which this now much-talked-of sculptor seems to delight in producing. It is a bronze mask, showing a strongly-marked face of a man, modelled with the greatest vigor and verve, and is famous as "L'Homme au Nez Cassé."

Though this collection has been judiciously chosen, and has been made as representative as it is possible to make an exhibition of sculpture where some of the best works of the men it is proposed to exemplify are in fixed places and cannot be taken temporarily to an exhibition, there is no doubt that the only way to study the sculpture of the past century in France is to go and see it *sur place;* and in Paris alone, in the Louvre, the Luxembourg, and in the public places and gardens, we can get a better idea of its extent and its merits than we can here. We should have to go to the Cathedral at Nantes to see the originals of the four figures by Dubois on the tomb of Gen. Lamoricière, and so the administration has placed plaster casts of them in the exhibition. In supplementing in this way what is to be seen in Paris itself, it is possible to get a comprehensive idea of the work of the sculptors, though, as has been said, that cannot be done in the Champ de Mars alone.

But the chief interest for the general public and for Americans especially is in the pictures. M. Proust and the committee of artists, critics, and directors of museums have drawn upon many private collections, and brought together works that have not been seen publicly for years. They have taken others from the museums in different cities in the provinces, some of the principal pictures of almost all of the painters belonging to the museums of their native towns, and have even had authority in certain cases to bring some works needed to make the representation complete from the Louvre, the Luxembourg, and the National Gallery at Versailles. In consequence, they have been able to organize an exhibition which has never been equalled in France. Magnificent is the only word that fitly characterizes it.

The period illustrated is the hundred years from 1789 to 1889. Beginning with Fragonard (1732–1806), we find three pictures which connect directly the painting of the time of Louis XVI. with that of David (1748–1825) and his contemporaries Gérard, Drolling, and Prud'hon. Following Prud'hon are Ingres and Flandrin, from whom proceed such men of the school of our day as Baudry and Delaunay. Contemporary with Ingres are Gros, Géricault, and Delacroix, from whom are descended (1) the Barbizon Group (Millet, Rousseau, Troyon, etc., and Corot); (2) Decamps, Regnault, Fromentin, and the other "Orientalists"; (3) Courbet, Fantin-Latour, Bastien-Lepage, Monet, Manet, and the unclassable impressionistic painters such as Raffaëlli. The painters of to-day of historical subjects may also be said to be descended from Ingres, but there is but little of their work in the Retrospective Exhibition. We have further to note that Horace Vernet (1789–1863) was a contemporary of Ingres, and that his successors in our time are De Neuville, Detaille, and the other military painters of whom so many have appeared since the war of 1870–71, and that the first of the military painters of this type was Charlet (1792–1845).

There is very little in the two pictures and the portrait of the artist by Fragonard, apart from their historical interest, to call for notice. The color is pale and thin, the drawing prim and careful. In the portrait there is considerable character and a freer technique. Nor need we stop long to look at the twelve canvases by Gérard, ten of them portraits from the galleries at Versailles—only long enough to note that they evince research for the character of the sitters, and that in color they are agreeably mellowed by time; nor is it necessary here to say more than this of the three portraits by Drolling. We go at once to the work of Prud'hon, where we find a painter of great ability, the best man of his day in many respects, seriously occupied with the question of form, and giving us straightforward, hardy drawing, distinguished always by a pronounced feeling for style. These qualities are best seen, perhaps, in "Innocence," one of the twelve pictures brought here to represent him—a nude figure of a young girl, seated and the body slightly bent forward. Most of the other works are small, one or two of them being little more than sketches. Rightly to estimate his place in the art of the century, however, we should go to the Louvre and see the "Enlèvement de Psyché," a beautiful work which it has not been thought necessary to bring here to complete his representation, or which, more probably, it has been deemed impossible to spare from that precious collection.

Almost as much has been done in the case of David, however. The portrait of Madame Récamier, which, though unfinished—not much more than an *ébauche* in fact—is considered one of the best things he ever painted, has been brought here from the Louvre. It is a cause for congratulation that it is so, for there is real pleasure to be had in looking at this natural portrait of a beautiful woman, which it is not possible to find in the finished portraits, such as that of "Michel Gérard and his Family"; and certainly it is something different from pleasure that one feels in looking at the vast canvas on which David has depicted the coronation of Napoleon I. and the Empress Josephine at Notre Dame in 1804. Yet, though it is stilted and artificial, I don't know that it is not quite as good in its way as much of the work of the kind that is being done to-day, and it is certainly better than some of it—than Wencker's "Laying the Corner-Stone of the New Sorbonne," for instance, which occupies a prominent place in the galleries of the Decennial Exhibition. David and his school believed that there was nothing beautiful outside of the antique, and there is little enough of nature in their compositions. In David's pictures of classical subjects, a number of which are in the Louvre, there is absolutely no nature at all.

This sort of artificial work was at the climax of its glory when Ingres came upon the scene, and he who has in our day become the type of classicism was then looked upon as a revolutionary. Ingres combatted the principles of David's school throughout his career, and, as one of his pupils, M. Amaury-Duval, has pointed out in a volume of souvenirs, 'L'Atelier d'Ingres,' his first admirers were Géricault, Delacroix, and others of the new school, who wished to throw off the yoke of the Institute, and believed they could win under the leadership of such a man as Ingres. Afterwards, when they were successful, came the division into the Draughtsmen and the Colorists; and Delacroix and his followers, cutting loose from Ingres, formed the famous Romantic school which ardently opposed him, and which was continued in our day by the Barbizon painters and some of their contemporaries. So that, whatever may be the aspect of Ingres's work to-day, when looked at in the light of the new movements towards *plein air* and impressionism, however purist and classical it may appear to us, it is certain that the impulses that have brought modern French art to the high level it occupies to-day were first given by him, and he cannot be considered otherwise

than as a figure of the first importance in this Retrospective Exhibition. His art now stands for the epitome of Academy traditions to which he always clung, and which he always preached, finding the object of his adoration, not, like David, in the Greeks and Romans, but in Masaccio and Raphael. Seven of his works have been placed in the galleries in the Champ de Mars. The celebrated picture of "St. Symphorien," brought here from the Cathedral of Autun, one of his compositions painted while at the French Academy at Rome, "Jupiter and Thetis," and "Napoleon I. on his Throne," are the chief of these. None are remarkable for color—indeed, there is almost no color at all, but merely flat neutral tints; but in all of them is that remarkable drawing on which his fame principally rests. In a portrait of a young man with his head turned over his shoulder to look out of the canvas in full face, the drawing, as in the portrait of Bertin in the Louvre, is marvellous.

Of Flandrin, who is often spoken of as his best pupil, it is not necessary to speak at length. His work shows more attempt to represent color, but it is completely eclipsed by the brilliancy of the great leaders of the "Romanticists," Delacroix and Géricault. Before I speak of them, Baron Gros must have a passing mention. He is still referred to by the *anciens* as a master, but his work is not estimated so highly by the younger men, who still revere Ingres and speak enthusiastically of Géricault and Delacroix. One of the best known of his works is here, the portrait of General Count Fournier-Sarlovèse, a work of dignity, but inclining to pomposity, skilfully painted, and not without a certain amount of truth to nature. Among other canvases is a portrait of Dubosc, the celebrated model who saved from his earnings in the *ateliers* of the masters of those days money enough to found a prize at the Institute for young artists. The pictures here by Baron Gros are all of moderate dimensions. At the Louvre he may be seen in all his glory in the great canvases depicting the retreat from Russia and other events in the campaigns of Napoleon. He cannot be said to exert any influence on the military painting of today, which proceeds directly from Horace Vernet.

The story of Géricault working in a barn on his picture "The Raft of the Medusa," and dying in poverty at the age of thirty-three, is familiar. The picture has long been in the Louvre and the painter ranks as a *chef d'école*. Delacroix was equally poor, and when he had finished his picture of "Charon's Bark," which is now one of the treasures of the Louvre, he could not raise money enough to get a frame for it, and had to make one of boards and paint it yellow. In this humble setting it came before the jury at the Salon, and, as the story goes, the frame came apart, and the picture was about to be barred out on this account, when a painter, one of the celebrities of those days, whose name I do not now recall, gave it as his opinion that it was a remarkable picture, and ordered a frame for it at his own expense. More fortunate than Géricault, he lived to see fortune and fame come to him before he died. I need not repeat the story of the fight between the Classicists, with Ingres at their head, and the Romanticists, led by Delacroix. The details are familiar. The battle was a hot one, and is not entirely fought out even to this day. How much of the fame attached to the name of Delacroix belongs to his part in the founding of a new movement in art, and how much of it is due to his merits as a painter, it is not very easy to determine; but I think it certain that his ability has been exaggerated, and that time will place a more moderate estimate on his worth and artistic balance as a colorist, while not detracting from his value as the prime factor in the development shown in the art of painting since his advent.

The revolt was begun by Géricault, who did not live to carry on the war, and no small part of the glory which rightly belongs to him is attributed to Delacroix. Leaving out of the question his one great picture, "The Raft of the Medusa," a work that is simply wonderful, not only in itself, but in view of the conditions under which it was painted and the absence of anything in the painter's artistic surroundings to help him, the self-reliance of a very young man breaking with all traditions and producing a work like this must have been enormous, and his courage and determination in the face of adversity are worthy of the highest admiration. He was in no respect a sensationalist, but sober, dignified, and honest in his expression of what he felt sure must be the truth. In less important works, such as some of those in this exhibition, we find in every case the same sure, self-possessed way of painting, the same reserved strength and depth. Delacroix is both flighty and fiery by comparison, at times is entirely unintelligible, and again, as in this big picture, the "Battle of Taillebourg," simply stupid. At one time we have a bewildering richness of a multitude of glowing tints, where the motive of the composition disappears in the volcano-like eruption of color, and the canvas must be viewed merely as an exhibition of the artist's virtuosity in color combinations, with an utter disregard for form; at another an uninteresting composition of many figures, where form is observed, but color in its true sense is forgotten. Perhaps in one of the pictures here, "Les Convulsionnaires de Tanger," Delacroix comes as near as he ever does to a just balance of form and color, always excepting the "Charon's Bark," in which all that is best of his talent seems to be summed up, and that other wonderful picture in the Louvre, "The Entry into Constantinople." In spite of the faults and insufficiencies that may be pointed out in particular cases, however, the ensemble of his work is extraordinary in its brilliancy. His influence on the modern school of French art has been immense, and with him and Géricault we enter upon a new phase, a movement that has extended to every part of the western world where art flourishes, and that has produced in the Barbizon painters and their immediate contemporaries one of the most admirable schools of painting the world has ever seen.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

OHIO'S POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to the writer that you are inclined to underrate the advantages to be secured by the overthrow of Foraker and Forakerism in the coming election. The nature of the hold which the Governor has obtained on the Republican party of this State does not seem to be fairly comprehended by most outside writers. He is not in reality the popular idol which he seems to be upon the surface. It is true that he is the Ohio Blaine with a majority of his party; but, during the last two years, his tyrannical use of the party machinery, together with his absurd vanity and evident shallowness, has developed a rapidly increasing minority who are thoroughly disgusted, and would breathe a sigh of relief at his utter defeat, even if it should involve the loss of the Legislature and a seat which the party hopes to gain in the United States Senate. His renomination was the result of the hardest kind of work by himself and his henchmen, and would not have been possible in an untrammelled convention. He knew that his grasp was weakening, and resolved to stake his all upon a desperate attempt to regain it. If he loses, he will no longer be a prominent factor in the politics of the State or nation. If he wins, he will make a mighty effort to capture the next Presidential Convention, and with no insignificant grounds of hope for success. Granting, for argument, that, so far as Ohio is concerned, there is little choice, we think that the effort of Ohio Democrats to relieve the country of the possibility of a Foraker campaign for the Presidency is sufficient to entitle them to the sympathy of the independent element in the East.

The greatest objection to Mr. Campbell is the tendency which he has shown in Congress to flinch from his real belief for fear of offending the supposed "protection Democrats" of Ohio. The fate of ex-Congressman Beriah Wilkins, in Ohio's great wool district, or some other reason, seems to have strengthened his spinal column somewhat, in this respect. He is not a bitter partisan, as is Mr. Foraker, nor has he the qualities which would enable him to build up anything analogous to the Foraker "machine." He could hardly make any change for the worse in the internal affairs of the State, for our Constitution has carefully divested the Governor of all opportunities to exercise any real power except by the illegitimate use of the privilege of appointing minor officials. We have reached bottom in this line, and any change must tend towards reform. Aside from internal affairs, there is the power, so freely exercised by Foraker, to make Ohio ridiculous in the eyes of the outside world by turning her highest office into a theatre for the exhibition of the antics of a circus clown. This Mr. Campbell will not do, even though he is sometimes (*not* "universally," as an outsider is justified in inferring from Ohio papers) called "Jimmy."

W.

OHIO, September 7, 1889.

ENGLISH WOMAN-BURNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since the *Nation* is making an *enquête* (after the fashion of *Mélusine*) on this topic, I send you the following item, which I take from the *Yorkshire Notes and Queries* for October, 1888, p. 1.:

"The general gaol delivery of our Lord the King of his county of York, held at the Castle of York, 9 March 16 George III. [1775], before Sir Henry Gould, Knight, John Aspinal, Esq., etc., Giles Earle, Esq., High Sheriff.

"Elisabeth Boardingham, late wife of John Boardingham, guilty Petty Treason. To be drawn upon a hurdle to the place of execution on Wednesday next, the 20th Day of this instant March, and there to be burned with fire until dead."

The editor of *Yorkshire Notes and Queries* says: "The above is copied from a printed folio page addressed to Mr. Waugh, keeper of the House of Correction, who held the post from 1766 to 1794"; and he adds, "the last case of burning to death probably."

H. GAIDOZ.

PARIS, 22 RUE SERVANDONI.

AMERICAN NEGRO-BURNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I enclose an item, apropos of the subject of execution by burning, from the *Arkansas Gazette* of September 3, which does not, apparently, consider it of sufficient importance for editorial comment. It would be interest-

ing to know the views of "A Southern Pastor" on the comparative merits of burning and hanging in such cases.—Respectfully,

W. L. WORCESTER.

LITTLE ROCK, ARK., September 4, 1889.

[We retain the *Gazette's* head-lines, but substitute for the statement of facts a more decent version which we find in another paper.—ED. NATION.]

A RAPIST COOKED.

KENTUCKY PEOPLE AVENGE AN OUTRAGE IN SUMMARY BUT BARBARIC STYLE.

LOUISVILLE, September 3.—The *Courier-Journal* has a despatch from Somerset, Ky., which says that Wm. Oates, a prominent farmer residing a few miles from Monticello, has two daughters, aged respectively twelve and fourteen years. Mr. and Mrs. Oates going away on business left the two young girls in charge of the house. Mr. Oates had in his employ a negro boy almost grown. He entered the house, and, after locking the door upon the two young girls, assaulted the youngest. The other escaped, and, going to a neighbor's house, gave the alarm. A posse was immediately organized. The negro was caught in the woods and tied to a stake. A rail pen was then built around him, coal oil was poured over him and upon the rails, a match was applied, and he was burned to death.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your kindness in giving so much space in your valuable paper to "Correspondence" deserves many thanks from your subscribers.

The different opposing views of cultivated men are great lessons to the thinking reader, and show how some men of the finest mental texture can be carried to the extreme of wrong simply from the habit of seeing the wrong from childhood, and considering it a "necessary evil." Is it not atrocious that a minister of "Christ's Gospel" should speak in defence of one of the greatest crimes of this age—lynch law—no matter from what side he views it? Mr. Schuyler is perfectly right, and I hope he has the sympathy of all those Christians who truly understand the sublime principles of "Christianity." EDWARD MAYERHOFER.

YONKERS, N. Y., September 6, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Pardon me for further trespass on your space, but the interests of truth demand it, and this shall be my last word. Mr. Schuyler's caricature of my position is a *petitio principii*. If all killing were wrong, as all stealing is wrong, his analogy would hold good; but that is the very point in debate. Carried to its logical consequences, Mr. Schuyler's argument would deny the right of revolution on which our Government is founded, the right of defensive war, and even the righteousness of capital punishment by law. The question is simply this: Is there any emergency that can justify a man or a community or a people in taking life without process of law? Mr. Schuyler, it would seem, thinks not; but the common judgment of mankind and the word of God answer in the affirmative. Whether the case in point is such an emergency admits of serious debate; good men differ widely about it; it has caused me grave perplexity. But there are conditions under which the safety of society seems to demand it. I rejoice to hope that those conditions are gradually disappearing, and that, under the elevating influences of Christian education, they will soon disappear altogether. A SOUTHERN PASTOR.

WILMINGTON, N. C., September 7, 1889.

PREHISTORIC SICILY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just received a note from Prof. Orsi of the museum at Syracuse, saying that he has found in a Siculian tomb in the vicinity of Syracuse two vases of the second or third style of "Mycenean" pottery. This is interesting as showing that the Siculi had, in all probability, commercial relations with the Greek isles before the Greek colonization of that locality. As there were found at Orvieto, in tombs not older than the sixth or seventh century, ordinary vases of the Mycenean description, there is nothing chronologically surprising in this, but it is another item in the evidence which goes to show that, as indicated by some traditions, there was a Greek colonization of a less aggressive type than that of Syracuse, Naxos, etc., and prior to it. This would account for the Greek character of Segesta, of whose foundation, indeed, one tradition speaks as having been the work of a band of Greeks returning from Troy under the leadership of a Trojan chieftain. In none of the Siculian tombs has there been any pottery of the Greek type found hitherto, and as the provenance of the Mycenean is not determined, though almost certainly to be assigned to some of the Greek islands, this negative evidence is in favor of the find of Prof. Orsi being anterior to the establishment of the Greeks as masters in that part of Sicily. In the tombs of Orvieto the Mycenean pottery is found in company with Attic.

In matters so difficult of determination as the prehistoric relation of races, these trifling indications are always of value, cumulatively if not individually.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

PIEVE DI CADORE, August 25, 1889.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The friends of the American School in Athens hope that you may kindly grant space for a letter written for the purpose of interesting your readers in its plans. This school was founded, has been carried on for seven years, and provided with a fine edifice, a permanent director, of European reputation as an archæologist, Dr. Waldstein, and an endowment fund of over fifty thousand dollars, through the efforts and sacrifices of a few liberal-minded people, chiefly in Boston and New York. Of the thirty pupils thus far, four have been women. All instruction is free, and the library is open to all Americans in the city. The object is to encourage the study of ancient art, architecture, topography, and all related branches best pursued on the soil of Greece.

It is not too much to say that this school is already playing its part in the revolution of American scholarship. Narrow book-learning is giving place to a many-sided study of the ancient life. There are two facts which add a special charm to these comparatively novel lines of work: First, new and valuable additions are made every year to our materials. Such excavations as those at Olympia or Pergamon tell us much that could not be learned from any other source. It would be difficult to name any lost literary work whose recovery would add so much to our knowledge. Second, these statues, temple-remains, etc., come to us, not, like our manuscripts of the ancient authors, through a succession of mediæval copyists, but directly from the ancient masters' hands. The Hermes, emerging from the drifted sands of the Alpheios, bears the marks of Praxiteles's chisel. The blocks of the Parthenon were swung into their present position under Phidias's own eye.

There is, moreover, a practical side to such efforts as these of the American School and its supporters which may well recommend them to our countrymen. There can be no better influences brought to bear upon our own artists and architects than a close acquaintance with and study of the still unrivalled productions of Greek masters. Not that we desire to rear a generation of mere copyists, even copyists of Phidias and Praxiteles; but the museums of Athens, and the temples there and throughout Greek lands, cannot fail to educate the hand and eye, as well as elevate the moral sense, of every thoughtful art-student who is so fortunate as to put himself under their influences. Especially, the materials are constantly accumulating for an adequate historical view of the gradual artistic progress in ancient Greece—the slow but successful struggle of the creative genius of a race against the crudeness of its own conceptions and the resistance of stone and bronze. The archaic and early classical works are perhaps even more instructive than the seemingly effortless triumphs of the Golden Age; just as Giotto seems more fully one like ourselves, struggling and learning, than does Raphael or Titian. There could be no more practical way of improving the arts of design in America than to send our most promising graduates to develop the historical sense, and the full consciousness of our debt to earlier races, by a year or two spent in the classic lands.

As your readers are aware, an opportunity has now been offered to the American School to undertake a task of world-wide interest and of the greatest importance. Delphi will be excavated soon in any case, by some other nation if not by ourselves. The failure of our Institute to secure the aid for which it asks will, therefore, not be a fatal misfortune to the scientific world, but it will be an irreparable loss to us. It is evident that the work at Delphi, and the proper publication of what will be discovered there, would tax the highest powers of our classical scholars and of Humanists generally for a decade at least, and form the best possible training-school for a whole generation of American students—such a school as Olympia has been for the Germans.

It would be a lasting disgrace to our national intelligence if this enterprise should fail for lack of a sum so trifling, as compared with the result to be obtained by its expenditure—a sum often spent on a single banquet or a single picture. Yet it would not be strange if its success should depend on the small contributions of liberal-minded and thoughtful men of limited means. The original founders of the school have been heavily taxed already. It is not certain that our rich fellow-citizens generally will see the lasting value and patriotic character of so unbusiness-like an investment. It is to be hoped, therefore, that none will be deterred merely by modesty from offering a small sum for the work. Subscriptions may be sent to Percival Lowell, Treasurer, No. 40 Water Street, Boston.

Even an expression of hearty interest and good-will is most welcome. It is the desire of the Institute to make this undertaking a source of national pride and instruction, not a mere pet project of classical scholars. In this secondary, but equally important task, the members of the Institute appeal for and count confidently upon the aid of all educated men and women, of all who feel the dangerous isolation of our national life and our young civilization. We need, more than any other people, to be reminded of our debt to other lands and races than ours. We have received from them nearly everything that makes human life attractive. We may still learn much from them as to the higher uses of existence. Perhaps we need above all to learn true humility—to see

that in the fair harvest-fields of the world's life others have sown that we may reap.

WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON,
Secretary to the Delphi Committee.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' list of fall publications includes 'A Midsummer Drive through the Pyrenees,' by Edwin Asa Dix; 'The Land of the Viking and the Empire of the Tsar,' by E. Frazer Blackstock; 'In the Time of the Cherry Viewing: A Tale of Life in Japan'; 'Liberty and a Living; or, Working and Playing on the Great South Bay,' by Philip G. Hubert, jr.; 'The Letters of Horace Walpole,' a selection edited by Charles D. Yonge; 'The Constitutional History of the United States, as Seen in the Development of American Law,' being papers by Judge Cooley, Henry Hitchcock, Geo. W. Biddle, Chas. A. Kent, and D. H. Chamberlain; and the following verse: 'Epithalamium,' by Mary Mathew Barnes; 'The New Pandora: A Drama,' by Harriett H. Robinson; and 'Day Lilies, and Other Poems,' by Jeanie Oliver Smith.

'Familiar Talks on Astronomy,' by Capt. W. H. Parker; 'Musical Moments,' a collection of poetical passages relating to music, both natural and instrumental; and 'Theresa at San Domingo,' a child's story of the negro revolt on that island in 1789, translated from the French of Mme. Fresneau, are among the forthcoming publications of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

The Rev. David J. Reynolds of Jamaica, a Wesleyan minister, contemplates preparing for the press a small volume upon the 'Proverbial Philosophy and Folk-lore of West Indian Africans.' Mr. Reynolds has lectured with notable success upon Jamaica Proverbs. He is a master of his subject.

Mr. J. J. Thomas, the author of 'Froudacity,' which is a counterblast to Mr. Froude's 'English in the West Indies,' is a native of the Island of Trinidad, in the British West Indies. He is a black man of pure African race. For years he was a schoolmaster, and he was Secretary to the Board of Education of that colony when, from failing eyesight, he felt bound to retire on a pension from the Government. He is about fifty-five years of age. He is known as the author of a 'Creole Grammar,' a philological work of some value, treating of the French *patois* spoken in Trinidad and other places. A second edition of this work is now being got out by Mr. Thomas.

We have received from the *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company a lecture on "West Indian Hurricanes and the March Blizzard, 1888," by Everett Hayden of the U. S. Hydrographic Office. The handsomely printed quarto pamphlet is illustrated by twenty-three plates—maps, charts, and diagrams; including an example of the use of oil in rough weather to prevent the breaking of seas on board. The lecture was delivered before a yacht club in these waters, and every yachtsman would find it valuable in its present shape.

A British geography in which "each country has been looked at from the standpoint of a native," and not treated with reference to "its importance to the British nation," is a novelty. Such is Hugh Robert Mill's 'Elementary Class-Book of Geography' (Macmillan). It deserves attention for its scheme, and may be helpful as an adjunct to our poor text-books in this branch of common-school study. A friendly American colaborer would have saved some errors and disproportions in the section on the United States. For example, on p. 258 it is quite recklessly stated that "the Indians of the States are neither so numerous nor so independent as those of Canada." The fact is, however, that they are at least three times as numerous; those of Canada in 1881 being set down at only 108,547.

Buyers and sellers have been chiefly in the mind of Mr. Thomas Savage in preparing his 'Manual of Industrial and Commercial Intercourse between the United States and Spanish America' (San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.). Mr. Savage was for a long period in the United States consular service in Spanish America. By the use of fine type, he has compressed a great deal of statistical and general information into some 600 pages, and has produced a very valuable book of reference, with a manifest endeavor to see and to set down things as they exist. Tourists as well as merchants may profit by the use of it. Doubtless it will be kept up to date in successive editions, with the changing of tariffs, the multiplication of railroads, etc. There are three outline maps of the United States, Mexico, and South America.

Mr. Spurgeon has for twenty years edited a "sheet almanack intended to be hung up in workshops and kitchens." It is called "John Ploughman's Almanack," and he has furnished it with a proverb for every day. These he has felt moved to make into a book, 'The Salt-Cellars' (A. C. Armstrong & Son). The "godly sentiments" have been "sandwiched in between slices of wit and common-sense," and "thus has the salt itself been salted"—in Mr. Spurgeon's opinion. The effect of accompanying proverbs with a cheap exposition ("homely notes") has generally been to destroy their flavor altogether. It seems to us to be not otherwise in the present instance, the title of the book notwithstanding.

Mr. Robert Grimshaw's 'Hints on House-Building' (New York: Practical Publishing Co.) is an unpretentious little book which has been sufficiently appreciated to justify a second and enlarged edition. It will repay reading. The suggestions are plain and practical.

In the summer of 1887 the Associated Charities for the Eighth Ward of Boston induced Prof. Dwight Porter of the Institute of Technology to investigate the sanitary condition of the tenement-house system there. This study gradually embraced the worst parts of the city at large, and Prof. Porter's report, not made until December, 1888, has just reached us in print. It is the old story of excessive overcrowding, of insufficient ventilation or none, of arrangements for the disposal of waste that become instead depots of destruction, with the necessary consequences of preventable disease and death. The report contains two reproductions of photographs, an interior and an alley, several plans of buildings, good and bad, and illustrations of grossly defective sewerage from actual cases. The distress and suffering from sickness that does not terminate in death, and the discomfort and misery that nominal health undergoes in such quarters, are not easily computed. But fortunately every year shows amelioration, and the abounding and intelligent charity that brings to light these evils at the same time lessens them. This is not done by the demoralization of giving, but by judicious control of the house-owners. The report also contains valuable information as to the Tenement-House Problem in New York, where the evil is greater and the progress better than in Boston. In both cities it is chiefly the lowest of foreign immigrants that wallow in this slough.

The American Historical Association was incorporated by Congress at the beginning of the present year, its seat being fixed at Washington, and a helpful connection with the Smithsonian Institution being established. It therefore takes its place at the capital beside the National Geographic Society and the National Academy of Science. Its membership exceeds five hundred. The proceedings of the meeting held in Washington in December, 1888, have now been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Besides the summary report of the Secretary, Prof. Herbert B. Adams, eleven papers are printed in full, in which the share of the West is noticeable; *e. g.*, "The Early Northwest," by Wm. F. Poole; "The Influence of Gov. Cass on the Development of the Northwest," by Prof. A. C. McLaughlin; "The Place of the Northwest in General History," by Prof. Wm. F. Allen; "Internal Improvements in Ohio, 1825–1850," by Chas. N. Morris. Of these the second and the last are in the nature of original and very valuable contributions to American history. Prof. Welling's "States'-Rights Conflict over the Public Lands" is in line with the foregoing; and so is Willard Clark Fisher's "American Trade Regulations before 1789." Douglas Brymner's account of his reducing to order the Canadian Archives is stimulating. The extra-continental paper is Mr. Henry C. Lea's on "The Martyrdom of San Pedro Arbués." The volume is well worth the price, and it suggests the near approach of the time when the Association shall give us an historical journal that will connect itself with the life and growth of the nation.

We have received the first number of *Haverford College Studies*, published by the Faculty of that institution, and obtainable of the Secretary at Haverford College P. O., Pa. It contains five articles: "The Library of the Convent of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem," by J. Rendel Harris; "Work of Haverford College Observatory," by Francis P. Leavenworth; "On the Geometry of a Nodal Circular Cubic," by Frank Morley; "On the Period of the Rotation of the Sun," by Henry Crew; and "On the Symbolic Use of the Colors Black and White in Germanic Tradition," by Francis B. Gummere. The last paper is the only one that can be enjoyed by the general reader along with scholars and specialists. Mr. Gummere concludes that the usage in question is mixed and inconsistent.

At Como in June, on occasion of the dedication of a monument to Garibaldi, was published a trial bibliography of the patriot ('Saggio Bibliografico del gen. Giuseppe Garibaldi'), preceded by a chronology of the principal events in his life. A revised edition is promised shortly.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have followed the example of several other houses in issuing a literary bulletin, which they call *New Publications* (No. 1, August, 1889).

The *English Illustrated Magazine* (Macmillan) begins a new volume with the October number, and will then be enlarged in size and printed from new type in a single broad column. Its American readers, who have been increasing, will be specially catered for.

A new domestic candidate for favor is the *New England Magazine* ("new series"), issued in Boston this month under the editorial management of the Rev. E. E. Hale and Mr. Edwin D. Mead. It "will be devoted especially to New England life and history, although this in no narrow or provincial spirit." The first number is purposely a Plymouth and Pilgrim number, and abounds in readable articles by well-known writers and in illustrations. A sonnet, "Character," by Lucy C. Bull, is the sole poetical contribution, and if the editors can be as sparing hereafter while maintaining

the level of this example, they will usefully criticise the practice of their esteemed contemporaries.

The final report on the geology of New Jersey of the State Geological Survey, now in course of publication, has, as our readers know, a completed first volume. For the second, it is in contemplation to illustrate the botany of the State, in connection with full lists of minerals, plants, and animals. The finer shade and timber trees are to be figured, and it is quite possible for amateur photographers, whose name is now legion, to assist the Survey materially by the loan or gift of portraits of notable native trees, with the necessary indications as to name, place, etc. They may be addressed to Prof. Geo. H. Cook, State Geologist, New Brunswick, N. J.

—The fourth of Mr. J. C. Pilling's bibliographies of aboriginal North American languages has been published by the Bureau of Ethnology (Washington: Government Printing Office). It deals with the Muskhogean languages, including Alabama, Chikasaw, Choctaw, Creek, Hitchiti, Koassati, Mikasuki, Muskoki, and Seminole, and records 521 titles. 467 of the entries describe printed matter and 54 describe manuscripts. Of the prints more than 80 per cent. and nearly as large a proportion of the manuscripts have been seen and described by the compiler himself. The failure of this bibliography to reach the high average, over 94 per cent., of *de visu* descriptions, reached by the preceding 'Bibliography of the Iroquoian Languages,' is due, for the most part, to the large number of Muskoki titles inserted from the *Indian Journal*, of which Mr. Pilling was unable to see a complete file. The present descriptions of books, on the other hand, are somewhat more elaborate than in the previous numbers of the series. Another commendable feature of this number is the frequent biographical sketches of authors whose works are recorded. In cases like those of the Rev. C. C. Copeland, Mrs. A. E. W. Robertson, Alfred Wright and his wife, and other missionaries, or of Legus Choteau Perryman, principal chief of the Muskokees and many others, these details are especially valuable because they are based on authentic materials and the information is not elsewhere accessible. But it is at least doubtful whether long sketches of such well-known persons as Chateaubriand, Elias Boudinot, E. B. O'Callaghan, and William Bartram—men whose linguistic writings were, in the main, only incidental to their other activities—should be reproduced from an every-day book of reference like 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography.' In his 'Bibliography of the Algonquian Languages,' which is announced as the next of the series, Mr. Pilling may well content himself with a condensed account and a reference for those authors whose lives have been already written at length in substantial volumes or well-known periodicals or biographical dictionaries. Thus room will be made for lives of the comparatively obscure authors whose efforts were confined to the field with which the bibliography deals, and whose careers must remain unknown unless some specialist, for instance Mr. Pilling, publishes in some appropriate place, for instance, the 'Bibliography of the Algonquian Languages,' the sketches which he enjoys exceptional facilities for compiling.

—"Endowments" is the title of an address delivered last year before the College Association of Pennsylvania, which seems to us of enough permanent value and interest to deserve a word of notice even at this somewhat late day. Its author is Dr. J. G. Fitch, one of Her Majesty's Chief Inspectors of Schools, and lately an Assistant Commissioner under the Endowed Schools Act. As an official, Dr. Fitch has seen much of the evils wrought by endowments in England, which are great enough, he thinks, quite to justify Turgot's strong condemnation of them in the 'Encyclopédie' more than a century ago. Charitable foundations have demoralized the poor in many places, sowing seeds of improvidence and favoring hypocrisy and immorality. They have narrowed education, and hindered its growth and diffusion; have repressed originality and discouraged effort. Any gain that has come from them has been dearly bought. Dr. Fitch would rid men's minds, so far as is possible, of the superstition that cherishes and keeps alive the vanities of founders, and their useless restrictions that hamper many bequests, and would have endowments, or at least their income, put to use by a living, and not a dead hand. He would also have the State assert for itself the two-fold right of a private legatee: (1) to judge whether the conditions attached to a gift are such as to make it worth accepting, and (2) to spend the income of the endowment in the way the State deems best for its own interest and needs. All this and much more those who are interested in the subject will find set forth forcibly and with illustrations in Dr. Fitch's address, which is published by the Globe Printing House of Philadelphia.

—No historian bespeaks keener interest than does Polybius of Megalopolis for his patriotic and spotless character, his personal sufferings, his careful study of authorities, his rigid adherence to truth, and his deep and sound philosophy. Every one who has to write on the struggle between Rome and the nations she subdued in the time of the Scipios must appeal to him as a supreme authority. And yet this good man and great writer—for such beyond all doubt he was—is well-nigh unreadable. Livy practically translates him—he comes dangerously near mistranslating him; yet it is a delight to read Livy, it is a penance to read Polybius. It is singular, therefore, as Mr. E. S. Shuckburgh tells us, that there was no English translation of him entire. This he has given us, with a learned and valuable introduction, in two very handsome volumes ('The Histories of Polybius,' Macmillan). Having tested his translation in several places chosen at random, we are prepared to say that its accuracy in rendering all the matter contained in each sentence of the original, and no more, is what all who know Mr. Shuckburgh's sound and varied scholarship would be led to expect. If it does seem at times that he has ravelled out and reknit Polybius into rather too light and loose a fabric, we can only say, "Try it yourself." Any one who thinks he can reproduce the texture of the original—we are using one of Polybius's own metaphors—will find that if the pattern is sometimes striking, the fabric is, in every respect, uncommonly *tough*, and he will feel grateful to Mr. Shuckburgh for some attenuation.

—Professor Stürenberg of Leipzig, well known for his researches in the topography of ancient battle-fields, has recently published a programme (of the Leipzig Thomasschule) entitled "Zu den Schlachtfeldern am Trasimenischen See und in den Caudinischen Pässen." Both essays are supplementary, since he regards the main question, that of the locality of the battle-grounds in general, as being now well determined. In an earlier essay he had decided for the plain of Tuoro, on the north shore of Lake Trasimenus, which is evidently the place that Livy had in mind. The present discussion is to show, in reply to Faltin, that although the locality described by Polybius is impossible, and in fact does not exist, we need not, nevertheless, discard entirely Polybius's account of the fight. Apart from his mistake in representing the Romans to have marched up a narrow defile with their backs to the lake, Stürenberg maintains that Polybius's account of the battle is essentially correct, and in fact fits much better in the true field of battle than in the one imagined by himself. In the other essay he assumes it as settled that the place where the Roman army was entrapped was the valley of Montesarchio, which town is on the site of the ancient Caudium. The question discussed is, by what route it entered this valley. Nissen holds that it was by the way of Santa Agata de' Goti, while Stürenberg argues for the valley of Arienzo. This valley used to be considered the place of the ambuscade, although the entrance to it does not at all correspond to Livy's description. But at Arpaja, at the upper end of the valley, is a regular pass or gap, and the village of Forchia, at this very point, warrants us in placing here the Furculæ Caudinæ. The mistake of the old tradition was in placing the trap on the wrong side of the pass. According to Stürenberg's view, the Romans had already passed the Forks and made their way through the valley of Caudium to the pass beyond, which opens into the valley of Beneventum. This they found occupied by the enemy.

— We learn with regret from the latest English papers of the death of the Rev. Dr. Samuel Beal, Professor of Chinese at University College, London, on August 20, at the age of sixty-four. He was a graduate of Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1847, and, five years later, was appointed to a chaplaincy in the Royal Navy. This led to his serving during the China war of 1856-58, when he was found qualified to be an interpreter, and proved of singular usefulness in this capacity. He retired from the navy in 1877, and was elected to the chair of Chinese in University College, holding also several livings during his professorship—the last at Greens Norton, Towcester, Northamptonshire, where he died. His Oriental studies resulted in a long list of distinguished publications, and were specially directed towards Buddhism, Prof. Beal "being the first Englishman (following in the steps of Rémusat and Julien) to translate direct from the Chinese the records of Buddhism in that country, which throw such a flood of light upon the dark period of Indian history." For the past ten years Prof. Beal has been a valued contributor to the *Nation*. In his reviews and his private correspondence his amiability and scholarly integrity were most apparent, and have left to the writer of these lines a pleasant memory.

—A volume of much interest to students of the Second Empire is announced for publication in Paris next November. This is a selection from the letters and papers of the Duc de Morny, who was one of the most unscrupulous of the Ministers of Napoleon III., and was also perhaps the ablest of them. He left a great mass of letters and documents, running back to the year 1830, to his son, the present Duke, who has spent the last four years in the study and arrangement of them, and the preparation of a portion of them for the press. He proposes to print documents and letters only, without a word of editorial comment, and, as many readers will be disappointed to hear, everything that is in any degree scandalous will be left out. There are to be no merely personal letters included in the two volumes, nor anything that can be called polemic. No

doubt the time will come when much that is held back at present will be given to the world. It must have been a temptation to the present Duc de Morny to have such a bomb-shell in his hands as his father's papers were, and so tempting a target before him as the present situation in France presents. He could very likely have furnished some very interesting information about men still active in politics and society, and perhaps have spoiled some fairly good reputations. But he has done wisely in refraining, we should say, whether he is moved thereto by expediency or by some higher consideration. He is to make his own first appearance in politics this fall, as the revisionist candidate in the district of Puy-de-Dôme, which twice was represented by his father.

THOMSON'S TRAVELS IN MOROCCO.

Travels in the Atlas and Southern Morocco. A Narrative of Exploration. By Joseph Thomson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xviii, 488.

Mr. Joseph Thomson won his spurs as an African traveller ten years ago, when a very young man, by successfully conducting an expedition to the Lakes. This was followed by an adventurous journey through Masai-Land and another in the western Sudan, which have confirmed his reputation as one of the most daring of modern explorers. In some respects his last exploit in scaling the Atlas Mountains was the most difficult and dangerous of all his undertakings. He was heavily handicapped from the outset by the Sultan's passport, which expressly forbade his travelling in the mountains, as well as by the determined opposition of his Moorish servants to his plans and by his inability to speak Arabic. That he was able, notwithstanding these obstacles, to cross the Atlas by two different passes, and to climb several of the higher peaks, was certainly an extraordinary achievement.

Still, while we admire his pluck and pertinacity, we can hardly recommend his methods, for it was only by systematically deceiving the lesser officials, in most cases, that he could make his way into the wilder parts of the country. Now, wholly apart from the moral objections to this course, the consequences to the European traveller who may follow him may be very serious. Some of those sheiks who innocently suffered him to go through their districts, contrary to the express commands of the Sultan, may have paid a severe penalty for their disobedience, and will be likely to make it very disagreeable, if not dangerous, for the next European who comes within their power. There is no question that Bishop Hannington's murder was occasioned by the alarm of the King of Uganda at this very Mr. Thomson's success in reaching the Victoria Nyanza in his second journey. So, without any fear of such a tragedy as this, we are strongly inclined to believe that, for a time, he has rendered Morocco more inaccessible than ever.

He landed at Tangier in March, 1888, where he was obliged to wait several weeks for the "Sharifian Umbrella," or passport. But the real starting-point of his expedition was Mogador, on the Atlantic coast, which he reached partly by sea and partly by land. This preliminary land journey was mainly over a treeless plain, without streams, where there was to be seen "nothing but rounded low ridges, or even more monotonous flat expanses, varied only by waving corn, dark-green bush tracts, or gorgeous flower-reaches." In places progress was rendered dangerous by "the manner in which the country Arabs store not only their food, but their water supplies. Pits having the shape of champagne bottles are dug in the easily-worked shell-sand, and then cemented inside to keep out the damp when filled with grain, or to keep in the water when filled with water, the former being called *metamores* and the latter *mitfires*." For long stretches the country was literally honeycombed with these pits, old and new. It was not till the end of May that Mr. Thomson was able to reach the mountains. This was at Demnat, a small town about sixty miles to the eastward of the city of Morocco. The approach to this place was by a bridle-path "arched over by fruit-trees and walled in by bush and flower and creeper, growing to right and left with all the gipsy grace, wild beauty, and prodigal profusion of the tropics. It had all such a homelike aspect, too, for the pomegranates and figs were literally smothered under the glorious wreaths of wild rose and honeysuckle which broke through them and spread themselves over their every branch, till nothing was seen but rich masses of odoriferous flowers." Once within the fortified gateway, however, and "all the sweet charms of nature were shut out. We threaded garbage-strewn streets hemmed in by mean, mud-built dwellings." The town, notwithstanding this, wore a certain air of prosperity, there being few ruined houses and still fewer beggars. Nor is this to be wondered at in a place where a family can live on fivepence a day, with meat at two meals. The natives are Berbers, or Shellach, as they are called here, who seemed to occupy an "intermediate place between the Moor and the Arab." They showed none of the hostility of the true Moor to the infidel, but, on the contrary, manifested delight at seeing the party. Their women, too, regardless of the express injunctions of the Koran, went about the streets unveiled.

Far different from the Medinah, or Mohammedan quarter, was the Mellah, or Jewish quarter. Here everything was unspeakably repulsive from filth and disease. "No family, however large, occupied more than one small windowless room, though frequently several families are huddled together like pigs in a poke." These rooms, in two stories, are built around courts some fifteen feet square, which serve at once for the "common family sewers, general reception and workrooms for the women, and happy playgrounds of the children," as well as stables for their animals. The consequence is, that about 80 per cent. of the Jews suffer from ophthalmia. This condition is now the result neither of compulsion nor of poverty. They are not obliged to live in the Mellah, and are, as a class, richer than the Moors, who live in clean streets and wholesome houses.

Another indication of the prosperity of Demnat was a dam thrown across a stream to store the water for irrigating purposes, "the only modern public work raised for the general good of the community which we saw in southern Morocco." At a little distance above this the river flowed under a magnificent natural arch some 140 feet high. "Stalactites of all sizes and shapes hung from the roof in rugged yellow pendants, and the irregular walls were adorned with clustered pillars of stalagmite and other mouldings of Nature's workmanship." Climbing to the top, it was found that the arch was used not only as a highway, but also as an aqueduct by which another stream was conveyed across the glen.

As Mr. Thomson found it impossible to penetrate the mountains at this point, he made a second and successful attempt from a town to the westward. The way was by a bridle path, difficult, and in many places dangerous, through a savage and mostly desolate region. As the summit of the pass was approached, "we could have imagined we were penetrating some gigantic volcanic crater by way of a great rut or fissure through its lava and cinder-built sides." The view southward from the top was impressive though disappointing. A level plain, without a single conspicuous feature, lay stretched out before them, while "an even more deadly uniformity characterized the coloring of this mournful landscape." A surprise awaited our traveller, however, at the foot of the pass, in finding the abode of the Kaid of the district "a magnificent and imposing castle of the old baronial style. We could hardly believe our eyes as we scanned the turreted walls, the crenelated battlements, the fortified gateways and outer lines which rose before us with such a princely air of military strength and glory." Here, in the very heart of an unexplored territory, a week was spent. The chapters descriptive of life in this Moorish stronghold, the dances in the court, the banquet, the interviews with the Kaid and his principal men, are among the best in the book.

Although courteously treated so long as he remained within the castle or among its retainers, the opposition to Mr. Thomson's further progress was so determined and dangerous that he was obliged reluctantly to retrace his steps. Crossing to the northern slope of the central chain, he proceeded westward, seeking another point from which he might again penetrate to the higher mountain region. On the way he fell in with an Aissawa, or snake-charmer, whose repulsive performance is described in a realistic manner. We have only space for the closing feat, performed in the evening when the men were seated about the camp fire. From the centre of the glowing embers the Aissawa "drew forth a piece of charcoal, held it—I will not say coolly—between the tips of his fingers, while he blew it to a white heat; then, with a preliminary 'Bismillah!' he calmly put it into his mouth, and leisurely munched, then swallowed it, with evident signs of enjoyment, while the Moors broke into cries of 'Allah Akbar!' (God is great!)"

This part of the Atlas was less disappointing than the region which he had just left. The mountains were more irregular in shape, while the streams which flowed from them were bordered with fine groves of walnut, oak, almond, and other trees. Here Mr. Thomson managed to elude his guards, and, after a dangerous and exciting climb, reached the summit of Jebel Ogdimt, 12,734 feet above the sea, being the first explorer to gain such a height. The principal feature in the scene before him was "the wall-like grandeur of the Anti-Atlas, which ran seaward, a southern bounding barrier to the great Sus plain. Hardly a prominence broke the almost even level of its summit, hardly a spur jutted from its stern precipitous sides."

These cool heights were now exchanged for the sultry air of the city of Morocco, where the latter half of the summer was spent with a thermometer ranging from 68° to 112°. It was a life marked with interesting incidents, the most exciting being a narrow escape when attacked by a mob during the "powder-play" at a great festival. Hardly less dangerous than the Moors were the numerous ruinous houses. "There are few days without a disastrous catastrophe, and every squall or strong breeze which crosses the city leaves behind it ruined houses and people buried beneath them."

Before leaving for the coast, Mr. Thomson made a final dash into the heart of the Atlas, and climbed another peak, which he found to

be 13,150 feet high. But these ascents were so dangerous, from the fierce opposition of the mountaineers, that he did not dare to attack the neighboring peak, Tizi-n-Tamjurt, which rose some 2,000 feet higher, and is probably the loftiest in the range. His route to the ocean was along the northern slope of the mountains to the point where they sink down to the level of the great plateau of which a considerable portion of southern Morocco consists. Here he turned southward, and made his way unmolested through the turbulent and rebellious district of Sus to the port of Agadir.

It is difficult after reading Mr. Thomson's lively and very entertaining account of his journey to see what attractions Morocco presents to the traveller. Of striking natural beauty it is singularly destitute, the region about Demnat alone excepted; even the mountain scenery being disappointing as regards picturesqueness and grandeur. The ancient ruins are few and unimportant. There is no mention of wild animals except the boar. The people, with a reservation in regard to the Berbers of Demnat, were uniformly repulsive, both Moors and Jews. The effect of the frightful oppression under which they lived was evident at every step. The further Mr. Thomson went and the more he saw, the deeper was his impression that the country was the worst governed in the world. He aptly describes the Government as a "huge blood-sucking octopus," which is "pushing its horrible feelers" even into every remotest mountain village, and draining its life-blood. One cannot resist the conviction that the ruling class is the worst and most hopeless race upon earth; and they seem incapable of reform. Even the Moors of Tangier, who have been for generations in daily contact with western civilization, are unaffected by its influences. "Nowhere can one see the slightest evidence that the Moor's dress, his manners and customs, his ideas, religious or secular, or any other aspect of his life, have been modified in the slightest degree."

The only persons, in fact, for whom Mr. Thomson has a good word were his Jewish guides, whose courage and faithfulness alone enabled him to accomplish what he did. It is, perhaps, the chief defect of his book that it dwells too constantly upon the hatred of the Moor for the "Nazarene." The detailed description of the constant misconduct of his servants also becomes very wearisome. Some of the illustrations are very good, but others give little idea of the scenes which they are intended to represent. The map is not very clearly drawn, and has apparently been prepared in great haste, the errors in spelling being numerous.

THE FIFTIETH-ANNIVERSARY EDITION OF 'FESTUS.'

Festus, a Poem. By Philip James Bailey. Fiftieth-Anniversary Edition. George Routledge & Sons.

CHARLES LAMB objected to brandy and water on the plausible ground that it "spoiled two good things," and it is certain that the sagacious distiller of high-proof spirits does not reissue his wares after half a century's keeping, diluting them with three parts water to one part brandy. This is, however, the very thing which the author of 'Festus' has done. Not content with remoulding it line by line, and transposing the passages thus handled without regard to previous arrangement, he has fearlessly "extended," as the book-fanciers say, a poem of 10,000 lines into a poem of 40,000 and left it, thus enlarged, as a bequest to posterity. A feat more daring was never done in literature; and when we consider that the expansion is always in the direction of a graver treatment, scarcely a new point of relief or relaxation coming in, and some such points being struck out, the daring becomes more apparent. In the original poem the scenes were too long, and the conversations between Festus and Lucifer too weighty; but the scenes are now much longer, and the discourse between these two personages occupies nearly half a volume of 794 pages. A single soliloquy by Festus fills thirty-eight pages (pp. 281-319), and covers about two thousand lines of rhymed verse. It shows an extraordinary hopefulness of spirit to suppose that so heavily freighted a barque can be launched for another voyage of fifty years.

There are a good many still living who were in a manner contemporaries with this once famous poem, and can recall the time when it was regarded as a successful bid for immortality. In the early days of Browning's 'Paracelsus,' Margaret Fuller wrote of that poem in the New York *Tribune* that it was "an interpretation of the age less penetrating than 'Faust' or 'Festus.'" She was one of the most ardent Goetheans of the time, and this linking together in conceded position of two books which would now seem so unequal in merit, affords the best illustration of the changed relations of Mr. Bailey's poem within fifty years. Yet the remarkable thing about the book is not so much that it should have lost ground in half-a-century as that it should still retain, after that interval, ground enough to stand upon. Perhaps the fact that the writer himself has survived for that length of time may have something to do with the case. It is a great thing when an author lives to look after his own children, and to secure that fame which comes, as the French saying is, from a prolonged patience in living. This suggests an advantage in early authorship, and we have Mr. Bailey's own assurance that, when the original work was begun, "not twenty summers had embrowned" his brow. This statement he wrote in 1839, three years later, and he is now, in fact, in his seventy-fourth year. He has had other literary ventures, but this is his life's work, and he reissues it quadrupled in size, perhaps from the same motive which led Wordsworth to print his 'White Doe of Rylstone' in quarto, to mark his own appreciation of its value.

Though the original poem is thus swamped in increased dimensions, the author has fortunately left untouched many of those striking lines and passages which gave it its first repute. Théophile Gautier says that, however mediocre a literary work may be, if it becomes suddenly famous, we can commonly detect afterwards the grounds of the notoriety; and a rereading of 'Festus' takes us back to the sense of vigor and illumination which its best passages afforded in its early days. No doubt the author aimed at much besides this fragmentary excellence, and held certain views which the poem was supposed to present as a collective work. In America these opinions doubtless contributed to the vogue of the book, for it pleased the Universalist denomination, a large and widespread body. But the real interest of a long poem is rarely found in its plot or argument. No one cares, for instance, for the plot of Keats's 'Hyperion,' while his 'Endymion' has no plot at all. The charm is in the passages, the quotable extracts; and though it is now evident that 'Festus' had by no means the organ cadence of 'Hyperion,' nor even what David Wasson admirably called the "flocculent beauty"—a beauty as of a sky full of little cloudlets—that marked 'Endymion,' it had yet a certain fresh and noble quality of its own, which is not lost in the expanded edition. Such passages as—

"We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths;
In feelings, not in figures on a dial.
We should count time by heart-throbs. He most lives
Who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best" (p. 71),

or,

"Yet truth and falsehood meet in seeming, like
The falling leaf and shadow on the pool's face" (p. 153),

or,

"Trifles like these make up the present time;
The Iliad and the Pyramids, the past" (p. 159),

or,

"Why will we live and not be glorious?
We never can be deathless till we die;
It is the dead win battles" (p. 72),

are sure of lasting memory. The book that contains them may be sunk beyond plummet's sounding, yet these passages will float, and somebody will write from time to time to the "Notes and Queries" department of some newspaper, and ask whence they came. These lines are luckily left unchanged, and so are the following:

"Man is one,
And he hath one great heart. It is thus we feel
With a gigantic throb across the sea
Each other's rights and wrongs; thus are we men" (p. 39).

"Men might be better if we better deemed
Of them. The worst way to improve the world
Is to condemn it. Men may overget
Delusion, not despair" (p. 64).

But in other cases the author confuses and muddles what was once a fine touch by attempting to improve upon it. One of the favorite passages of the original poem, for instance, was the hero's terse description of his first love, a passage which now appears in amplified and weakened form, as can be easily shown by italicizing the added lines:

"I loved her for that she was beautiful,
And that to me she seemed to be all nature
And all varieties of things in one;
As many charmful changes had in thought
And sweet caprice as the opal hath of hues;
Would set at night in clouds of tears, and rise
All light and laughter in the morning; fear
No petty customs nor appearances,
But think what others only dreamed about,
And say what others did but think, and do
What others would but say, and glory in
What others dared but do; *so pure withal*
In soul: in heart and act such conscious, yet
Such careless innocence, she made round her
A halo of delight; 'twas these that won me;
And that she never schooled within her breast
One thought or feeling but gave holiday
To all" (p. 45).

It requires but little inspection to see that the merit of the original delineation, if merit it had, lay largely in the fact that it was executed with a few strong strokes, and that every added line must weaken it; the introduction of the halo of delight and the opal and the "charmful changes" only harm and do not help. The same may be said of the elucidations in the elaborate preface, in which it is explained, for instance, that the poem resolves itself, upon examination, "not into books or acts, but into twelve or more groups, celestial, astral, interstellar and terrestrial, solar, planetary, and one other, the sphere of the Infernals" (p. 2). All this bears upon the work, not as a poem, but as a theological treatise, an aspect for which a few may care, but which the profane multitude will prize very little. Should there be any, however, who like nearly eight hundred pages of such discussion, cast in the form of blank verse, they will find in this enlarged edition what Emerson promised to the readers of Swedenborg — "a sufficient library for a lonely and athletic student."

A History of Greece. From the Earliest Times to the Ionian Revolt. By Evelyn Abbott, M.A., LL.D., Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 553.

MANY as are the histories of Greece, it cannot be said that Mr. Abbott, in adding another to

their number, has undertaken a superfluous or needless task, for we do not know of any upon just the scale and plan of his. It is not a popular sketch—it is indeed severely scholarly; on the other hand, it is not a work of ponderous and exhaustive erudition. Such a work would perhaps be unnecessary so long as the scholar can find in Grote's volumes a detailed discussion of every problem in Grecian history, not yet by any means antiquated, if needing correction here and there. Mr. Abbott's book may indeed be called exhaustive as a collection of known facts, supplementing where necessary the work of Grote, and aiming to give the reader the latest results of scholarship. But the discussion is generally brief, and the treatment is compendious, so that, in view of the broad field covered and the amount of detail, many parts are necessarily the dry repetition of facts.

It will be seen, therefore, that this book is especially suited to the needs of students as a book of reference, rather than of general readers. Few would have the patience to read it through, while the great majority of classical scholars will find it extremely convenient and useful, first, for making a cursory survey of the entire subject, and then for consultation upon points of uncertainty. For this purpose there is a good index, which does not, however, contain the unimportant names. It must not be supposed, however, that the book is altogether of this character. Such subjects as the poems of Homer and Hesiod, the laws of Lycurgus, the constitutional history of Athens, are treated in a full and interesting manner. Of pure narration there is very little; this is evidently neither the especial taste nor power of the author. The description of the geography, climate, etc., of Greece in the first chapter is very well done, and, as special points of peculiar merit, we will mention the account of the Asiatic Greeks (p. 487) and of early lyric poetry (p. 512). The remarks upon ostracism, in regard to which Mr. Abbott takes a different view from Grote (p. 482), upon the failure of Solon's constitution (p. 450), and upon the Ionic tribes (p. 284), are also particularly deserving of attention.

Mr. Abbott's method is sober and conservative. His judgment in questions of doubt generally commends itself as sound and impartial; in matters of evidence he is cautious, and on the whole sceptical. We are inclined to think him too sceptical in regard to the historical value of Homer. He points out the impossibilities of Homer's geography and the uncertainties of any deductions from his works as to chronology or the sequence of events, and then, with considerable plausibility, extends the same reasoning to the description of institutions, and even of manners and customs, and concludes that as a witness to history he is practically worthless.

"Whatever line of investigation we pursue, we cannot fail to recognize the same want of historical truth in the poems" (p. 151). "'Homer,' then, is of little or no value as evidence of the early civilization of Hellas, because we have no means of ascertaining that his statements are historically true" (p. 155). "The pictures, then, which have been drawn of the Homeric state or family, of Homeric art and civilization, are not to be accepted as descriptions of what really existed at any definite period. They prove little or nothing for the historical condition of ancient Greece. The minstrels treated facts as they chose, and for their own purposes, and the whole story of the Trojan war fades at the least touch of criticism" (p. 158).

In these extracts we have a rule of criticism which forbids us to use the Homeric poems as evidence for historical facts of any kind, except as to "the inward life of the time [of composition], its aspirations, and ideals." "They present to us the ideals of life and character which delighted the audience to which they were addressed, and continued to delight generation after generation till Hellenism became extinct" (p. 160). But what gave birth to these ideals? They could hardly have been created out of nothing by the constructive imagination of the poet. It would, no doubt, be begging the question to assume that men in that stage of civilization above all others lacked the capacity to conceive of institutions and social forms other than those of which they had practical knowledge; but we believe it would be safe to make nearly the same assertion of men at all stages of civilization. Nothing is harder, as every student of history knows, than to transport one's self into the mind and the environment of another generation: the most insipid or high-flown dime novel is built out of the life, sentiments, and manners of the age, however much these may be distorted by straining after romantic effects. We do not see what society Homer can depict if it is not the society about him, lighted up, no doubt, and elevated by imagination and aspiration.

There is a clear distinction, in this respect, between the events and their environment. The writer of these poems was engaged in narrating events of a distant past, known to him only by oral tradition; but nothing is more certain than that oral tradition is utterly unreliable in regard to facts of this character. The incidents of the war, whether the war occurred at all, the geography, nations, and chieftains of that distant epoch—all these are things of the kind with which tradition plays surprising pranks. As to these, the poet tells us what has come to his ears, with such variations as he chooses to add to it, and it has almost no historical value at all. But in depicting society and institutions he has no choice but to describe what he himself has seen, painting with the truthful colors of his own day a body of incidents and a geographical outline which are essentially fabulous.

The Nibelungen Lied, to which Mr. Abbott refers in this connection, affords a useful illustration, all the more instructive because it was composed in a fully historical epoch. The composers of this poem found to their hands a group of historical names, nations, and personages—the Burgundians upon the Rhine, Attila far in the East, Theodoric at Verona. The distance of time had the effect of making these appear contemporary, and so we have a wholly unhistorical, an impossible, association of historical names and persons. But the coloring of the story is historical—not of the time when the events were supposed to have occurred, but of the time that the poem was written. The true principle of interpretation is hinted at, as we think, in the words (p. 161): "We must always bear in mind that the Homeric poetry is epic poetry, and that the epic conception of life was not that which prevailed in the home of the peasant or the fold of the shepherd." The picture is correct, but partial. Making allowance for the idealism of the poet, the society depicted in these poems is really that of the personages with whom epic poetry concerns itself—court and camp, prince, hero, and high-born lady. But if we wish to see Grecian society as a whole, we must supplement Homer's view with that of the other great poet of the primitive Greeks, Hesiod, of whom Mr. Abbott gives an appreciative account, in one of the best passages of the volume. In Homer

"we move among exalted persons, in a scene where there is no room for the interests of humble life. The poets' songs are 'the crown of the feast.' Hesiod treats of other subjects. His muse is serious—nay, she is sad; she seeks no longer to amuse a delighted audience, but to beguile the unhappy and rebuke the foolish. The days of martial enterprise are over; the relations of gods and men are changed; it is the poet's task now to arrange the knowledge of the past, and record the wisdom of the sages—a wisdom which is often the fruit of bitter experience" (p. 323).

In the spelling of proper names, Mr. Abbott has chosen those forms which have become familiar in English literature, rather than those which aim to represent with exactness the sound of the original. We do not regard this as a reaction against Grote's practice, but as establishing a distinction based upon a sound principle. Greek and Latin, *as foreign tongues*, should be pronounced as nearly as possible as the Greeks and Romans themselves pronounced. If we cannot hit the exact pronunciation, any approximation to the right is better than a pronunciation which is admittedly wrong. But a book in the English language, to be read by English-speaking people, should observe the forms which have become established in English literature.

Principles of Procedure in Deliberative Bodies By George Glover Crocker, President Massachusetts Senate, 1883. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. 16mo, pp. 169.

THIS neatly-printed little book merely adds one to the unnecessary manuals now in print, having neither in form nor in substance any cause for existence. Such manuals cannot add to the principles of parliamentary law, and, coming into competition with Cushing's standard work, they must be of value only as they supplement his explanations. Many writers, like Mr. Crocker, seem to think that Cushing-and-water will be more wholesome or more palatable than the original. They have an idea that by writing down the subject to the level of the ignorant they are giving valuable instruction; but in truth the object is useless and unattainable. Parliamentary law is a science; like heraldry, it is a small subject, easily mastered by one with a natural taste for it, but of no value to most persons and by them difficult of acquisition. The principles are simple, but the whole skill and usefulness lies in the power to apply the right rule at the right moment. No amount of theoretical practice will enable a man to control and direct a crowded meeting unless he has the rare ability to know his business and to keep his head. Therefore, as every man who aspires to be a chairman has a safe and thorough guide in Cushing, he does not need these dilutions, and the general public will find that unless it can master Cushing, the science must be a sealed one.

We have examined Mr. Crocker's book in the hope that his experience might throw light upon some of the vexed questions familiar to all parliamentarians. We note only three or four which call for consideration. Mr. Crocker says (p. 26) that debate "cannot be renewed after the votes in the affirmative have been given, after the meeting has begun to divide, or after yea-and-nay voting or voting by ballot has begun." This is flatly contradictory of Cushing ('Law,' etc., § 1610-1616), and must be merely a usage of the Massachusetts Senate. On p. 99 Mr. Crocker says that, on an appeal from the decision of the chair, the question as usually put is unfair. It is worded, "Shall the decision of the chair stand?" and in case of a tie vote the decision is overruled. Theoretically the balance ought to stand the other way, and Mr. Crocker proposes the wording to be, "Shall the decision be overruled?" He is doubtless right in this matter; but it may be

noted that in 1880 the Boston Common Council adopted a rule retaining the old question, but adding, "that it shall be deemed to be decided in the affirmative unless a majority of the votes given are to the contrary." We prefer, however, Mr. Crocker's form as simpler and clearer.

On p. 116 he lays down the rule that "if a quorum is present, a vote is valid, though less than a quorum votes." This heresy is clearly propounded for use in the Massachusetts Legislature. In that House of Representatives a new rule was passed this year, that if, on taking a standing vote, the presence of a quorum be doubted, "a count of the House shall be had, and if a quorum is present, the vote shall stand." This theory was first announced by Speaker Sanford in 1874, and is a very important change from all former practice. The mere presence of a member is thus counted an act of voting. In practice, this leads to dodging votes, and to all kinds of trades and bargains. The validity of the rule has not yet been tested by the courts, and the Legislature was afraid to obtain an opinion from the S. J. C. thereon. Of course, the practice of the national House is just the reverse. If no quorum voted, no action was taken. How many blocks and delays would have been avoided at Washington had the members been the peers intellectually of the Massachusetts legislators!

The coming session of Congress will doubtless cause renewed interest in the subject of parliamentary law. Already it is announced that the rules are to be altered and simplified in order that public business may be transacted. It is well to remember that parliamentary law may be easily reduced to one principle, viz., that the power of the whole body rests with the majority thereof, and that it is superior to all forms or rules. Any vote can be put by direction of that majority, and the minority is simply without redress. If it stays, it can command no recognition; if it goes away, it is simply a faction, and the power is left behind. Nothing but provisions in the United States Constitution can control Congress, and nothing but clauses in the State Constitution can control a Legislature. All subordinate corporations can be controlled by the creating authority. Some day, it is to be hoped, these facts will penetrate the American intellect, and then the necessary laws will be enacted. Until that time, all that parliamentarians can do will be to arrange rules and provide for emergencies according to the principles accepted by them, and gradually prepare a good code, ready for adoption when the necessary sanction is given.

At present it is safe to say that many acts are done which the courts on appeal would refuse to sanction. For example, it is usual, in adopting a code of rules, to add that it shall be altered or amended only by vote of more than a majority, as two-thirds or three-fourths. Mr. Crocker (pp. 146-7) recognizes the utter absurdity of this, and yet speaks of "the general conceded validity of such rules." In fact, the custom has continued merely because it has not been contested. Some day it will be found out that the Legislature of the State can pass such a rule only after the Constitution has expressly given the power. Massachusetts long remained without any constitutional provision to allow less than a quorum to meet and adjourn from day to day and compel the attendance of delinquents. But the power had to be distinctly given.

One of the most needed reforms in statesmanship is a clear discovery and statement of the few powers necessary to be given to our legislators for their organization as a legislative body, and then the incorporation of a grant thereof into the constitutions, national and State. As it is, we drift into useless troubles and delays because that parliamentary law is indispensable, and yet has no basis of authority, uniformity of practice, or defined boundaries.

Life of Friedrich Schiller. By Henry W. Nevinson. London: Walter Scott; New York: Thomas Whittaker. 1889.

A FEW sentences from Mr. Nevinson's closing chapter will serve to indicate his point of view and at the same time to illustrate the quality of his work:

"It is perhaps hardly possible, in these days, to appreciate him [Schiller] as highly as his reputation appears to demand. He is still commonly used, it is true, as a text-book for schools, because he wrote good German, and has received from Propriety her meed of honor that 'there is no harm in him.' But serious students would probably admit that few poets of equal fame are now less studied for their own sake. His name remains familiar to all, because it has been consecrated by its connection with a genius higher than his own—a genius more closely in sympathy with the thought of recent years. But otherwise the present age is generally content to remain ignorant of him, and could hardly understand where the secret of his reputed greatness lay. For the present age . . . justly plumes itself on its realism, while against realism Schiller declared it was his special mission to do battle . . . Guided by our own experience of modern life, we are constrained to circumscribe the heroic within very narrow limits, and . . . we regard the ideal forms of Schiller's drama with melancholy or indifference. The high emotions, the hopes and passions, which he stirred in the hearts of our grandfathers seem in us to be dead of atrophy. It is difficult, if not impossible, to put ourselves back to the time when Carlyle, in his beautiful and enthusiastic 'Life of Schiller,' gave to the world the first-fruits and earnest of his greatness. Our hopes from German literature are no longer so high as in the days when Goethe was still alive and the words of his fellows were welcomed by many as revelations of a new gospel of art and wisdom. Their work has now for a long time been either absorbed or rejected. It is true that German thought has as much influence, and in the near future is likely to have more than at any previous time. Now, however, it no longer works through literature, but through science, arms, and social ideas. In literature for the last thirty years we have been gradually but surely returning to the French alliance. . . . The German mind, still retaining a love of the ideal, finds in Schiller's heroic creations a satisfaction unknown to more realistic peoples; and German literature, with all its high merits, has been throughout so deficient in dramatic power, so obscure in the outline of character, compared with other European literatures, that the importance of such dramatic production as it possesses is likely to become a little exaggerated in popular opinion."

To all of which we can yield only a partial and qualified assent. We do not think that Schiller's plays are used as text-books merely because they are harmless and written in good German, or that his reputation is very largely due to his connection with Goethe, or that the present age is to any great extent drifting away from him because of his excessive idealism. It is easy to mistake a natural process of individual growth, that is, to mistake a change that goes on in one's self and in neighbors of like age and temper with one's self, for a general "movement," or a great secular drift of opinion. In the case before us the simple fact is, as it seems to us, that Schiller is preëminently the poet of the young. And this he is now just as much as he ever was, and in England or the United States as much as in Germany, save that in Germany he is very much more read and studied. Experienced teachers of German literature will testify that Schiller usually strikes fire in the mind of youth some time before Goethe does. As the learner grows older, more reflective and observant of facts, as he more and more reads to compare and to be instructed, and not simply to be thrilled and edified, he learns to prefer Goethe. On the other hand, if he continues to read as the young read (a thing he is very likely to do if he reads at all, and does not belong to the class with whom the study of literature is a business), a certain preference for Schiller will go with him through life. In other words, Schiller, like Byron and Heine, is the poet of those who care more for fervor than for truth; and this fact stamps him, as it stamps Byron and Heine, as a poet of the second rank. But in the second rank Schiller has no superiors. It is surely no paltry claim to immortality to serve ingenuous youth, whose idealism is not yet palsied by sad experience or sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought, as a never-failing source of high and wholesome inspiration.

Mr. Nevinson's work appears as the twenty-fourth number of the "Great Writers" collection, edited by E. S. Robertson, and published at a shilling a volume by Walter Scott of London. It is an able and conscientious work (in spite of its unpretending size and price), and deserves to be generally read by students of German literature. In truth, we should find it hard to name a book in which the reader of to-day can find Schiller more thoughtfully and readably discussed than in the little volume before us. It is written with ample knowledge of Germany and German literature, and in a terse, vigorous style which avoids non-essentials and goes straight to the heart of the matters in question. Naturally, it has not the fulness of information which characterizes the German biographies, notably that of Düntzer; but, in compensation, it has not their soporific effect upon the brain. Mr. Nevinson's critical observations seem to us in the main sound, and are always suggestive even where one is compelled to withhold assent. They are much more warmly appreciative, too, than might be inferred from the quotation at the beginning of this notice. It is nowhere forgotten that Schiller was really a "great writer," the actual favorite, probably, if a vote could be taken, of the German people; and that, being this, he requires explanation. The most exacting reader will hardly make any more serious charge against Mr. Nevinson's criticism than that he now and then, occasionally, perhaps from lack of space, settles some large question too easily. This he seems to us to do, for example, in dealing with the "Jungfrau von Orleans." He echoes the familiar condemnation of Schiller for giving us an idealized Maid, who dies in glory on the battle-field. He recounts the story of Jeanne Darc as it was, telling in strong and simple language the tale of the "pauvre petite bergerette" who turned the tide of a great war, and then adds: "Every element of the profoundest tragedy is there, and all that art could hope to do would be to read the truth aright." But this hardly satisfies. One may contend that the actual Jeanne Darc is not adapted for a dramatic heroine, and that dramatic poets have done well to avoid the subject. But if one adopts Mr. Nevinson's contention, he is at once confronted with this difficult question: Why is it that a story conspicuously known to the whole world for centuries, and containing ready to hand all the elements of the profoundest tragedy, has not been successfully dramatized except by Schiller? Mr. Nevinson here seems to confound the pathetic with the tragic. To our thinking, a purely realistic Jeanne Darc is not available as a tragic heroine. Modern Protestant art cannot hope to "read aright" the

central truth of her story by simply introducing the story as it was upon the stage. The tradition must be "made over" in one way or another. That Schiller's interesting experiment is a perfect success we would by no means contend; but he has at least come nearer than any other great modern poet—vastly nearer than Shakspere or Voltaire—to reading aright, for modern Prostestants, the central truth of his heroine's career. At any rate, his critics should never forget that Schiller knew perfectly well what he was doing and why he was doing it, and had thought long and carefully upon the whole subject of the relation of the drama to historic verity.

Scintillæ Juris. By Charles J. Darling, Q.C., M.P. With Frontispiece and Colophon, by Frank Lockwood, Q.C., M.P. Fourth edition (enlarged). London: Stevens & Haynes. 1889.

SCINTILLÆ JURIS,' of which we are glad to see a new edition, is a treatise compounded in nearly equal parts of sense, humor, and absurdity. It belongs to a class of books, of which the 'Comic Blackstone' is perhaps the best known, which aim at furnishing amusement to the professional man of a kind which the laity can never hope to enjoy thoroughly. The basis of the humor in these works generally is the assumption that the law, instead of being the perfection of human reason, is, in the language of one of Dickens's characters, "a Hass"; that the administration of justice exists indirectly for the benefit of lawyers and judges, who earn their fees and salaries by causing the property of honest people to come into the possession of those who have no right to it, including themselves, and that a lawsuit is a game of cards in which the player wins who has most cards up his sleeve. This view of the law, though stoutly maintained by laymen ever since the beginning of their troubles with it (and perhaps the most irritating part of their discomfort is that they have never been able to get along without it), is only perfectly appreciated by lawyers, who know just how far it is true and where it is false.

Of all the humorists who have taken up this field, Mr. Darling, though not the most popular, is the most acute. His work is marred by the fact that he is often unable to distinguish between his good things and his things which are not good at all. For instance, his chapter on judges seems to us devoid of point. On the other hand, some of his criticism of the well-known maxims of the law has a humor which, if not very deep, is very pleasant. For instance, he suggests that the maxim "He who comes into equity must come with clean hands," now applies, since the fusion of the two systems, not only in equity, but in law also, and adds that "the utility of the maxim is that he who goes in clean will come out less dirty than he who is soiled from the first." Again, the maxim, "Boni judicis est ampliare jurisdictionem," "was probably invented to comfort the conscience when judges were paid by fees on the cases brought before them. It is characteristic of a good general to extend the area of the country he can hold and plunder." Again, of "Summum jus, summa injuria," he says: "This is a more candid statement concerning law than one might expect to find in a law-book; but it is useful, should any one complain of the imperfection of our law, to be able to point out that in its integrity it is even more hurtful."

The chapter on witnesses contains much sound sense. For instance: "A witness who understands the effect of his testimony on the issue seldom gives it fairly"; "Much truth is spoken that more may be concealed"; "A religious witness takes credit for so many virtues that he allows himself much license in dealing with the truth." In the chapter on cross-examination there are suggestions of great subtlety, as, "If you suggest to an adverse witness a fact in his own favor, he will often deny its existence for fear it should be to your advantage." Again: "A timid question will always receive a confident answer."

We may close our extracts with two or three golden rules for examinations in chief: "As a rule, never allow a witness to state that which he is most anxious to mention, for it will surely be either slanderous or irrelevant"; "I would prevent a witness from attributing his acts—as some do—to higher motives than men are used to find in their every-day affairs. There is a reproach in the contemplation of unaccustomed refinement which gains no favor from the less cultivated"; "We always suspect the honesty of those who are actuated by motives which would not influence ourselves."

Jewish Portraits. By Lady Magnus. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. 1889.

ESSAY-WRITING, always rare in any strict sense of the term, is going more and more out of the fashion. Our "historical method," our passion for indexes, references, and foot-notes has changed the character of magazines and reviews beyond all hope of recognition by their original founders. Reviews have become digests, essays "papers," and, in the prefatory note to this charming little "gallery of portraits," Lady Magnus has herself used the term which indicates a learned society as audience, rather than a cultured and curious reading public. Yet "papers" they are not, but a collection of graceful essays, if anything too few, with sufficient learning to be useful, a love and admiration for the past of her people, and a passion in their defence against persecutors and traducers which cannot fail to command at once gratitude and respect. Some of the essays were written as early as 1882, and all have appeared in different periodicals, so that the recurrence of certain ideas hardly to be expected in a single volume is easily explained, while the intensity of feeling exhibited against Jewish persecutions in the past must be viewed in the light of the unhappy occurrences of the beginning of this decade, which succeeded in arousing even the gentle spirit of the late Emma Lazarus.

The first essay is devoted to Jehudah Halevi, the physician and poet, "who solved the pathetic puzzle of how to sing the Lord's song in a strange land," whose charming manners made him the centre of a coterie of Spanish-Jewish writers who (to adopt the compliment of a friend) pitched their tents in each other's hearts; whose philosophical work, the 'Khozari,' would alone have made him famous, and whose love sonnets, like Solomon's Song, whether inspired by a real passion or an idealized Jerusalem, would have been sufficient to give him rank as a poet. "The Story of a Street" (the Frankfort *Judengasse*), and "Heinrich Heine, a Plea" (against Carlyle's "that blackguard Heine" and Charles Kingsley's "Who was Heine? A wicked man") both have the same tendency—a candid picture of the condition of the Jews in Germany during the second half of last century and the first half of the present, and the ascribing of their characters, not always lovable, to the unfair circumstances under which perforce they existed. The life of Heine is "the story of one who was a Jew, and poor, a convert without the zeal, a model of resignation and yet no Christian." He was German yet French, having the good fortune to live during the French occupation, "when some healthier amusements than Jew-baiting were provided for the populace."

Lady Magnus briefly presents Prof. David Kaufmann's view of George Eliot and Judaism ("An Attempt to Appreciate 'Daniel Deronda'"), and in passing very quaintly pays her respects to Mr. Swinburne, who has "no ear for the melodies of a Jew's harp," and, possessing no "taste for the dissection of dolls, leaves Daniel Deronda to his natural place over the rag-shop door." The answer comes in the shape of an art criticism once pronounced in the *Louvre:* "The picture was Correggio's 'Marriage of St. Katherine,' and to an Englishman standing near us it evidently did not fulfil preconceived conceptions of a marriage ceremony. He looked at it long, and at last turned away, muttering, 'Well, I can't see anything in it.' That was evident, but the failure was not in the picture." Menasseh ben Israel, who gained the respect of Cromwell, and opened England to the Jews, receives due praise for his deeds, but his writings are described as "compilations of dead men's minds, . . . duly labelled and catalogued selections from learned mummies." The essays on "Charity in Talmudic Times" and "Moses Mendelssohn" cannot be briefly characterized, since they are themselves but characterizations of what it would take several volumes to tell. The former contains all the suggestions for a "paper," if not for a treatise.

We take leave of this little volume (calling attention to the impossible reference to *Yoma* on page 14, almost with shamefacedness) with a feeling that the author is a valuable member of that growing community in England which is creating an Anglo-Jewish literature different from its Spanish predecessor of six centuries back, yet as full of promise, of utility, and, in the present instance, of beauty as well.

The American Prize Method for Systematic Instruction in All Branches of Piano Playing. By Edward J. Finck. Portland, Ore. Wiley B. Allen & Co.; Philadelphia: B. F. Baines.

PIANO-PLAYING is a modern epidemic, and the demand for instruction-books is therefore enormous. Besides the large number of methods published in this country, vast quantities of the best foreign books are brought over on every steamer, and the best ones may be had in almost any language. Of Urbach's 'Preis-Clavierschule,' adjudged the best among forty competitors by Kullak, Seiss, and Reinecke, eight editions, or 36,000 copies, were printed in three years; and the most thorough of all instruction-books, Lebert & Stark's, of the Stuttgart Conservatory, although it is in four volumes and very expensive, has been equally successful. The possibility of winning such successes urges many teachers to embody their own views and experiences in a volume, and, consequently, new methods are published constantly in all parts of the country, including the far West. Mr. Finck, the author of the work whose title we give above, is a graduate of the Stuttgart Conservatory, and composer of a number of piano pieces well known on the Pacific Coast. His book received the vote of a majority of the judges appointed by the editor of the *Etude*, in a competition open to American teachers. While the general order of proceeding

in a pianoforte method is confined within too narrow limits, by the nature of the subject, to allow of complete originality of treatment, there are some points in this method which call for special commendation. The first is of a practical nature, being a complete index, which, serving also as a table of contents, is for convenience printed on the first page. Such an index is greatly missed in other methods, and will save much loss of time and temper on the part of the pupil as well as the teacher. Another feature, which, strange to say, is also novel, is a full series of questions, printed at the bottom of each page, enabling the pupil to review his own knowledge and saving the teacher considerable trouble. The Method also differs from others in having the very first exercises in both the treble and bass clefs instead of only one clef. This has the disadvantage of requiring the pupil to learn both these clefs at once, which is apt to be confusing; but the subsequent gain perhaps more than compensates for this, for it initiates the pupil at once into the clef which will be the habitual province of each hand, and it will prevent him from confounding or identifying the first five notes with the five fingers, which happens with comic frequency—a pupil who has practised his five-finger exercises for weeks imagining that the sign for the thumb must always stand for C, the first finger for D, and so on.

One other feature deserves mention: there is more rhythmic variety than usual in the exercises, compelling the pupil to keep strict time and count carefully. In most methods and studies for beginners, even in such famous ones as those of Cramer and Lebert and Stark, there is a curious rhythmic monotony which is apt to demoralize the student and make him mechanical in his habits, as is abundantly attested by the aggravating inability of most amateur pianists to keep time when playing with a stringed or other instrument. The pieces interspersed for the entertainment of the pupil and the formation of his taste are judiciously selected from the best classical and modern masters, but there is an occasional carelessness in the noting of tempo or expression marks, as on page 128, where Chopin's Prelude, opus 28, No. 6, is printed without any intimation of the tempo for the guidance of the pupil—which is the more to be regretted as such pieces are sure to be played too fast if there is no tempo sign. The definitions as a rule are clear and concise, although there is an occasional grammatical error or inelegance. On page 52 there is a serious misprint in the G instead of G sharp in the harmonic minor scale, and another one on page 94, where the slur in the explanation of 161 b should be extended over four notes instead of three.

Principles of the History of Language. By Hermann Paul. Translated from the second edition of the original, by H. A. Strong, M.A., LL.D. Macmillan. 1889.

THE science of language, for reasons inherent in the justified use of the term, has followed, in the main, the same general lines of historical development that have characterized the other sciences. Like them, it has necessarily had its empirical stage, in which phenomena in their mutual or reciprocal relationship were more or less imperfectly understood, and correlation was imputed when it did not exist, or was often unsuspected when it did. In it, as in them, a period of particularism necessarily preceded the evolution of laws whose field of operation has, since their formulation, in the light of newly discovered or more categorical knowledge, not seldom been extended on the one hand, or contracted on the other. As a result of this development in the direction of reality, the new science has outgrown the tentative efforts of its earlier years, and the intuition that was characteristic of the beginnings of the study of the phenomena of language has gradually, but none the less surely, given place to scientific reason and definiteness of method.

Down to the appearance, in 1880, of Prof. Paul's 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte,' no scientific formulation had been attempted of the determined principles and methodology of the science. The first edition was, accordingly, in reality an "epoch-making" book; and although, in one sense, it contains but little material that is for the first time advanced, in another it is really one of the most original, as it is one of the most important, books in the whole literature of the subject, and determines, as Prof. Wheeler in his preface to the American edition says, "a distinct period in the development of the science." A second edition of the book, enlarged and in some parts rewritten, appeared in 1886. It is this later edition that is the basis of the present translation, so that the English reader has in it the carefully considered statement of the science well down to the present day.

The essence of Prof. Paul's work, as he expresses it in a note to his introduction, "is to trace the development of language from the reciprocal effects which individuals produce upon each other." It leads him from a consideration of the necessity for a system of principles to accompany the history of language to a discussion of the nature of the development of language, and the detailed rationale of the various phenomena connected with it.

Professor Paul, the foremost Germanist in Germany, through his published works and the joint editorship with Professor Braune of the *Beiträge*, to which he has been a frequent contributor of original articles, has acted a radical part in the progressive growth of the new philology. His standpoint in the present book, as elsewhere, is the rational but perhaps not uncontested one of the neo-grammarians, who have all along most actively insisted upon statement of method. From the thorough treatment of the subject that it discusses, its breadth of perspective, and the profound use made of the material at hand, the work is entitled to rank, where Professor Wheeler assigns it, "as the fundamental handbook of the science."

The translator, Professor Strong, who holds the chair of Latin in University College, Liverpool, has performed his task in the main carefully and well. The practical usefulness of the book has been increased by paragraph numbers and marginal catch-lines. Some few of the original references are omitted, but a number of others, chiefly from English sources, have been added. The translator has also furnished the volume with two indexes. Of these the first is only partial, and consequently misleading; a multitude of words of all kinds has been omitted, and such a valuable reference, for instance, as Verner's Law (which, by the way, probably through a typographical error, is misstated in one of its stadia on page 192) finds no place in it. The plan on which the index of authors, at the end of the book, is constructed it is absolutely impossible to determine. Less than one-third of the number referred to are contained in it at all, and these appear to be selected utterly at random.

In its new or original form, this work should surely find its way into the hands of every scientific student of language.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Rev. W. The Epistles of St. John. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Allen, Dr. N. N. Korean Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Baker, C. W. Monopolies and the People. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Beaugrand C. The Walks Abroad of Two Young Naturalists. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Besant, W. Children of Gibeon. Harper & Bros.
Blackstock, E. F. The Land of the Viking and the Empire of the Tsar. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. Famous Men of Science. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Bradish, A. Memoir of Douglas Houghton, First State Geologist of Michigan. Detroit: Raynor & Taylor.
Bridger, Dr. A. E. Man and his Maladies; or, A Way to Health. Harper & Bros.
Cone, Rev. O. Salvation. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 25 cents.
Davis, R. Recollections of Mississippi and the Mississippians. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Dumas, A. Les Trois Mousquetaires. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Eggleston, E. First Book in American History. D. Appleton & Co. 70 cents.
Farmer, Lydia H. Short History of the French Revolution. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Goss, W. L. Jed: A Boy's Adventures in the Army of '61–'65. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Heimburg, W. Lora: the Major's Daughter. Worthington Co.
Hichborn, P. Report on European Dock-yards. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Hogue, Prof. A. The Irregular Verbs of Attic Prose. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.00.
Johnston, R. M. Ogeechee Cross-Firings. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Sweet, Sophie. Captain Polly. Harper & Bros.

READY SATURDAY:

Handbook of Psychology.

SENSES AND INTELLECT. By James Mark Baldwin, Ph.D., Professor of Philosophy in Lake Forest University. 8vo, 343 pp.

HENRY HOLT & Co., New York.

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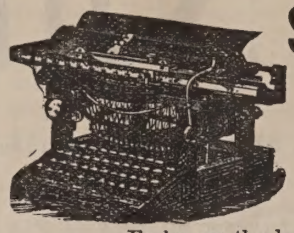

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1889.

The Week.

So far as we have been able to ascertain, not one of the fifteen leading editors whom the President has bribed with important offices has ventured to say anything concerning Tanner's removal which was worthy a moment's serious consideration by an intelligent human being. Nearly all their comments have been, like those of the *Tribune* of this city, fit only to be classified among the "jokes" or humorous utterances of the period. Not one of the fifteen editors has even hinted at what he knows to be the truth in the matter—that Tanner's appointment in the first place was an inexcusable blunder, and that his removal was made necessary in order to save the Administration from disgrace and the country from possible bankruptcy. Truth of this kind has to be sought in such unsubsidized Republican journals as the Philadelphia *Inquirer* and *Ledger*, the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, the Worcester *Spy*, and a few others whose editors have not been appointed to office. But for them the public would not be able to find the facts in the case outside the Mugwump and Democratic press. The most conspicuous instance that we have seen of the servile effect of Presidential bribery upon a newspaper appears in the Detroit *Tribune*, whose editor was recently appointed a collector of internal revenue. He defended Tanner up to the very moment of his removal, and then bewailed his fate by saying: "We regard it as an unfortunate break in the household of the Administration, and sincerely regret that it could not have been avoided."

The country now waits to see what other representative of the Grand Army Machine shall be appointed as Tanner's successor. Evidently the New York *Press*, whose editor is Commissioner of the Census, did not exaggerate the power of this machine or the President's fear of it. The Boston *Advertiser*, whose editor got his brother appointed to a consulate the other day, accepts the situation, and says: "It now remains for the President to appoint some other member of the Grand Army." Major Merrill of Massachusetts called on the President on Friday, and, according to the *Herald's* correspondent, said that "the occasion called for the appointment of a man of national reputation and universal popularity in the Grand Army, and the appointment could not be delayed without disastrous results." The correspondent adds, what everybody will believe, that "the President seemed impressed with this view."

The Philadelphia *Press* cautiously says, regarding the succession to Tanner, that "the President is hardly likely to make a mistake in filling the office a second time." That depends on whether he keeps his pledges the second time, as he did not the first. It is only necessary that he should follow the rule laid down in his letter of acceptance, but shamelessly broken in the choice of Tanner, that "in appointments to every grade and department, fitness, not party service, should be the essential and discriminating test." It is not encouraging that the test made most prominent in the current discussions of the succession is the relative strength of various candidates with the Grand Army Machine—a machine so powerful that the New York *Press* thought the President worthy of fulsome praise for the alleged courage which he displayed in removing Tanner at the risk of its displeasure. The Philadelphia *Ledger* makes some pertinent remarks upon this point: "It is said that the Grand Army is to be conciliated by the appointment of its late Commander as Commissioner of Pensions. He may be a worthy and proper man, but if he should accept office as the representative of the Grand Army of the Republic or any other organization of soldiers, he will be handicapped, as was Corporal Tanner, from doing his full duty as a public servant, owing allegiance to no other power."

Mr. H. K. Thurber, who as a disseminator of forged English press quotations in behalf of Harrison was not surpassed even by John F. Plummer himself, has been ignored by the Administration in the selection of a site for the new Appraiser's stores, and is naturally indignant. He said last week to a *Times* reporter, in speaking of the selection of Bowling Green:

"It is an outrage—a striking triumph of political influence over the true commercial interests of the city. In full knowledge of the facts, Secretary Windom has chosen a site which was opposed by men representing fully 90 per cent. of the importations physically handled at the Appraiser's stores, and which only had the backing of politicians, real-estate manipulators, and such importers as do their business with the Appraiser by sample. Of course there is an African in the woodpile. It does not require a very keen sight to locate him either."

The African whom Mr. Thurber sees in the woodpile is well known to be "Tom" Platt, who, whatever other service he may have rendered to President Harrison, was never caught circulating forgeries in his behalf. His claim, therefore, is obviously much inferior to Mr. Thurber's, for the latter circulated forgeries by the ton both before and after their true character was exposed. After it had been exposed, he gave public notice that he would make the proper correction in his next batch of circulars, and when the batch came out, it was discovered that his correction consisted in changing the credit line on the most flagrant of the forgeries from "London *Times*" to "a London paper." Zeal like this ought certainly to have some influence with its beneficiary, and we are not surprised at Mr. Thurber's righteous indignation.

The iron and woollen-manufacturers of New England seem to be somewhat dazed by the *Tribune's* assurances that it understands their business interests better than they do themselves. They had been supposing that they knew what was the matter with their own affairs. They knew they were losing business and money, and they came to the conclusion that they had no remedy save in free raw materials. The *Tribune* assures them that they are "deceiving themselves"; that they are "tricky free-traders"; and that if they are not careful, they will incur the wrath of the Pennsylvania iron-manufacturers and Western wool-growers, and be utterly destroyed by having the duties removed from manufactured products. This information that, no matter if their business is going to decay, it is their duty as good Republicans to let it go rather than try to save it at the peril of undermining the protective system, does not strike them as meeting the emergency. We trust that the *Tribune* will read them all out of the party, and make it manifest to everybody that the Republican party is invincibly opposed to tariff revision and reduction of every kind.

A week ago the *Tribune*, meeting the demand of the woollen-men for free wool, laid down the doctrine that "protection cannot be politically maintained or logically justified as a partial or one sided affair. If it does not benefit American labor as a whole, it will be voted down." We had no sooner fairly assimilated this great principle—that is to say, that the woollen-manufacturers were not to be allowed to prosper unless the wool-growers could prosper at the same time—when the following appeared in the same organ addressed to the Boston, Massachusetts, men, who are asking for cheap coal and iron ore in order to enable them to prosper as well as Pennsylvanians:

"In the slow growth of a nation, all parts and all industries cannot advance with equal step. Some must unavoidably pluck the first fruits of any beneficent national policy. The Eastern States were in position to get the lion's share of benefit from protection at the outset, but now Western and Southern producers begin to share the bountiful results, and there are found some Eastern men who deplore that state of things. Here is an Eastern furnace, built by protection, but now abandoned by reason of the cheaper production in Alabama; 'if that is protection,' say some, 'let us have less of it.' But it is a pretty time to object, after pocketing the largest share of the advantages for twenty years. Here is an Eastern textile mill, which Western or Southern competition renders no longer profitable. 'Lower the tariff, so that no more mills shall be erected?' Hardly; protection was never intended for the exclusive benefit of any man or set of men, but for the benefit of the whole country."

Well, then, why do the wool-growers insist on "advancing with equal steps" with the woollen-men? Do they not see that some must unavoidably get more "first fruits" than others? Are they not aware that "protection was never intended for the exclusive benefit of any man or set of men"? Why are they unwilling to be ruined in order that the woollen industry may flourish, supposing that free wool would ruin them? Why do they follow the example of the New

England iron-men, who insist on "advancing with equal steps" with Pennsylvania? Do they not prove themselves to be really selfish rascals, and are they not ashamed, surrounded as they are by unselfish, disinterested, and patriotic high-tariff men, all spinning, weaving, and mining for the good of their country, to insist on growing wool at a profit?

The story comes from Philadelphia that the well-known Appraiser Leach is following up the policy he initiated about woollens some months ago, by raising the duty on merino carpet wool from 2½ cents per pound to 10 cents, to the great confusion of the carpet-manufacturers, who say, and not without reason, that if his decisions are sustained, it will ruin them. Of course they have protested and appealed, but it will be a good while before they get a decision, and the evil-minded say that Mr. Leach's purpose will be answered if in the meantime the price of wool goes up, and the Western wool-speculators who cornered the wool market soon after the Presidential election can get rid of their stocks at a good advance. Of course this may be a foul slander on a worthy man and a pure Administration, but as long as custom-house officers are allowed to make sudden changes in rates of duty, it is a kind of charge that will continue to be made, and, what is worse, to be believed. There is no man in this community or any other who enjoys enough public confidence to be allowed to do what this Administration is attempting—make sudden and arbitrary changes in the price of leading commodities.

The first document sent out by the Massachusetts Ballot-Act League, designed to instruct political committees and voters in following the methods of the new law, is a compact pamphlet of fifteen pages, which may well serve as a model for use in other States where ballot-reform laws have been adopted. It contains full directions for the proper execution of the law, and gives suggestions to committees which will enable them to see to it that all necessary requirements are met in the preparation of nomination papers, in the form of the ballot, in the proceedings on election day, and in various other matters which will be new to all the voters, both in advance of the next election and at the polls on November 5. The pamphlet contains also a full list of penal offences, and the texts of the new caucus acts and of the Ballot Act. Copies can be obtained upon application to Albert C. Burrage, 89 State Street, Boston.

The first trial of the new Ballot-Reform Law of Minnesota was made at a special election in one of the wards of Minneapolis last week, and the result, like previous trials in Milwaukee and Louisville, completely silenced the opponents of the Australian system. Speaking of it, the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press* says: "The universal verdict that it worked like a charm is uttered in a tone of mild surprise, while the limited area covered and the lightness of the vote are announced as excuses for success. It seems hard to persuade people that the law would not have shown itself utterly unmanageable but for these extraordinary conditions in its favor." The election passed without the slightest confusion or friction, and it was especially remarked that the time consumed in marking and depositing the ballots was much less than had been supposed would be necessary. This has been the experience in every place in which the Australian system has been put in practice. It has always worked simply and smoothly, and the "cumbrous" quality in it which has so alarmed the "Dave" Hill and Tammany variety of statesmen has never been discovered upon actual trial.

Gov. Hill's action in trying to boom himself as a Presidential candidate by having his portrait hung up in the hotels, bar-rooms, and grocery-stores of New England is exciting considerable attention. Opinions differ as to the usefulness of this method of arousing popular sympathy and support. The only immediate precedent is that of the great Powderly of the Knights of Labor. Shortly before the campaign of last year he had something like a half-million lithographs of himself, with his signature in very bold autograph ending in a beautiful flourish, scattered broadcast over the land. They were scarcely issued before the Knights began to go to pieces as an organization, and when the time arrived to nominate Presidential candidates, Mr. Powderly's name was not mentioned in any quarter. Whether the lithographs had any effect one way or another is of course a fine point for investigation. Gov. Hill's photographs may be more useful to him, but the facts that his term as Governor will expire before the opening of the Presidential campaign, and that the election for his successor will be held in 1891, constitute the most formidable obstacle to his ambition.

The signs of the times are not favorable to the various third-party movements. Even the most powerful of them, the Prohibition, is apparently weaker than it has been for several years, if we may judge by the diminished attendance at its State conventions. The National Greenback party has just held a convention at Cincinnati, at which twenty-five delegates assembled. When asked what the programme was to be, the leader of this movement replied: "There will be a speech by me, and afterwards I will read Washington's Farewell Address." That was a pretty accurate summary of the convention's work. What has become of the Randall high-tariff Democracy we are unable to say. It is several months since its leader in the press issued a call for the Democracy to "get together" on the Randall platform. Every Democratic State convention which has been held this year, all of which have assembled since that call was issued, has reaffirmed the national Democratic platform of last year, and most heartily approved President Cleveland's tariff-reform course. One of the former members of the Randall squad is now running for Governor of Ohio on such a tariff-reform platform. It might be timely for the Randall party to assemble and read a farewell address of some kind.

If Congressmen Reed and McKinley are thinking of taking the stump in Virginia in behalf of Mahone, they will have some awkward things to explain. They must, of course, support Mahone as the champion of an honest ballot and a fair count, and if they do this, they will be confronted with his record as a tissue-ballot operator when he was Chairman of a Democratic Congressional committee in 1876. He then sent out bundles of tissue ballots in size a little larger than postage-stamps, with orders that these only should be used by Democratic voters. The law then was that if the number of ballots in the boxes exceeded the number of names on the poll lists, one of the election judges should be blindfolded, and should draw out the number of ballots in excess. An excess was produced by the Democrats voting ten or twenty tissue ballots each. As the negroes voted large ordinary paper ballots, those were the ones which were drawn out by the blindfolded judge. Documents proving this device to have been invented and used by Mahone are in existence, and they will make defence of him awkward for Northern champions of the "poor negro" who take the stump for the "Little Napoleon of Readjustment," as that devout Blaine man, Mr. William Walter Phelps, once called him.

A convention is in session in New Mexico framing a constitution under which it is hoped that the Territory may come into the Union as a State. It is a waste of time. The last census showed that there were in New Mexico 108,721 white and 1,015 colored inhabitants, and that 60 per cent. of all persons above the age of ten years were unable to read. This being the case, a Republican Congress will refuse to admit the Territory, on the ground, so well stated by Mr. George F. Hoar of Massachusetts when New Mexico made a similar application fifteen years ago, that "when Congress is considering the question whether the people of a Territory shall be formed into a State of the Union, *the fact that they cannot perform the duties of American citizenship by voting intelligently on public questions*, the fact that the great body of them cannot understand the laws of the country, cannot read the discussions of political questions, cannot obtain information about their interests from newspapers or magazines, *constitutes a strong reason why we should require such a community to wait for admission until they are better prepared.*" If, however, the conditions were reversed, and New Mexico had 108,721 colored inhabitants against only 1,015 white, even if much more than 60 per cent. of them could not read, a Republican Congress would undoubtedly disregard the fact that "they cannot perform the duties of American citizenship by voting intelligently on public questions," and promptly admit a community of such ignorant people, on the

ground that they would of course always vote the Republican ticket, and thus give the party another Representative in the House, two additional members of the Senate, and three more Presidential electors.

The Indianapolis *Sentinel* shows the hypocrisy of the Republican cant about the negro by pointing out that, although at least 2,800 votes for Harrison were cast by colored men in Indianapolis, not one of the 175 clerical positions at the disposal of the Republican Federal officials whose headquarters are in Indianapolis is filled by a colored man, the only members of the race employed in any capacity being some colored men who are engaged about the several public buildings in scrubbing floors, cleaning spittoons, and performing other like menial services, which white politicians do not hanker after. It further points out that no colored man has ever been nominated by the Republicans for a State office in Indiana, that there are no colored mayors, sheriffs, auditors, treasurers, city or county clerks, or judges in Indiana, and never have been any, although about half of the counties are Republican—many of them only through the colored vote; and that, although Mr. Harrison has appointed a host of Federal officials in Indiana, not even so much as one little fourth-class post-office has been given to a negro.

The hardest blow which the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy" has yet suffered was administered by the Georgia Legislature last week. Georgia has been one of the most backward of all the Southern States in the matter of public education, showing a large percentage of illiteracy when the last census was taken, and yet appropriating only money enough to keep her schools open three months a year. Consequently Georgia has all along been a chief reliance of Blair, Mayo, and the other Northern men who have been advocating Federal aid to education in the South. "Look at Georgia," they would say. "That great State appropriates only money enough to keep her schools open three months in the year. The schools ought to be open six months, but that would take twice as much money, and the people cannot stand any heavier taxes than they pay now. The Federal Government must come to the rescue, and send from Washington the rest of the money needed to provide an efficient school system." We showed long ago that it was not lack of ability, but only lack of disposition, which prevented Georgia from making adequate appropriations for schools, and that the chief element in fostering this difficulty was the agitation of the Blair bill, which held out the hope of getting the money from the Treasury vaults at Washington, instead of taking it from the pockets of Georgians. The Legislature now confesses the entire truth of this statement, and covers with confusion Blair, Mayo, and the other advocates of mendicancy. On Wednesday week the Senate, by an almost unanimous vote, passed a bill, which is certain to go with equal ease through the House, doubling the length of the school term and correspondingly increasing the appropriations for the support of schools.

One would think that, with all the Federal offices of the city in the hands of sympathetic Machine Republicans, the Boys would be able to wait patiently till their turns came around to get something, but this is not the case in the Sixth Assembly District. The Republican Association of that district has adopted the following sentiment: "Resolved, That we express through the press our *oposition* to Civil Service as it now exists, *oporating* to the *benifit* of the political *oponants* of the Republican party." The Boys were so hungry with long waiting that they had forgotten how to spell—a misfortune which is known to happen to the best of people in times of great nervous strain or physical weariness. Any one can see what a formal obstacle a civil-service examination would be to patriots seeking places who were liable to lapses of this kind There was great suffering among the Tammany Boys from a similar affliction when they began to enter the civil-service examinations for municipal places, but, if latest accounts are trustworthy, they are able to pass now with almost miraculous ease.

The singing of "a song of welcome" to Mr. Depew on the tug on his arrival is a new feature of these occasions. The name usually given to a song of praise sung in the presence of the object is a hymn, and this one might as well be called so outright. It will have to be called so before long. In a very few years such hymns would be numerous enough to form a "collection," and might be announced by number and verse on the tug, and even "deaconed out," as the New Englanders say, two lines at a time. Mr. Depew's sensations in listening to the song must have been peculiar, because it is such an experience as few men have. We should think that at certain stages in the proceeding, if he have the stomach of most sensible men, he must have felt tempted to clear the tug of his admirers with his trusty walking-stick.

Dr. Allan McLane Hamilton did a good piece of work on Thursday in getting one Mann, the publisher of *Town Topics*, indicted and committed to the Tombs in default of bail for criminal libel. The continued existence and apparent prosperity of this paper are one of the great disgraces of the city. It might have been suppressed long ago if there were among its victims even half-a-dozen with as much pluck as Dr. Hamilton. But the clubs and individuals who buy it and study its disgusting contents are even more to blame than the scamp who gets his living out of it. Hundreds of people pore over its scandalous trash who ought to be ashamed of knowing its name—all because it professes to give "society gossip."

The demand of the London dock laborers that the 1,000 "blacklegs," or "scabs," as our strikers call them, who have been employed during the strike by the dock companies shall be forthwith dismissed, is a quick reduction to absurdity of the misery argument so freely used against the dock companies. The "blacklegs" are clearly worse off than the strikers, or they would not have accepted the work and wages which the strikers refused. If, therefore, the dock companies are bound to keep a certain number of men out of destitution, and if destitution gives an unanswerable claim to employment at a certain rate of pay, the position of the "blacklegs" is vastly stronger than that of the strikers. If Cardinal Manning were consistent, he would now be urging the dock companies not to yield to the strikers, and to shelter the blacklegs. The trouble with the London public is, that the strike has taken them unawares, as the earlier car strikes took us here. They are still in that pristine stage of thought in which, when Labor "demands" something, everybody admits that Labor must be right, else why should he make "the demand"? They have yet to learn, as we have learned, that Labor, like everybody else, is sometimes wrong; that it does not follow that because Labor is apt to be poor the employer is sure to be rich; that, as a matter of fact, most employers are poor and struggling, and that the doctrine that anybody who once employs a man must keep him as long as he pleases to stay at wages fixed by himself, is a monstrous doctrine; that this monstrous doctrine does not become rational because asserted by a strike, and that the misery argument, if used in a strike of unskilled labor, must be fatal to the strikers, if there are, as there usually are, other men waiting to take their places.

The Italians have done a grand thing in erecting, on the spot where he was burnt alive by the Papal Inquisition in Rome, a statue to Giordano Bruno, one of the precursors of modern intellectual freedom, and one of the noblest products of the Italian soil, that fruitful mother of great men. He predicted in his last moments, after years of imprisonment, the rehabilitation of his memory through the triumph of his ideas, and his countrymen have only done one of their most solemn duties in making provision for the perpetual remembrance of his martyrdom. They are finding full justification, if they needed any, in the furious denunciations of them, first by the Pope and then by the Catholic bishops, who are pouring torrents of their peculiar ecclesiastical vituperation on the memory of the murdered philosopher—who was, according both to Cardinal Gibbons and his brother of Montreal, Archbishop Fabre, "an enemy of God and virtue, a man without doctrine or morals, whose revolting crimes brought him under the condemnation of ecclesiastical and civil laws." Yes, and if Archbishop Fabre and his kind had their way to-day, there is hardly a man eminent in science, or literature, or philosophy who would not be "an enemy of God and virtue, a man without doctrine or morals," ripe for their gibbet and their stake. But, thanks to the Brunos of the world, we have clipped their claws, and made their sentences all "sound and fury, signifying nothing."

THE SUBSIDIZED PRESS.

We hardly expected when President Harrison appointed fifteen of the leading Republican editors to lucrative offices, in defiance of all the best traditions of constitutional government, that the inconvenience—to use a mild word—of the performance would so soon be felt. But it has been made abundantly manifest in the Tanner affair. The great use, we will not say of an independent, but of a friendly press to an administration lies in the warnings it is able to give the official class of the state of public opinion on any particular point. This function of the press is doubly valuable in this country, owing to the remoteness of our political capital from the great centres of affairs, and the consequent state of isolation from the currents of popular thought and feeling in which the President and the members of the Cabinet live. To officials in this position the comments on their doings of friendly critics, such as even strong party papers might furnish, would be invaluable, especially in times of such perplexity and tribulation as Tanner has created. Not only would such comments serve as a guide in shaping a policy, but they would furnish immense help in getting out of a scrape by making it appear that in his mode of getting out of it the President was obeying the voice of his own party. The Tanner trouble has been brewing a good while, and Tanner himself was aggravating it every week by his foolish speeches. The friendly remonstrances of the leading Republican newspapers, offered two or three months ago, might therefore either have stopped Tanner in his folly, or shown the President the necessity of putting some check on him before things came to a crisis.

Such friendly criticism, however, the President could not get from papers whose editors held office under him. They were all afraid of saying something to offend him, or which would seem indelicate coming from salaried men to their employer. Such leading Republican newspapers as the New York *Tribune*, Indianapolis *Journal*, *Iowa State Register*, Utica *Herald*, Detroit *Tribune*, Burlington *Hawkeye* (Iowa), Burlington *Free Press* (Vt.), Kennebec *Journal*, and Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser* were therefore condemned to silence during the whole of Tanner's rise and progress. The President could not learn from them, whom he would trust and listen to, what an unfit appointment it was and what risk he ran in making it of creating serious embarrassment for himself. They knew all this, but they dared not make it known lest he should "bounce" them as he bounces Democrats and Mugwumps. They were therefore silent as the grave during the whole of the Tanner controversy, or at most uttered some faint words of apology for Tanner or some half-hearted abuse of his assailants. So the President and Tanner both went blindly on, in ignorance of what the country was thinking and saying about them, until the explosion came.

The effect on the press itself of bribing the press is seen now to be also deplorable. Most of those who read such newspapers as the above read no others. All they know of what the great world is thinking or saying they get from their favorite organ. When that organ said nothing about Tanner, or if it said anything said something pleasant, the readers, of course, concluded that Tanner was "doing splendidly," and that everybody was satisfied with him. Now, when he is suddenly removed for gross unfitness, they discover that the Mugwump and Democratic papers have been protesting against his appointment and denouncing his doings all along. They therefore, naturally enough, infer that it is the Mugwumps and Democrats who have turned him out, and that the President has succumbed to their dictation, although their organ has kept constantly telling them for the last year that the Mugwumps were all dead. If, on the other hand, they hear nothing of the Mugwump and Democratic assaults, Tanner's removal must seem to them sudden and even capricious, their own organs having in no way prepared them for it, and the President must suffer accordingly in their estimation; whereas, had the organs done their duty, they would see in the removal the natural and unavoidable and meritorious correction of a mistake. No wonder that good Republican organ the Wheeling *Intelligencer* warned the Administration before the removal was made, that "the fire of the Mugwump and Democratic press would not be a good reason for it"—that is, a reason which the Administration could afford to give. But how many Republicans there must be in the rural districts who are unable to see any other reason.

The truth is, that of the many extraordinary things that President Harrison has done, none was so extraordinary as his publicly taking the leading editors of his own party into his pay. Nothing quite like it has ever occurred since the newspaper press became a power in parliamentary countries. Usually the first step taken by a régime which means to be corrupt in its methods is to purchase the silence or applause of the principal editors for cash, but it is generally done secretly. The money is called "a reptile fund," and the transaction only leaks out on criminal trials or in long-subsequent biographical revelations. It must stand to the eternal discredit of the American press that so many of its leading conductors were ready to take their pay openly, and not even in a lump sum, but in monthly instalments.

"THE NATION'S DEBT TO THE SOLDIER."

The audacious attempt of the Grand Army Machine to seize control of the United States Government, so far as its operations affect the interests of those who served in the Union Army during the civil war, promises to do a good deal towards clearing the air and leading to sound conclusions. It was high time that people should think seriously about the fundamental principles involved in the pension question, and they are bound to think when they find an organization of a few hundred thousand voters insisting upon the right to govern eleven millions of voters. There has been a great deal of loose talk about "the nation's debt to the soldier," and the public has good-naturedly kept quiet while demagogues have encouraged the members of the Grand Army to go on increasing their demands, until at last they assert their right to supreme control over the Treasury of the Union. The Tanner incident will serve the good purpose of causing people to stop and examine into the nature of this so-called debt, the collection of which the alleged creditors are pressing with such impudence.

Lincoln's first call for volunteers appealed to patriots throughout the North, and for some time after the firing on Fort Sumter the Union armies were filled with volunteers whose motives were as unselfish as ever carried men into the field. But as year after year passed, while the discipline and effectiveness of the Union forces steadily rose, the standard of the soldiers as unselfish patriots steadily sank. The appeal to patriotism no longer, as at first, sufficed to fill the quotas of the various States. It became necessary to offer larger and larger premiums to secure men whom patriotism alone would not impel into the ranks. Finally, even bounties of hundreds of dollars apiece would no longer serve the purpose. Men could not be bought to serve as soldiers in sufficient numbers, and force had to be used in many parts of the North. Thus the unselfish volunteer of 1861 was succeeded by the man who "figured on the problem" of getting shot, and was ready to take his chances if he could get enough hundred dollars in cold cash, and he in turn by the man who could not be hired to turn soldier by any number of hundred dollars, but had to be made to serve by "the strong arm of the Government" through the draft.

Anybody who lived in a village of any Northern State during the civil war can recall personal cases which illustrate the steady lowering of the tone of those who went from it into the army as the years passed. Of course, there were exceptions—cases where men of the truest patriotism did not volunteer at first, because family duties seemed to demand their presence at home, and finally came to recognize the call of the country as superior; but these exceptions only prove the rule that the men who joined the army in 1863, 1864, and 1865 did not rank anywhere near so high in the scale of patriotism as those who enlisted in the first year or two of the struggle.

Truth requires the further statement that many of these later accessions to the Union Army were not merely lacking in patriotism, but that they were also worthless and often vicious characters. These were the men who formed the class of "bounty-jumpers," in their attempts to get more than one premium for their enlistment; who feigned illness and sought the hospital in times of danger; who could never be depended upon if they were forced into an engagement; who were ready to desert at the first opportunity. They were a source of constant anxiety to their commanders, and of constant disgust to their patriotic and courageous comrades. Unhap-

pily, the number of this class was not small, as any candid observer will testify. In an army where the enlistments rose into the millions, the soldiers who have no claim whatever to be called patriots must have been tens, and even hundreds, of thousands.

The politicians who cater to "the soldier vote" have always kept these ugly facts out of sight. They have flattered the vanity of the class by telling them that every soldier was a patriot to whom "the country owes a debt which it can never pay," and that they ought to demand whatever partial payments they would like. Too many newspapers have sustained this position of the stump-speakers. The result is, that the Grand Army Machine has come to demand whatever it wants. Major William Warner, who was its choice for Tanner's successor, and consequently was offered the place by the President, in a speech at the recent Milwaukee encampment declared for a pension to every man who served for any length of time in the army, and insisted that "these men"—the bounty-jumpers, the shirks, the cowards, the deserters, as well as the brave patriots—"have claims upon the State at least equal to that of the bondholders."

It was high time to call a halt in this mad rush of demagogism and rapacity. Happily, the Tanner incident promises to serve this purpose. Everything connected with the affair helps to bring out in strong relief the degradation of the soldier ideal by the Grand Army Machine, and the danger to the State from the growing power of this Machine. The very fact that such a worthless fellow as Tanner was the favorite of this Machine, and was forced by it upon the President for an office which he was notoriously incompetent to fill, was of itself enough to open people's eyes. The circumstances of his removal will arrest the attention of the nation. When it was reported that he was to be turned out, despatches of this sort began pouring in upon him from Grand Army men in various parts of the country:

"Eighty-two thousand Republican majority in Kansas demands your retention in office. Hold the fort, for we are coming! The loyal sentiment is with you."

"Don't surrender to the brigadiers; the G. A. R. is with you. You are doing right. Don't be bulldozed."

"Bully for you, Jim. You are doing exactly right, and if Harrison interferes with you, he'll hear from us."

"The survivors of the Union Army in this vicinity congratulate you upon your splendid administration of the Pension Office. We cannot believe that President Harrison will dispense with you. If he does, we will see him later."

"The G. A. R. boys here are with you to a man. You are the first enlisted man to be given a prominent office. We want you to hold it. Do not be intimidated by the shoulder-straps."

"We are with you. If the Administration does not sustain you fully, good-by Foraker."

"You are the pride and joy of the G. A. R. Don't surrender. Don't resign. Harrison dare not remove you."

"By the removal of Mr. Tanner," says Major Merrill, of Massachusetts, a former commander of the Grand Army, "the President has aroused the indignation of Grand Army men all over the country." So great is this indignation, and the consequent danger of the President who aroused it, that it is reported—and there is nothing incredible about the report—that it has been thought prudent to surround Gen. Harrison with detectives, to protect him from possible personal assaults at the hands of wrathful Grand Army men.

Such ugly facts as these will do a great deal more than any amount of argument to show how much humbug there has been in the talk about "the nation's debt to the soldier." The plain fact is, that there are a great many soldiers to whom the nation owes no gratitude at all. They became soldiers from greed or necessity, rather than from patriotism, and did their best to avoid all danger of getting hurt. If they were, nevertheless, wounded or disabled in service, they should be given pensions, because the Government contracted to give pensions in such cases; but that is all which should be done for them. To give every bummer or coward whose name appears on the army rolls $12 a month for the rest of his life, which is what a service pension means, would be the grossest of outrages against patriotism itself.

WHAT SHALL WE SAY TO THE SOUTH AMERICANS?

When one has invited twenty gentlemen to come to his house and discuss with him any topic any one of the invited may propose, it is not to be expected that when the gentlemen have assembled, the host will peremptorily exclude any topic. The United States, by a solemn piece of legislation, have invited delegates from South America, Central America, Hayti, and Santo Domingo, to join delegates from our North America (including Mexico), to convene in Washington for a conference over topics enumerated in the law, and also over any other topic any invited State may suggest. It has been recently put about from Washington that the State Department will endeavor to exclude political topics, and confine discussion and action to economic topics, such as increasing the markets for the products of each State. A "customs union" is one of the objects specified in the law. It is an object political as well as diplomatic. If Mexico or Central America (including the five States of Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador), or the Republic of Colombia, wish the Conference to discuss and act on the Monroe doctrine or the neutralization (in the interest of Europe) of a canal at Panama or at Nicaragua, who besides a majority of the States represented can say "Nay"? Assuming that the Monroe doctrine and canal neutralization are among the topics to be by the United States suppressed if presented in the Conference, there will remain a topic which is included in the objects for which the Conference has been convened, and in which some of the States invited are intensely interested. It is the impediment in the way of the coming of South American wools into our markets—an impediment interposed by the severe customs tax, averaging some 40 per cent. ad valorem, thereon levied at our ports.

One of the governments invited—and one is enough to illustrate what we say—is that of the Argentine Republic, with an area of one million and a half of square miles, a territory as large as all central and western Europe combined, and an increasing population, now not less than 3,000,000, and a chief city of over a fifth of a million. That population is largely of European birth. There are over 200,000 Europeans in one of the fourteen provinces. The republic has now more than 18,000,000 horned cattle, and not far from 140,000,000 sheep, of which last at least one-quarter are owned by Scotchmen and Irishmen. The quantity of wool, cereals, hides, and tallow which the Argentine Republic will, in the near future, have for sale to foreigners, cannot now be estimated by anybody, so vast is the promise of the country. There are experts who predict that the Argentine Republic can and will supply the world's demand for wool, and by that competition woollens and worsteds will, in the end, be cheaper relatively than cottons.

What will our delegates to this Conference be directed by our President Harrison to answer when, by the orders of the President of the Argentine Republic, his delegates address our delegates thus: "Your Government has invited the Argentine Republic here to say what it wishes done to increase the sale of Argentine products in the markets of the United States of North America. In response to your courteous invitation we say that we ask that your customs tax on wool be removed. If you say that, under the favored-nation clauses in your treaties, you cannot treat us better than you treat Australia and other wool-producers, then we ask that *all* imported wool be untaxed by your Congress"?

Although experts differ, there is a tendency of proof to show that there are only two really distinct varieties of sheep, the long-wooled and the short-wooled, from which come woollens and worsteds. Of both of these Prof. Archer gives thirty-two original varieties, four of which he apportions to Europe, fifteen to Asia, eleven to Africa, and only two to America, namely, the West Indian sheep found in Jamaica and the Brazilian sheep. The Spanish or merino type is by every one put first. Spain has fallen off as a wool-producing country, and because her merino type has been transplanted. It is due to George III. that this splendid breed came to England. The first English Merino Society was formed in 1811. Australia never had native sheep, but now she exports over 1,283,350 bales of wool. The British Kingdom, the Australian colonies, and the Cape have now 115,000,000 sheep and a clip of 600,000,000 pounds of wool. France had, in 1885, only 22,616,547 sheep. Spain has fewer than France. In all the dominions of Russia there were in 1882 only 51,689,088 sheep. Germany has 22,000,000, Austria nearly 4,000,000, Italy 8,596,108, Sweden and Denmark and Norway only 4,500,000. All Europe has only 171,866,965. The United States (ourselves) had in 1885 only 48,322,331. British North America has only about 3,000,000. So that, apart from Europe and Australia, the country most in prominence now in wool production is the

Argentine Republic and the region of the La Plata. Already the Argentine Republic is only the second government in supplying wools, the chief part of which are of the merino type. The Argentine fleece is rapidly increasing in weight, and improved methods are making it more cleanly. The La Plata Valley and the Argentine Republic have now quite three times as many sheep as we have. Of 58,000,000 sheep in 1883 in one province, Buenos Ayres had 32,000,000 belonging to Argentines, 18,000,000 to Irishmen and Scotchmen, and 8,000,000 to other nationalities. Formerly Argentine wool could not be used, excepting for common fabrics, but now it has a more clean and a firmer staple. There are many sanguine persons who believe that if the Argentine Republic can have an end of revolt and revolution, and if mechanical contrivances for cleaning the wools go on as recently, the future of wool-growing is hers, and she can supply the wool-consumption of the world, and, by greatly reduced prices, defy competition.

What she wishes of us a blind man can see. Will President Harrison, Secretary Blaine, and a Republican Congress give to her free trade with us in wool, if she will give to us free trade in all the things we can make or produce? If not, why did we invite her to our Congress of the three Americas?

SPANISH-AMERICAN NATIONALITY.

An element of great importance in the question of our commercial relations with South America is the intense and growing spirit of nationality cherished by the rulers and the people of the leading Powers of Spanish America, and their unbounded hopes of future development. This element has been too much neglected by our press, and, it is to be feared, by the promoters of the coming Conference at Washington. Indeed, our common manner of speech in reference to South American trade runs against this rising sense of nationality with peculiar offensiveness. We speak about our purpose to "capture" a large part of that trade. Our Congressmen give notice that we are going to "seize" upon some of the profits which European exporters to the lands south of us are now enjoying. Nothing could be more fatuous. Let any one read the official literature of the principal countries of South America, and he will everywhere meet with the language of a strenuous national pride—a language that finds its best parallel in the bumptiousness and touchiness of our own public documents of about 1840.

Take the following, translated from the message of President Celman to the Argentine Congress, May, 1887:

> "With our spirits calmed after the agitation caused by the last electoral contest, we may pause a moment to trace the road hitherto traversed by the republic, and to examine with serenity her present situation, in order that we may pursue with renewed zeal that path of labor which is the law of every life, and that we may do it under the stimulus of the progress already achieved and of the magnificent destiny to which the future calls us. If we glance over the vast extent of our territory, we shall discover on every hand a people unmistakably devoted to labor, to the supremacy of peace, and to the sovereignty of the law—a people growing rich at a rapid rate, while giving great attention to education and making advance in the truest prosperity, strong in the consciousness of their sovereign rights and accustomed to exercise them peacefully, a people in whom the national sentiment is daily strengthening."

Even Venezuela has enough of the same spirit to inspire her Secretary of State to speak of his country as determined to defend her rights to "that section of South America which is clearly reserved, as by a providential dispensation, to be the emporium of that America to which the Spanish discoverers applied the name of El Dorado, in view of its natural greatness and inexhaustible resources."

Nor is this all froth—at least not in the cases of Chili, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic, the three friendly competitors for the supremacy of South America. The immense quickening of their trade and development of their natural resources and extension of their systems of internal improvement rival in rapidity and proportions anything our own country has ever known. They feel that the future is theirs, and that it is secure. The streams of European emigration are now turning their way. European capital is poured freely into their hands. Their unoccupied lands are being rapidly taken up. Marauding Indian tribes are being driven beyond their frontiers. Political affairs are settling down into stability. National credit is better than ever before. If their social life is yet crude and their public education deficient, that is a help rather than a hindrance to a swollen feeling of national pride based upon material wealth.

There can be no doubt that they have this pride in a high degree; and we have only to reflect how we should have regarded talk of the patronizing kind we indulge in towards them, if it had been addressed to us in 1840, to understand the mingled rage and resentment with which they read the indiscreet utterances of some of our public men. For our history and our institutions they have the greatest regard; our inventive and manufacturing skill they are eager to utilize and imitate; our trade they would welcome on fair terms. But they are bound to maintain their national dignity. They will be neither hoodwinked nor coerced, and many things make them think we should like to both hoodwink and coerce them. Certainly they are in a position to declare their commercial independence so far as we are concerned. And it cannot be too strongly impressed upon our diplomatists and business men that any measures proposed to enlarge our South American trade which are not conceived in a spirit of the truest deference to the feeling of nationality which is as near the hearts of South Americans as our own, are foredoomed to failure.

COLLEGES WITHOUT TEMPTATION.

We have received an inquiry from an anxious mother, on her own behalf and that of others similarly situated, whether we can recommend a college "where the professors make a persistent, united effort to save the students from the temptation to drink," and whether we know of any college "which has any sufficient safeguards against this temptation." We have no difficulty in saying frankly that we do not. We know of no college where the professors "make a persistent and united effort" to save a young man from any temptation, except by setting him a good example. We are not quite sure that we know what our correspondent means by "a persistent and united effort." There are only two things that it can mean: one is preaching temperance to the young man, and the other is watching him so that he can get nothing intoxicating to drink, or can only get it with great difficulty. We all know by experience that preaching temperance to young men is not a very effective preventive, and yet this is all that professors can reasonably be expected to do. They cannot watch young men night and day to see that they get hold of no liquors. They could not do so at all unless they had the students under military discipline and restraint, as at West Point. As matters stand, the teaching work of professors takes all their time, and all their time is not enough. If they had to add police work to their professional work, life would be intolerable to them, and neither work would be well done. We may also add that they are very inadequately paid for what they do now.

We will now go a little further, and say that in our opinion parents who expect to devolve on other people the task of keeping their sons out of temptation after they reach the collegiate age, would do well to keep them at home. Keeping young men of the collegiate age out of temptation is essentially parents' work. It cannot be delegated or imposed on anybody else, except, as we have said, by putting the youth in barracks under military discipline. No civil college in this country is properly organized for any such duty. The professor is a teacher, but not a guardian in the proper sense of that term. His business is to teach young men who want to learn, and get rid of them if they will not learn. It is not his business to keep them out of harm's way by any extraordinary precautions. If parents think their son is unequal to the temptations to which the inevitable freedom of college life exposes him, the proper remedy is not to commit his morals to the care of a poor, hard-worked professor, who is already staggering under the weight of his didactic load, but to keep the youth at home. A youth who needs watching, who cannot be trusted to walk the streets alone, is best and most effectively watched by his father and mother. Their espionage is the only espionage which will not demoralize him, and their remonstrances on his manners and excesses are the remonstrances most likely to prove effectual. No professor can play the detective very long without serious injury to his influence as a teacher, and without developing a certain pride on the part of the students in getting the better of him.

Expectations such as our correspondent entertains about college discipline are, in our mind, based on a wholly mistaken view of the function of colleges, and one to which the colleges themselves have given too much

countenance. Parents who have never attempted to maintain any discipline in their own households, and who bring up their boys without reverence, without refinement, and without self-restraint, expect to get rid of the responsibility for their morals, when the age of puberty comes, by packing them off to college, and charging the professors with the duty of seeing not only that they are diligent in their studies, but also virtuous in their lives. There is no college in the country fit for any such task. It is an abuse of collegiate funds and discipline to undertake it, and we, for our part, hope to see the day when no college will pretend, as some of them do now, to undertake it. The next great step in advance in collegiate education in this country will, we believe, be the resolute shutting of the doors on all boys who are not eager to learn, and who are not willing, while at college, to lead scholastic lives. The waste of endowments and of professors and libraries and laboratories in this country on drones and dunces and idlers is now enormous. Every college has a large proportion of young men who go there either to amuse themselves or to secure the social *cachet* of a degree, and to whom neither punishments nor remonstrances can give a serious turn. Employing professors to lecture to them and mark them and scold them, is a terrible waste of time, labor, and money. They ought to be got rid of very promptly. Colleges should be reserved for studious men about whom their mothers and fathers are not anxious, and to whom the opportunities which college life gives are a precious boon, and who in college contract or confirm habits of industry. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that one-third of the young men who go to college now lose the habits of industry they have acquired at school, and come out into the world, with their degree, less fitted for continuous labor than when they went in.

Of course it is in most cases difficult to say how college life will affect any particular youth until he has tried it. Many a man goes into college studious, and soon becomes idle; many another goes in lazy, and becomes studious and industrious. The experiment has often to be made before any final decision can be reached. But fathers and mothers ought to make up their minds once for all that the college is the world; that when a boy goes to college, he starts in life just as when he goes into business. If they think he cannot safely as yet be exposed to the ordinary temptations of life, the parental roof is the best place for him. If he will not keep out of the dramshop for his mother's or father's sake, he will not do it for the sake of the president or professors.

Anxious parents who are looking for colleges without temptation, might readily get a great deal of comfort by studying French experience in this matter. In France the watching system to the fullest extent exists. Every dormitory has "a judas" in the door through which "the rector" can peep at the young hopefuls at all hours. The students are never out of sight of the authorities, and their morals are looked after with as much care as the fondest mother could desire. The failure of this system on the moral side is acknowledged on all hands, and in fact it seems to be kept up rather for the sake of the masters and parents than for that of the youths. It is held to be the duty of elders to watch the young, and they do it for the good of their own souls, no matter what the effect on the young may be. If parents would use more discretion in deciding whether their boys are fit for college on the moral side, we should hear fewer denunciations of professors for letting them go astray. This is essentially the parent's duty. And it is also his duty to take the boy away from college promptly as soon as he discovers the youth does not care for it, or likes it simply for the good-fellowship and the games.

WASHINGTON AS AN EMPLOYER OF LABOR.

WASHINGTON, August 9, 1889.

THE study of the economy of a Virginian plantation in colonial days has been thus far of a very superficial character, and is generally summed up by the assertion that the extravagance of the planter ran him in debt to the factor, and in the end compelled him to sacrifice his estates. This is true of many examples that could be cited, but it is not true of the really well-conducted plantation; and the examination of some early plantation records and accounts of Washington may prove of advantage in showing that executive talent was all that was required to bring the planter to opulence. It will be impossible to treat in one article all the interesting points raised by these ledgers, as carefully and neatly kept as if he were a bookkeeper in a banking-house, whose position depended upon his accuracy and clear penmanship. One subject may be presented—the labor employed on a plantation.

Washington, it should be remembered, at first occupied Mount Vernon as a tenant, for Lawrence Washington had left the estate to his widow during her lifetime. From 1755 to 1761 he paid a rent to Mrs. George Lee (the widow having again married) for the Mount Vernon tract and slaves upon it, a rent that averaged about £87 a year. What the exact size of the estate was at Lawrence's death I have not been able to determine; but in 1760 Washington paid quit-rents on 1,250 acres in King George County; on 2,626 acres in Fairfax County, all of which were included in the Mount Vernon estate; on 2,315 acres in Frederick, and 240 acres in Hampshire. So that at the time of making his return (May, 1760), he was in the possession or use of 6,431, situated in four counties—certainly a goodly property for one under twenty-nine years of age.

The care of such an estate required much labor, and it is certain that the young owner used every acre of land to the best advantage. Personal supervision of so widely scattered holdings was out of the question, and to overseers was intrusted the management of the outlying properties, but they were subject to Washington's orders in all things. This division of management became more necessary as the estates were enlarged; and as Washington was an eager though shrewd buyer of land, large additions were made each year. So that we find in 1769 that he held in the northern neck alone (including the counties of Fairfax, Frederick [afterwards Berkeley], King George, Hampshire, Loudoun, and Fauquier) upwards of 12,260 acres—a possession nearly double what was noted ten years before. This takes no account of his active speculation in lands on the Ohio, where, in his own right and by purchase, he held claims to many thousands of as yet unlocated lands, or to his thousands in the Dismal Swamp. The cultivation of even a part of this estate required much care, attention, and labor, and the number of help in one form or another was not inconsiderable. The returns to the tax and levy collectors give some clue to the number, as the slave paid the same tax as the white freeman. In 1760, forty-nine taxables were returned from all the holdings; in 1770, the taxables on the Fairfax County estates alone amounted to 135.

This labor was of three kinds: the slave, the indentured servant, and the hired laborer. The slave was, of course, purchased generally in open market, or from some recently arrived "Guinea" ship, whose owners were probably New England merchants who participated in that circle of commercial profit—horses and cows to the West Indies, sugar from the West Indies to New England, rum from New England to the coast of Africa, blacks from Africa to the Southern Colonies and West Indies. A "likely" slave was worth in Virginia in 1754-60 about £50. In 1756 Washington bought of the Governor a negro woman and slave for £60, and two years before a negro woman, Clio, for £50. The possession, then, of forty blacks represented in itself quite a fortune for those days. But it was also the custom to "hire" slaves, especially skilled slaves who had been taught some "art or mystery" which made them very acceptable on a plantation, where all the everyday wants had to be supplied in some way from within, as importation required all of six months, and an uncertain satisfaction at that. Ten pounds a year, payable in Virginia currency, or in tobacco—that better medium of exchange, because exportable—were a fair wage for such a slave. In one instance I find that Washington obtained the use of three—two men and a woman—for £20, or 2,800 pounds of tobacco a year; but the labor must have been of a very ordinary kind to come so cheap.

For ordinary field-work, slave labor was suitable; for other tasks a better and more intelligent quality was needed, and this was supplied by indentured or "covenant" servants, and by hired whites. The covenant servant agreed to serve a captain or "his assigns" for a certain number of years (generally five), on condition of being taken to America. This arrangement was thus a composition for the passage, and, on arrival in one of the colonies, the servant was sold for the time covenanted to the highest bidder. For that time he became a possession of his buyer, and, as the prices for servants were not extravagant, and they were usually of an intelligent description, they readily found a market for their talents. It is said that Washington himself received his early training at the hands of an indentured servant, and that Archibald Alexander, whose descendants have maintained the reputation he acquired, was taught the rudiments of Latin by such an one. In Maryland, just before the defeat of Braddock, when the British recruiting officers did not hesitate to take indentured servants for the ranks, Gov. Sharpe, in his protest, asserted that "the planters' fortunes here consist in the number of their servants (who are purchased at high rates), much as the estates of an English farmer do in the multitude of cattle." In the previous war, indentured servants had been impressed in the New England colonies to garrison the frontier posts; and such was the demand for this quality of labor that England contracted for the transportation of her felons and convicts to the colonies, to be sold for a

term of years as servants. When the Revolution put a stop to that vent for this questionable merchandise, galleys were constructed on the Thames, and to them were the malefactors consigned, unless, as it was stated, they were sent to the ranks to fight against the colonists. The indentured servant has not received the attention from economists that he deserves, being between the slave and the hired freeman, and an important factor in a slave-holding community. I shall return to him in a later article.

The hired freeman may have been some indentured servant whose period of servitude had expired, and who preferred to continue at his trade in preference to taking up land in the back country and starting out for himself. He was hired by the year, at wages depending upon his skill, but ranging from £20 to £40 a year. A house servant received less in money. John Alton and Thomas Bishop, body servants of Washington, received £10 and £13 a year respectively, and, of course, all the necessaries of life, save clothing. In 1756, Bishop's wages were given at £6 and clothing, certainly not exorbitant pay, as gauged by modern rates. A joiner engaged to work on the estate for one year—"that is to say, he shall work duly from sunrise to sunset allowing proper times only for eating, and if he shall lose any time at his said work either by negligence, sickness, or private business of his own, the days and hours so lost are to be made up at the year's end." For that he was to receive £25, a house, and "good and wholesome provisions." That was a contract made in 1759. In 1770 a blacksmith received £32, a house, and provisions. In 1771 a carpenter was hired for ten months for £25, a house, 300 pounds of pork, and three barrels of corn. A gardener received £25, "washing, lodging, and diet," for he was to be on the home plantation. The highest wages noted are those of a miller—£80 a year and some plantation produce. In harvest time whites were hired for 5 shillings a day, and a bonus of $3 for coming, as many of them were hired from distant places.

The pay and duties of an overseer were of a more complex nature. Edward Violett, planter, was placed over the Bullskin Plantation in Frederick County as overseer. He was enjoined to "use his utmost endeavors to make a large and good crop of tobacco, corn, and what else may be required"; to take all necessary and proper care of the negroes on the place, using them with humanity and discretion; to take "all imaginable care of the stock," and exert his utmost skill and industry to raise of each sort as many as he can; he was to make as much butter as possible from the milk of the cows, to prepare the tobacco for the market so "that it may appear at inspection as clean and as neat as tobacco well can"; the corn was to be measured out "with the greatest fugality" as needed; he was to furnish a bed, and keep no horse. For this he was to receive two clear shares of the tobacco and grain, some pork and a young steer, and four shoats; and his wife, one-fourth of the butter made. The value of these allowances ranged from £27 to £34 a year, so that, with all his increased responsibilities, the wages of the overseer was nearly what a carpenter or gardener received. These are merely the general outlines of the contracts, many details being omitted.

Was this system of labor profitable? In the case of one occupation I find unusually detailed statements that are interesting. All weaving was done on the estate by Thomas Davies, and an account was minutely kept of the day on which the thread was delivered, the weight of the thread, the time occupied in weaving; the length, breadth, weight, and number of hundreds in the width; the price per yard and the "shute" or filling required. This item of weaving was by no means a small one in the estate's accounts. In 1768 Washington had made on his own account 815¾ yards of linen cloth, 365¼ yards of woollen, 144½ yards of linsey, and 40 yards of cotton, making a total of 1,365½ yards, the cost of spinning and weaving of which was £30 15s. 10d., no account being taken of the cost of the materials used. But attached to this statement occurs one of those memoranda which go far to show the particular bent of Washington's mind. He enters into an estimate of the comparative cost of manufacturing and importing these 1,365½ yards, and its results do not show much of a balance in favor of the home industry. For he could have imported them for £105.7.3, and the cost of making on the plantation was £76.7.4, leaving a balance of £28.19.11, which he notes "is all that is to defray the expence of spinning, hire of one white woman and 5 negroe girls, cloathing, victualling, wheels, etc." The product of the home loom must also have been of an inferior quality, yet one cannot but be surprised at the kinds of fabrics made; for in this statement I find mentioned striped woollen, woollen plaided, cotton striped, linen, wool-birdseye, cotton filled with wool, linsey, M.'s & O.'s, cotton-India dimity, cotton jump stripe, linen filled with tow, cotton striped with silk, Roman M., Janes twilled, huccabac, broadcloth, counterpain, birdseye diaper, Kirsey wool, barragon, fustian, bed-ticking, herring-box and shalloon (I give his spelling in each case). That is the only estimate that can now be cited.

Not the least interesting part of these contracts is the care which Washington displayed in obtaining help of good character. The men are expressly enjoined to "behave themselves soberly and diligently, in all respects endeavoring by a prudent and commendable conduct to gain the good esteem and liking of their employer." One man was received into service without a proper recommendation; Washington stipulated that it may and shall be lawful "if he should hear anything disadvantageous of the man's character, or find him in any respect dishonest or unfaithful, or if upon tryal he should prove idle and negligent, either in his own work or in looking after those who may be put under his charge," to turn him off at any time. The overseers were ordered to prevent the negroes from running about or visiting without his consent, and also to forbid strange negroes frequenting their quarters without lawful excuses for so doing. One overseer is informed that "there are a number of whiskey stills very contiguous to the plantation, and many idle, drunken, and dissolute people continually resorting the same, priding themselves in debauching sober and well-inclined persons," and is laid under a promise to "avoid them as he ought."

In spite of his care, however, he sometimes got hold of some hard characters. In one case where an overseer worked two horses so as to be unfit for plantation purposes, he became "my rascally overseer." John Beard, a wagoner, "after driving my waggon about 4 months at the rate of £17.10 per annum, behaved so remarkably ill as to oblige me to turn him off, not before I had first sustained some loss by his running me in debt in many places of the road he used to travel." John Winter, a painter, "before he had near finished painting my house, stole a good deal of my paint and oyl, and apprehensive of justice ran off." In 1774 he advertised two runaway servants, one a joiner and the other a brickmaker, offering a reward of forty dollars for their return. Careful manager as he was, the indolence and shiftless behavior of his help were a severe trial to him, and his journals give evidence of occasional outbursts of indignation. At the same time there are more frequent records of his kindness to his servants, of his care for them when sick, and of his thoughts for their comfort and welfare.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

VI.—THE RETROSPECTIVE EXHIBITION OF FRENCH ART.

PARIS, August 14, 1889.

FOR two men at least, the Retrospective Exhibition is a veritable triumph—Millet and Corot. Especially interesting just at this time, when the fame of "The Angelus" has been spread abroad—and it has been proclaimed far and near as *the* masterpiece of Millet—is the collection of thirteen of his pictures brought together at this exhibition. The most important of the works of his earlier period, "The Finding of Œdipus" ("Œdipe détaché de l'arbre," Salon of 1847), is here, together with a smaller picture of the same epoch, "Nymph and Satyr"; and the series is closed with "Peasants Bringing in a Calf Born in the Fields" (Salon of 1864), and "Sheepfold—Moonlight" (Universal Exposition of 1867). It includes "The Sheepshearer" (Salon of 1853), "The Hog-Killing," "The Gleaners" (Salon of 1857), and the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe" (Salon of 1863). These celebrated pictures, together with five others of less importance, form such an exhibition of Millet's work as has not been seen since the one made after his death in 1875. Whether we consider him as the subtle colorist, the painter of luminous flesh, the master of glowing light, and of clear transparent shadow, in the semi-classical work of the earlier period, or as the poet-painter of peasants' toil, investing his subjects with the true sentiment of the fields, and interpreting with sympathetic feeling and virile brush the ever-changing beauty, the lovely harmonies of nature in earth and air, in the later one, when his glorious talent reached its full development, we are overpowered by the greatness of the man, and lost in admiration of such consummate art. "The Sheepshearer," a young peasant woman with a pair of shears in her hand, clipping the wool from a sheep stretched out on a table before her, is one of the first works painted by Millet in his second period. It is an important work, though more ordinary in color than later pictures, resembling in its scheme of reds and blues "La Fileuse," a celebrated picture owned in America. "The Hog-Killing" and "Bringing Home the Calf" are chiefly remarkable for puissant color, the first being of the half-dozen most noted of his works. "The Sheepfold," with its wonderful effect of light from the rising moon, is a piece of painting that is simply marvellous in its way, and, with "The Haystacks," "Cousin Village," and "Sheep Pens," shows very well Millet's successful treatment of landscape.

It is useless to attempt to describe the varying charm of each of these works. These simple indications of their subjects and treatment, and their dates, will suffice to give the reader who is familiar with some of Millet's work an idea of the completeness with which he is represented here. I must say something more than this about the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe," a picture widely known by reproductions in etching and photography, that curiously

naïve composition, with the figure in the middle of the squarish canvas, and the head coming nearly to the top of it; awkward it seems at first. But the peasant is not a shapely figure; he is uncouth and heavy-looking, and, with his hands laid one on the other on the handle of the hoe, and his head raised from his bent figure, he is the type of a hard-worked, drudging tiller of the soil. That we should be impressed by the severity of his toil, not pityingly (for the man is strong and horny-handed) but understandingly, taking in, like him, something of the feeling of his plodding labor and the smell of the earth and the fresh air in the wide open fields, is what Millet strove for; and is it not expressed and does it not reach us when we look at this bare-headed man, in his coarse clothes, with his heavy sabots sinking in the soft earth, alone in the broad plain, with only the birds for companions? And how admirably the picture is painted! The color is sober and deep—no positive tints, no contrasts, but a full harmony of quiet brown and gray; a sobriety that is almost sadness.

But even with such pictures as this we have not seen Millet in all his greatness. There is a picture here to which "The Sower" and "The Angelus" must give way—a picture that gathers all that is best and greatest of his qualities, one of those works of a great artist that leaves nothing unsaid that he has said in his other works, and yet says more. If one of Millet's pictures is to be marked as his masterpiece, it can only be "The Gleaners." There is a wheat-field and three women bending to gather the stray stalks of grain that the reapers have missed; there is a flat stretch of stubble, and in the distance long rows of shocks and laborers at work; there is some red and blue, I think, in the women's dresses, and there is hazy sunshine and a dull blue sky. Across the fields where the peasants are at work there are some white notes—the women's caps, probably. This is what you see when you look at the picture. There are people at work in the fields, and the figures of the three women in the foreground impress you as you see them bent over, two leaning low with their fingers grasping the stalks that lie on the stubble, one less bent and holding her thin bunch in her hands. Then you feel the hazy sunshine, and you hear the far-off hum of the other workers. When you awaken, if you are a painter yourself, you go up to the canvas to see how it is done, and you come away not very much the wiser. Still, you will have noticed that the technique is simple, that it is not painted to show the way it is painted, that it is unobtrusive in handling in every part of the canvas, and that in color the picture inclines to blonde tints. You will observe that the distance is enveloped in air, and that the skyline at the dusty horizon is almost lost, and you will perceive that in some sort of a magic way the painter has placed everything in the most perfect harmony of line, value, and color. Further than that you will discover but little, and to describe the picture you cannot do much more than to say that you have noticed these things. You can only wonder at the marvellous art. Millet certainly never painted another such picture, and nobody else has painted a better one. It is the greatest picture in the Exhibition, and one of the great works of art of the world.

We are accustomed to seeing Corots in New York. There are some in every collection that comes under the hammer of the auctioneer; every club exhibition has three or four; every dealer in town can show you an assortment. But, as we well know, no small number of them are not Corots at all, but imitations; many of them, though authentic, are insufficient sketches and studies. Here at the Retrospective Exhibition are no less than forty-three —forty-three real Corots. It is not possible in the limits of this letter even to name them all; suffice it to say that it is the most complete and comprehensive collection of his works, beginning with a large study of a wood interior, carefully painted in his earliest manner (the canvas is dated 1830), and including landscapes and some figure pieces painted at different periods of his career down to his latest works in the seventies. Here is a delightful "View of La Rochelle" (Salon of 1852), a perfect piece of painting of white walls and quays in the soft sunshine, with the water of the harbor in tender pale grays, and the sky with white clouds and a patch of airy blue. Here are three beautiful landscapes side by side: "The Lake—Italy," "Evening," and "Dance of the Nymphs"—delicious pictures, as charming as they are truthful and full of light and air. Here are the familiar motives from Ville d'Avray, as "The Pond" and "The Punt"; and here is another sort of motive in the "Forest of Fontainebleau," treated with the same regard for truthfulness and the same feeling for the character of the scene and the same tenderness in expression. But even leaving aside all these, and others almost as fine as they are, there is enough in three pictures placed together on one of the walls to place Corot at the head of landscape painters. In the middle hangs a canvas rather over the usual size of most of Corot's pictures, about five feet in length and nearly as high. It is called "Biblis," and has for its subject an open space in the wood, a little valley with grassy slopes and a tiny stream running through it in the foreground. Under the trees at the left is indicated a little figure of Biblis, the nymph who was changed into a spring, which explains the title of the picture. The effect is that of early evening, a little after sunset. Here, again, as with the Millet, description completely fails. There are the most wonderful atmosphere, the most beautiful color harmonies, the most unobtrusive painting—one of the most enchanting landscapes ever seen. Indeed, it is doubtful if any painter ever produced one as beautiful. It is the most beautiful Corot I have ever seen, and I cannot think of any other picture to equal it. Claude seems empty and vapid, Poussin stiff and theatrical, and Corot's great contemporaries, Daubigny, Rousseau, and Diaz, seem earthy and human, in comparison with this divinity in landscape painting. Its two companions, hung on either side, "The Charette" and "Crossing the Ford," though they are noble works of Corot's best period and in themselves beautiful pictures, the one of morning, the other of quiet afternoon light, lose value by the proximity of this wonderful work of the master.

After Millet and Corot in the famous group of painters who were their contemporaries, Troyon is the next most important figure at the Retrospective Exhibition. There is no one work by him here that can be called his best, though there is one remarkably fine one, a grand landscape with cattle, "The Valley of La Touque"; a smaller picture, identical in composition with the celebrated "Morning" in the Louvre; a fine farm landscape with cows at milking time, "Pasture in Normandy"; and another of a shady road at morning, with a peasant girl riding behind a flock of sheep, "Going to Market." There are also four of those splendid studies of cattle, like "A White Cow in the Field," that Troyon has painted so well with his solid, virile *facture* and his strong, forceful color. Rousseau is not seen at his best, though there are sixteen pictures by him, but none of them are extraordinary, and not a few are in the labored, painstaking manner that characterizes his early work. Diaz is not so largely represented, but there is at least one superior work, "The Storm," a plain under a sky with black rain-clouds and light breaking through on the middle distance; and two excellent though less important works, "Morning in the Forest of Fontainebleau" and "Sunset."

The Daubigny exhibition is fairly representative, comprising ten pictures, one of which, "Sluice in the Valley of Optevoz" (Salon of 1885), has long been known as one of the best of his works. It formerly hung in the Luxembourg Gallery, but was transferred a few years ago to the Museum of Rouen, whence it has been brought here. It is a good example of the work of a great landscape painter who is surpassed by no other in his fidelity to nature, and whose frank, simple methods and unaffected style appeal eloquently to lovers of the beautiful and the true. Of the other pictures at least three, "Solitude," "The Banks of the Eure," and one that is designated simply "Landscape," are of the first rank, and there is a "marine" that is interesting because of the rarity of such motives with Daubigny. Jules Dupré is best seen in a large picture, of great dignity of composition and of admirable unity, called "View Near Limousin," and in a magnificent "Sunset," deep and sombre in general tone, with golden light on the clouds at the horizon. Another handsome work is the "Environs of Southampton," painted so long ago as 1835. But Jules Dupré, though still alive, belongs to a generation that passed away fifteen years ago.

Before speaking of Courbet and the realistic impressionist movement instituted by him, it seems proper to return to Delacroix and to his contemporary Decamps, in order to trace the origin of the painters we have classed as "Orientalists." Though Henri Regnault by no means confined his choice of subjects to the East, much of his most brilliant painting is inspired by it, and some of the finest of his color compositions are founded on Oriental themes. A number of them were exhibited at the Universal Exposition of 1878, but he is represented here by but one picture, and that one is not of the class I refer to. The portrait of Juan Prim, however, is considered Regnault's masterpiece, and if it does not represent all sides of his extraordinary talent, it is by itself sufficient to mark him as one of the commanding figures of the art of the century. It is so well known —this portrait of the Spanish General on his magnificent black stallion, with the cheering ranks of soldiers passing in the background—that it need not be described here. Its value as a work of art has long since been determined, and it has been brought here from the Louvre, where it holds an honored place. Fromentin may be studied in six excellent works, the most important of which is the "Fantasia," mounted Arabs wheeling over the plain and discharging their guns from the backs of their plunging steeds; a picture that shows at his best a painter who, if he does not belong in the highest rank, is always distinguished from the crowd by his charming color schemes and a certain scholarly elegance of technique. Guillaumet, most truthful of painters, and who yields to none in artistic sincerity, is represented by four pictures with subjects drawn from Arab life in Algeria.

It was at the Salon of 1851 that Courbet first exhibited "The Stonebreakers," and, so to speak, gave the signal for a battle with existing traditions that has engrossed the attention

of the art world ever since. This famous picture occupies one of the places of honor in the gallery which runs around the central court in the Palais des Beaux-Arts; and in the inside rooms are grouped twelve of his other principal works, including the "Doe Run Down in the Snow" ("Biche forcée sur la neige," Salon of 1867), "The Woman with the Parrot" (Salon of 1866), and "The Awakening." The last two, studies of the nude figure, evoked as much discussion as the "Stonebreakers," caused, of course, by the same hardy, direct processes in painting from nature without choosing, but taking things as they come, and centring the interest in the picture on what Courbet considered of the first and only importance—the effect of light and air. Any possible beauties that might come from arrangement are disregarded; there is no effort to make, by the research of color harmonies, what we term a "handsome" canvas, nor to subdue some things in the picture in order to give greater force to others that may be considered of more importance. It is exactly what Manet has done in a somewhat different way, and with less success, taking his work as a whole. Monet has done the same thing in landscape, adding a scientific color interpretation of nature of his own, and Bastien-Lepage seems to have taken what is best of all, and fully realized the intentions of Courbet, while investing his work with a feeling for subtle beauty that escaped the others. Meanwhile yet another man, scarcely known at all, I think, in America, Fantin-Latour, in a quiet, reflective manner, painted portraits and a few figure subjects, embodying much that is best in Courbet and much that proceeds from his own soberly artistic nature. He was, like Courbet, inspired primarily by the great Romanticists, Delacroix and Géricault. Here, too, should be mentioned Raffaëlli, a painter whose resemblance to Courbet in methods is marked, but whose achievements so far have not been such as to entitle him to more than a moderate rank, and who in some of his works lays himself open to the charge of intentional eccentricity. His best quality is his success in the rendition of character, to attain which every other consideration is sacrificed. Associated with this general movement also is Besnard, who attempts the difficult task of painting "impressions" of light and air without permitting himself to neglect the more delicate gradations of color and the subtlest accents of form; and as landscape painters we should include Boudin and Pissaro.

The exhibition of Courbet's works has received a valuable addition in the past week in the "La Remise des Chevreuils," purchased by the Government at the Secrétan sale and destined for the Louvre. It is the most satisfactory work of them all, and shows, much better than the "Stonebreakers" (which, after all, may be most justly rated as a tentative work), the painter's great talent as a realist. Nothing could be more frankly and hardily painted than this nook in the deep woods, with the deer nibbling at the foliage, or reposing, half-hidden by the ferns, on the banks of the shallow brook that bubbles among the rocks. It is strikingly like nature, and a *tour de force* in technique. Manet, whose works in the exhibition number fourteen, appears decidedly less complete, and, if we except the very able handling in "Le Bon Bock" (Salon of 1873)—which recalls Franz Hals in its simple, direct modelling—and a certain depth of color and dignity of style that is not found in most of his painting, in the "Dead Toreador"—he remains the distinctly impressionistic painter we are already familiar with in New York. In "Le Bon Bock," indeed, which may, all things considered, be called his best work, he realized his aims and produced a picture that is eminently complete.

There are but three pictures here by Claude Monet, all of them small and all good. It is not possible to judge him from these, however, for his painting covers a wide range, of which these three canvases are no more than fractional notes. There is an exhibition of about 150 of his works at the Petit Gallery in the Rue de Sèze, and it is necessary to go there to arrive at an intelligent understanding of his value. It may be said of what is shown in the Champ de Mars that it is landscape painting of great excellence, which differs widely in intention from the work of most of his contemporaries. It is essentially impressionistic, and is surprisingly real in the rendering of the effect of light. It does not go far enough to be complete, and it is not likely that it ever will, for Monet is now an old man. His influence is already apparent in some quarters, and it is as an important factor in the transition state through which landscape painting, or that part of it which is worth serious consideration, is now passing in France, that his work really demands our notice. Whatever comes out of it will have been strongly influenced by Monet and by Cazin.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

ITALIAN MUSEUMS AND MONASTERIES.

ROME, August 5, 1889.

IT is only a few months since an entirely new museum, not yet thrown open to the public, has been established in Rome, the "Museo Falisco," installed outside the Porta del Popolo, in some of the capacious halls of that most picturesque and fairy-like of Roman palaces called "Papa Giulio," from its illustrious founder, Julius III. The beautiful ceilings and sixteenth-century frescos, the courts and fountains, seem strangely out of place in the neighborhood of mean tenement-houses. The museum is being organized by Prof. Barnabei, the active Inspector-General of Antiquities, and by Count Adolfo Cozza, whose fame would be wide indeed if it equalled his ability. The collection is composed entirely of antiquities excavated during the last few years on the territory of Civita Castellana, the ancient Falerii; hence the name "Faliscan Museum."

The long and heroic resistance which the inhabitants of Falerii made against Rome; their being forced to build another city in the plain (ruins of Faleria); their strong clannishness; their famous temple of Juno and its great festival—all these are commonplaces of history and literature, and give an added interest to its antiquities. But the Faliscan territory is also interesting for two reasons: first, because it stands apart from its Etruscan neighbors through its long-continued adherence to traditions inspired by its Greek origin; and second, on account of the formation here of what we might term a Latin or Græco-Latin style of art, early in the third century B. C., before the rise of Roman art proper—a fact only just now disclosed.

The idea which has presided over the formation of this museum, though not altogether new, has never before been carried out on a large scale. For that reason I wish here to call attention to its great importance, and to the revolution which its general application would make in the spirit of archæological study. Starting with the important truism that the arts and industries represent the life, manners, and customs of the people, and are sometimes, in fact, as in this instance, almost their only representatives, it follows that the arrangement of an archæological museum should be such as to present the most perfect picture of this life in its complexity and at its different stages. In museums where every class of objects is given by itself, where groups found together are separated, and lose their interest from herding with a mass of similar material, no such picture is obtained: the bronzes are here, the vases there, the terracottas in one room, the jewelry in another.

In the Faliscan Museum the contents of every tomb are religiously kept together. This is a preliminary step; the next is to classify them into periods and groups. There are, I believe, eight main groups, which occupy a period of nearly 600 years, extending from the eighth to the close of the third century B. C. The order is strictly chronological. To one accustomed to the usual arrangement of museums, this is a perfect paradise. We can study the transformation of forms and types; the beginnings of the *graffiti* on vases; the rise and fall of the black ware with raised figures; the importation of pottery from the Archipelago, of Phœnician jewelry and bronzes, and of Egyptian scarabs. In this juxtaposition, even the most insignificant object, which would otherwise become valueless, is of importance. We can trace the earliest importation of Greek vases, the native imitations, and finally the creation of an original native school, after painted vases had long superseded the black ware. Jewelry, arms, utensils, and ornaments, all share in the changes. We are in touch with the life of the Faliscans and feel its pulse; we measure the amount of foreign influence as compared to native talent; obtain proofs of their commercial relations with the East, with Etruria proper, with Magna Græcia, and finally with Rome.

Singularly enough, the remains of the only Etruscan temple known were found three years ago at Civita Castellana itself. So much was left not only of its walls and of its terracotta sculptures and revetment, but also of its painted decoration, that it can be reconstituted, and the crowning touch will be given to the museum when the facsimile of the temple, of its exact size, will be erected there, into which all that remains of the original will be incorporated. Among the most interesting of the individual pieces are some of the terracottas found near the temple, especially a magnificent life-size statue of Apollo, with a lion-like head, in the style of the generation after Alexander. More archæological are some of the singular tombs—the earliest used—formed of huge tree-trunks hollowed out. They are seven feet or more long, and in good preservation, though they probably date from the seventh or eighth century B. C.

Discoveries are being continually made in the necropoli of Civita Castellana, which is now showing itself quite rich in Greek vases of the good period. The last necropolis found by Count Cozza is that of the primitive city, and seems to belong to the seventh century or earlier. The museum, though already filling a half-dozen large halls, will be more than doubled in size before it can be considered complete, nearly half the material already at hand being still in the store-house. Count Cozza has superintended the excavation of everything in the museum, and to him we owe the fruitful idea of its arrangement; but it would never have been carried out except for the untiring energy of Prof. Barnabei, its practical creator. I was fortunate in having them both as my guides through the collection, and in having visited the sites where the discoveries were made. I was already familiar with Count

Cozza's work, through an acquaintance of several years. No one equals him in familiarity with Etruscan architecture; his views on the development of the Etruscan tomb, house, and temple are highly original and important, and will probably be published in one of the early issues of the new archæological publication of the Accademia dei Lincei.

It will be possible to enter almost at once on a similar task for the province of Orvieto, where so much has been discovered during the last few years, and where tombs are still being opened almost daily. Sig. Mancini, the principal excavator, has embraced the idea, and Count Cozza has already, in a small way, busied himself with the formation of groups analogous to those of the Faliscan district. It is to be hoped that the two active founders of the museum at "Papa Giulio" will extend their efforts to the Orvietan territory as soon as possible, for there is no time to spare. Unfortunately, it is too late to hope for a successful application of the plan to all the principal sites. Many, like Veii, Vulci, Cervetri, and others, seem well-nigh exhausted by the sweeping excavations of the past fifty or sixty years. In Etruria each territory has certain autonomous characteristics which are brought out clearly only by the group system. If the method could be applied to all the provinces of Italy where antiquities are still found in abundance, and if a great national archæological museum could be established in Rome, where all these provincial antiquities could be grouped, it is quite certain that the mere juxtaposition of these groups would suggest the solution of many perplexing problems concerning the races, progress, relations, and characteristics of the peoples of ancient Italy.

The new method is already producing salutary effects, even on the dealers in antiquities, and I have just heard of two large lots of vases and other contents of tombs which were purchased by them *en bloc* because objects which had formerly seemed worthless by themselves prove valuable in connection with their surroundings. Private collectors are also being influenced in the same direction. In the three halls of the Museo Etrusco at Florence devoted to the contents of the famous early tombs at Vetulonia, Prof. Milani is adopting the plan of keeping the entire tombs together. If I here call attention to the very different way in which that other great Florentine collection, the Museo Nazionale at the Bargello, is kept, it is in the hope that some steps may be taken to remedy its grave defects. There is no official catalogue; the only one printed is a mere pretence of which even the custodi are ashamed. This, combined with the almost complete lack of descriptive labels, makes it hardly possible to identify the objects, and renders the collection in certain parts quite useless for study.

During five weeks I have made a tour through a great part of that portion of central Italy which is bounded by Tuscany, the Neapolitan provinces, and the two seas, a territory which belonged almost entirely to the former States of the Church: I mean Latium, Sabina, lower Etruria, the Abruzzi, and a part of Umbria. The majority of the monuments of this region are quite unknown, and this was in reality a voyage of discovery full of pleasant surprises. I have no intention, however, of dwelling here on anything but a single point of rather melancholy interest; I mean the condition of the monastic establishments. The early Benedictines and the later Cistercians liked to build in the country, in low lands or on mountain sides; and these monasteries, when suppressed or deserted, have mostly been occupied by peasants. But the Franciscans and Dominicans did not flee from the face of other men; they built usually within the city, or else within a stone's throw of its gates. These are the monuments which, though in far better natural preservation than the former group, have suffered most damage from the recent policy of the Government. Sometimes they have been occupied by schools or asylums, but usually the monks have been superseded by the soldiers. The churches are used as dormitories, and cut up into two or three stories, or else filled with fodder or used as storehouses. In the monasteries the garrison is quartered. Sometimes they become hospitals. It is a case of barracks versus cloister. In a few cases, as at Santa Giuliana of Perugia, there is an officer with some æsthetic sense, who remonstrates against the ruthless destruction of such works as its beautiful early Gothic mortuary chapel; he is forthwith sacrificed by his superiors, and sent to meditate over the folly of not being an insensible machine. It so happened that my studies were mainly in the direction of the development of early Italian Gothic. The monuments of the orders of SS. Francis and Dominic are mostly of the thirteenth century, the time of early fervor and world-wide influence. Far more than the cathedrals and parish churches, they are the great representatives of the Gothic style throughout the country. And as I passed from town to town, and was met by the same monotonous picture of the ruin of art by militarism, it seemed as if such things should not be allowed in the nineteenth century.

A few more words on a special instance, the already mentioned monastery of Santa Giuliana at Perugia, formerly belonging to the Cistercian nuns. In time it dates from the middle of the thirteenth century; in style it is pure Gothic; its preservation was remarkable. Besides the church, there was the entire monastery, with its beautiful two-storied cloister, one of the finest in Italy, its pillared chapter-house and refectory, and its semi-subterranean mortuary church, not to mention many other vaulted halls. Some years ago it had already been given over to the infantry for a military hospital, and the church to the cavalry as a storehouse; but as yet no damage of any consequence had been done. Mariano Guardabassi and Luigi Carattoli, art inspectors for the province, then drew up memoirs setting forth the importance of the monuments, and succeeded finally in obtaining from the enlightened Orientalist Amari, then minister, the donation of the monument to the commune of Perugia, on the condition that the latter should provide another building for the hospital. After a bitter fight the gift was declined. So part of the fault should be laid at the door of the city. Although considerable destruction has been done, there is still time to declare the church and monastery a national monument, and it is far more deserving of this honor than many already on the list. Those who have now the direction of the funds set aside for the protection of monuments are certainly animated with the best intentions, and, if the appropriations were larger, many monuments now gradually decaying could be preserved. Among those that are being destroyed merely by natural causes, one of the most interesting is the old monastery of S. Pastore, near Rieti, built in 1258. It is now private property and rented to peasants. Part of the roof of the church is entirely gone and the grass grows in the aisles; the great tower has been split by lightning and will soon fall. It would need but a few thousand francs—probably five—to put the church in sufficient repair.

A. L. Frothingham, jr.

Correspondence.

A FORCE FOR THE REVIVAL OF THE READING HABIT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A thoughtful article in the *Nation* of a year or so ago noted and lamented the decay of the reading habit in the American community. The fact certainly is that comparatively few people nowadays read books—few people, that is to say, in comparison with the aggregate mass of the population of the country. Whether the number of such readers—I mean readers of *books*, not newspapers or magazines—is proportionately less now than formerly, is another question. The fact indisputable is, that it is quite the exceptional man among us, take the American people together, that can fairly be called a book-reader. I am quite sure, too, that this is true in a degree that, could the actual state of things somehow come to be trustworthily revealed, would startle most thinking men who have not happened to have their attention directed to the matter. If, for instance, the census-taker could next year require people everywhere to name the books that they had read during the twelvemonth preceding, the result would probably show that not one person in a hundred of our total sixty millions had within that time been the reader of even a single book. (I suppose that this estimate would have to be modified somewhat if paper-bound trashy novels were to be admitted into the list of books proper.)

I myself a few years ago put this point to a kind of test for my own individual satisfaction—dissatisfaction, as it proved. I was taking a leisurely buggy drive from the Hudson to the Genesee, through one of the most enlightened and most thriving belts of country in the Empire State of the Union. Using what tact I had to select fairly representative individuals in the various classes of persons whom as a stranger I thus met, I contrived, after suitable ambages of approach to the point through casual conversation, to learn from a considerable number of people the nature and extent of their recent familiarity with books. One farmer whom I met in the shade of wayside trees, willingly paused from his journey for a rest, while he answered kindly for me some questions concerning my road; he then, looking doubtfully meanwhile for help to his wife sitting beside him in his carriage, told the inoffensively inquisitive stranger that, besides a Moody-and-Sankey hymn-book, I think it was, they had read nothing in book form during the last two or three years except—except—they forgot the name—the 'Log Cabin,' they believed it was. 'Uncle Tom's Cabin?' I suggested. Yes, that was it, 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Another group of three young farmers, fully up to the average of such, testified that they had none of them read any book since the 'Third Reader' at school. In short I found the fact superfluously made out that, so far at least as rural regions may be taken to represent in this respect the country at large, not many people in comparison to the whole number of our population are book-readers.

Now, of course the optimistic view of this state of the case is, that magazines and newspapers have probably taken the place of books in the reading of the general public. That such is to some extent indeed the fact nobody, I suppose, would be inclined to dispute. Undoubtedly an increased proportion of the freshest, brightest thought of the day gets its expression in the columns of the newspaper or in the pages of the magazine. And *Harper's* and

the *Century* have taught us that the audience of the magazine may be very numerous. But comparatively, *how* numerous?—consider that. The high-water mark of the *Century's* circulation was touched, as I seem to remember, at about a quarter of a million copies. This meant, say, three-quarters of a million readers for certain particular numbers of the magazine. But we are sixty millions of people. And this, even this, comparatively small immense circulation—how it dwarfs the currency of even a highly successful book!

Well, perhaps books are among the things that are to pass, having had their day! There are some men of letters who seem willing enough to admit, nay, to demonstrate, that the world no longer has need of letters; that science should, as in fact it will, replace literature as the intellectual food of mankind. Perhaps, perhaps. The old order changeth, yielding place to new, and God—some of the old-fashioned rebellious will feel disposed to say the devil, rather—fulfils himself in many ways. We shall see what we shall see.

Meanwhile there is just now at work among us a much noised, but at the same time quite too little regarded, force for the revival of the habit of reading books. I refer to the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. Here is an association of persons already 60,000 strong, whose specialty it is that they read, and read *through*, *books*. I submit that that is a noteworthy social fact. It has in it the "promise and potency" of a future. The movement thus named has had a history of eleven years. As Mr. Webster said, "The past, at least, is secure." But that is not all, for this movement lives now with apparently as vigorous a life as ever. And what is significant and full of hope is the fact that the majority of these pledged and strenuous readers of books are persons gained to be such from the ranks of those who, but for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, would not be book-readers at all.

The books read are books selected for their solid instructive value, rather than for their merely entertaining character. The idea of the course prescribed, which covers four years of time, is to provide a *practicable* means for ordinary persons, necessarily debarred from liberal education, of surveying intelligently the ground traversed in the average four-years' college curriculum of study. The result to be expected, the result shown in some cases to have been actually realized, is the excitement of desire, and the spread of desire among the ranks of the people to obtain thorough education. Sound learning will be a gainer. The popular basis on which the security of high culture ultimately rests will be broadened. Colleges and universities will have more students, and better. Authors will find more readers, publishers will find more buyers of books. More books, and better, will be produced. The public will be more intelligent. Every good cause will profit by the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

I appeal to our leaders of thought, to our masters of culture, to recognize this movement for what it truly is—not the quack offer of a worthless substitute for good education, but a powerful additional reinforcement to the army of intellectual liberation for humanity. It deserves from us all criticism, guidance, perhaps, but certainly encouragement. It is a true force of revival for good things, such as are always ready to perish.

WILLIAM C. WILKINSON.

TARRYTOWN, N. Y., September 7, 1889.

[A weak side of this interesting system is its manufacture of special text-books, which are subject to the limitations of production to order as opposed to spontaneous and competitive production; but also, and more seriously, to the restraints imposed by the nature and extent of the "Circle." The effect of these latter in the controverted departments of science and history, to mention no others, is obvious. As we have before pointed out in these columns, a Chautauqua text-book in United States history ends deliberately with the war of 1812! The sort of book-reader this preparation should evolve is one we have heard tell of who never read a book less than 2,000 years old, and had not got down to Paul and Silas yet.—ED. NATION.]

JUGGLING WITH FIGURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will the *Nation* allow me to call attention to some peculiarities of logic and argument in a recent paper in the *Forum* by Thos. G. Shearman on the subject of "Henry George's Mistakes"? Seldom has the grim humor of statistics been so solemnly but effectively displayed as in this paper. Mr. Shearman's aim is to support the statement of Mr. George that the rich are growing richer and the poor poorer; and, to sustain his contention, he makes three distinct calculations. The total wealth of the country is placed at $60,000,000,000. From the fact that Eastern savings banks show an average deposit of $365, Mr. Shearman calculates that 400,000 persons own $45,000,000,000, or three-fourths of the entire wealth of the country. From another squint at statistics, he comes to the conclusion that 300,000 persons own $28,000,000,000 of the national possessions.

But it is on his first table that Mr. Shearman accomplishes his grand transformation act in statistics. Assuming that the number of incomes, when arranged in large classes, multiplies from three to five-fold for every reduction in the amount of one-half, he constructs the following table:

200	persons at	$20,000,000.....	$4,000,000,000
400	do	10,000,000.....	4,000,000,000
1,000	do	5,000,000.....	5,000,000,000
2,000	do	2,500,000.....	5,000,000,000
6,000	do	1,000,000.....	6,000,000,000
15,000	do	500,000.....	7,500,000,000
			$31,500,000,000

Having previously shown that 400,000 people own three-fourths of the wealth of the United States, and that 300,000 people only own $28,000,000,000, Mr. Shearman by this table proves that not quite 25,000 people own more than 300,000 people.

Allow me to carry Mr. Shearman's table on a little further, and see what the result would be:

30,000	persons at	$250,000 00.....	$7,500,000,000
90,000	do	125,000 00.....	11,250,000,000
180,000	do	62,500 00.....	11,250,000,000
540,000	do	31,250 00.....	16,875,000,000
1,080,000	do	15,625 00.....	16,875,000,000
3,240,000	do	7,812 50.....	25,312,500,000
6,480,000	do	3,906 25.....	25,312,500,000
10,000,000	do	1,953 12.....	19,531,200,000

This would give a little over 21,000,000 workers and capitalists in this country, which agrees practically with Mr. Shearman's estimate.

Now, what do we find by completing the table? In the first place, that 325,000 persons own $61,500,000,000, which is a billion and a half dollars more than the entire possessions, real and personal, of the nation, according to the highest estimate. In the second place, that the entire national wealth is $165,000,000,000, instead of $60,000,000,000. And in the third place, beginning at the bottom of the table instead of the top, that 19,720,000 workers having the lowest incomes own over $70,000,000,000, which is $10,000,000,000 in excess of the entire national wealth. WALKER KENNEDY.

MEMPHIS, TENN., September 12.

GOLD CONTRACTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your interesting editorial in the last number of the *Nation* on "The New Silver Campaign," you made no mention of the important fact that the great loan corporations of the East, the insurance companies and private investors, require their Western agents to have their mortgage deeds and notes state plainly that the loan is to be paid in gold coin. I wonder what would be the mental sensations of one of Senator Reagan's enthusiastic constituents when, having saved $1,000 to pay his mortgage, he is informed that an additional $300 must be obtained at once to save his farm from foreclosure sale, on account of the gold premium created by the great Senator's efforts in behalf of silver. And will not the vast army of borrowers all over this country be in the same predicament? B.

MINNEAPOLIS, September 1, 1889.

KEEPING MONEY IN THE COUNTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was driving through the Grassmarket here to-day, and had just passed the cross in the pavement that marks the spot where they used to hang people for stealing, when my attention was called to the magnificent free library that "Mr. Carnegie, the American millionaire, has presented to the citizens of Edinboro'."

This led me to reflect upon how things are changed, and to wonder what the mill-owners of Pennsylvania would think of this as an illustration of the way the money they wring from the hard hands of the taxpayers is "kept in the country."

Yours truly, TRANSATLANTIC.

EDINBURGH, September 4, 1889.

ENGLISH CORRUPTION OF AN AMERICAN WORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Nor has education which is conceived in a partisan, or democratic, or business spirit any considerable advantage over other important interests similarly jerrymandered."—*London Academy, No. 891, June 1, 1889.*

We have here an erudite *Volksetymologie*, a corruption in spelling, pronunciation, and meaning of *gerrymander* (see 'Winsor's Narrative and Critical History of America,' vol. vii, p. 318, note 1.)

Add to this that the 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' gives *jerrymander* and *gerrymander* as alternative forms, and alliterates the latter with *gem*, though the *g* is hard in *Gerry* and its derivative. A. I.

NEW BEDFORD, MASS., September 10, 1889.

Notes.

A COLLECTION of short stories by Mr. Brander Matthews will be published this fall in New York and London by Longmans, Green & Co.,

under the title of the opening story, 'A Family Tree.' The same publishers will issue at the same time the tales of Irish-American character in California which Mr. George H. Jessop has recently printed in the *Century* and the *Atlantic*, and which have more unity than is to be found in most volumes of short stories, as the same young journalist is a participant in the action of all of them. The book will therefore be called 'Gerald Ffrench's Friends.' Add to the foregoing 'The Blue Fairy Book,' edited by Mr. Andrew Lang, an attempt to set down the old favorites of the nursery, once for all, and with due respect for the accepted versions. It will contain nearly two-score tales, from the Greek, from the 'Arabian Nights,' from Grimm, from Perrault and Mme. d'Aulnoy, and from the folk-lore of England. Mr. G. P. Jacomb Hood (who illustrated Mr. Lang's 'Aucassin and Nicolette') and Mr. H. J. Ford will supply numerous illustrations. To a limited large-paper edition Mr. Lang will prefix an essay on the origin of the fairy tales and their relation to each other—an essay not to be included in the ordinary edition, which is intended for those who take their fairies on faith, and who wish no analysis of these fairies' adventures.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly issue in book form the papers contributed by Mr. David A. Wells to the *Popular Science Monthly*, under the title, 'Recent Economic Changes, and their Effect on the Production and Distribution of Wealth and the Well-being of Society.' Also, the following works: An 'Epitome of Herbert Spencer's Philosophy,' by Howard Collins; Mme. Carette's 'Recollections of the Court of the Tuileries' (Third Empire); 'Great Leaders: Historic Portraits from the Great Historians'; a novel by Admiral Porter, 'Arthur Merton,' and one by Edna Lyall, 'The Hardy Norseman.'

A large paper limited edition of 'William Hazlitt, Essayist and Critic,' with a memoir by Alexander Ireland, will shortly be issued by Frederick Warne & Co.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly 'The Coming Woman's Grandson: a Tale of Cheddar a Hundred Years Ago,' by Miss Yonge, and 'The Third Miss St. Quentin,' by Mrs. Molesworth.

T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s fall list includes Victor Duruy's 'History of France,' a new and revised edition of Charlotte F. Bates's 'Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song'; 'Ad Lucem,' a selection of prose and poetry for suffering ones, by Mary Lloyd; 'A Dictionary of Prose Quotations,' by Anna L. Ward; 'Convenient Houses, and How to Build Them,' by Louis H. Gibson; and 'Metzerott—Shoemaker,' an anonymous novel.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have nearly ready 'An Appeal to Pharaoh: A Radical Solution of the Negro Problem.'

Worthington Co. announce 'My Good Friend,' translated from the French of Adolphe Belot by Edward Wakefield.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, solicit subscriptions for a new edition of the Rev. B. F. DeCosta's 'Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen'; an enlarged edition of 'The Border or Riding Clans,' followed by a history of the Clan Dickson, by B. Homer Dixon; and 'The Ohio Valley in Colonial Days,' by Berthold Fernow.

We make the following selections from Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s forthcoming publications: 'Life of Richard H. Dana, jr.,' by Chas. Francis Adams; 'Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe,' by her son; the Scientific Papers of the late Asa Gray, selected by Chas. Sprague Sargent; 'Life of Richard Steele,' by George A. Aitken; 'The Genesis of the United States, 1605-1616,' edited by Alexander Brown; 'Essays in the Constitutional History of the United States, 1775-1789,' by J. Franklin Jameson and others; 'History of the Old South Church,' by Hamilton A. Hill; 'Sermons,' by the late Jacob Merrill Manning; 'Civil Government,' by John Fiske; 'Essays on Government,' by A. Lawrence Lowell; 'The Reconstruction of Europe,' by Harold Murdock; 'Origin and Growth of the English Constitution,' by Hannis Taylor; 'The Continuous Creation: An Application of the Evolutionary Philosophy to the Christian Religion,' by the Rev. Myron Adams; 'The Church in Modern Society,' by the Rev. Julius H. Ward; 'The Struggle for Immortality,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; 'Portraits of Friends,' by John Campbell Sharp; 'Six Portraits: Della Robbia, Correggio, Blake, Corot, George Fuller, Winslow Homer,' by Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer; 'A Rambler's Lease,' by Bradford Torrey; 'Gudrun,' a mediæval epic, translated from the Middle-High German by Mary Pickering Nichols; 'Three Dramas of Euripides—the Medea, the Hippolytos, the Alkestis,' by Wm. Cranston Lawton; a holiday edition, with appropriate illustrations, of Hawthorne's 'Marble Faun'; and (last but not least) an Index to the first sixty-two volumes of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

D. C. Heath & Co. publish this month a translation of Lindner's 'Empirical Psychology,' by Charles De Garmo; and 'Sept Grands Auteurs du XIXe Siècle,' an introduction to 19th century French literature by Prof. Alcée Fortier.

New editions of Ruskin's 'Sesame and Lilies,' and of Prof. David Swing's 'Motives of Life' and 'Club Essays' are in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, together with a rythmical version of the Book of Job, by Dr. George H. Gilbert of the Chicago Theological Seminary, and 'Alexia,' a novel by Mrs. Mary Abbott.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce a translation, by Prof. Julius E. Olsen, of Peter Lauridsen's 'Vitus Bering, the Discoverer of Bering Strait.'

'The Method of Least Squares,' by Prof. G. C. Comstock, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston.

Our readers may recall a recent complaint of Mr. Thomas Hughes, levelled, through the London *Times*, at Messrs. Ginn for republishing his 'Tom Brown at Rugby' in their "Classics for Children" series, not only, as he said, against his wishes, but with omissions (on the score of temperance) to which he was strenuously opposed. Judge Hughes now addresses to the same paper a letter showing that the firm's persistent efforts to secure his permission after the first refusal involved a personal interview with their representative, who went away supposing that the concession was granted, though this was not the author's understanding. This removes the imputation of piracy, which could not be entertained of this firm, and Judge Hughes reports, what was also matter of course, that he is to receive a royalty like any domestic author.

The publishers of *Puck* announce that they are about to issue 'In the 400 and Out,' a volume of satirical cuts by Mr. C. J. Taylor, the artist of 'The Taylor-Made Girl,' with which pretty book the new collection of sketches will be uniform.

James Clegg, Rochdale, England, will shortly publish by subscription in a limited edition a 'History of the Parish of Rochdale,' in the county of Lancaster, by Lieut.-Col. Fishwick, F.S.A. The work promises to be one of considerable interest. The list of county families noticed is a long one. There will be numerous illustrations.

Mr. Clegg sends us a second edition of his 'Directory of Second-hand Booksellers and List of Public Libraries, British and Foreign.' Twenty-six pages are needed for the second-hand booksellers of the British islands; nine suffice for Canada and the United States; fourteen for continental Europe. Lists of pseudonyms, initials, and works whose authors' names are supplied for convenience, postal information, and some other matter, fill out the little book, which is not exhaustive.

At the request of the Hakluyt Society, Mr. Everard F. im Thurn, author of 'Among the Indians of Guiana,' has undertaken to edit for the Society Sir Walter Raleigh's 'Discoverie' of Guiana, published in 1596. The Hakluyt edition of the same work, as admirably edited by the late Sir Robert Schomburgk, is now scarce, forty-one years having elapsed since its publication. Mr. im Thurn is specially qualified for the performance of the labor of love to which he is about to devote himself. For years past, his official duties under the Government of British Guiana have brought him into continuous communication with the aboriginals, whose customs and traditions he has carefully studied. He has travelled much in the interior of Guiana, and is especially conversant with that portion of British Guiana which lies between the Essequibo and the Orinoco. It is perhaps overlooked that the coast of Guiana might have received the Pilgrim Fathers had not those in favor of a settlement there been outvoted. Under the year 1617, Prince states: "After humble prayer to God they first debate whether to go to Guiana or to Virginia. And though some, and none of the meanest, are earnest for the former, they at length determined for the latter." It seems almost certain that Raleigh's 'Discoverie' influenced those, "none of the meanest" sort, who voted for Guiana.

The Argosy press of Georgetown, Demerara, is now setting up a second edition of 'West Indian Yarns,' by Mr. G. H. Hawtayne, a Government official in that colony. In these 'Yarns,' of which the first edition has become exhausted, the writer describes with much knowledge and humor a state of things that is fast passing away in the social life of some of the island colonies. As photographs in black and white of society a generation ago, Mr. Hawtayne's amusing sketches will preserve for present and future dwellers in those colonies many shades of existence which would otherwise disappear. Persons who intend avoiding the winter by taking a trip to the West Indies will find much to amuse them in the 'Yarns.'

We lately called attention to Mr. Collar's new text-book of Latin Prose Composition. The principal of another prominent Latin school in Boston, Mr. M. Grant Daniell, has just issued the first part of his 'Exercises in Latin Prose Composition' (Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). This book deserves to be compared with Mr. Collar's, since both teachers agree in connecting their exercises directly with the Latin authors which the class is engaged in reading. Thus, Mr. Daniell's present volume relates to Books i-iv of Cæsar's 'Gallic War.' Part ii will be based on Cicero's Orations. A vocabulary is in preparation.

Dr. C. W. Dulles of Philadelphia sends us a paper on Hydrophobia (Pennsylvania Medical Society reprint) in which he admits that deaths may occur after dog-bite, but denies that hydrophobia (by which we understand he means rabies) is a distinct or real disease. His reasoning, if it may be called such, does not commend itself to us.

The most valuable of four papers, reprinted as a pamphlet from the California Board of Health Report for 1888, by Dr. Wolfred Nelson, describes the Quarantine (or more properly, Disinfecting) Station below New Orleans, organized by Dr. Joseph Holt of the Louisiana Board of Health. This station is a veritable crucible in which the sanitary dross is extracted from infected ships and cargoes. It protects the city from without, and fosters, rather than retards, commerce, and it is not wasteful of time or money. The other papers iterate that yellow fever is endemic in the American tropics, and that our Southern States are in constant danger of its permanent colonization in them, which is true. The style is prolix, but a condensed tract might be prepared whose circulation on the Southern seaboard would assist in the spread of sanitary facts.

Mr. R. R. Bowker prefaces the seventeenth edition of 'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual' (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*) with a handsome recognition of the corresponding monster British 'Reference Catalogue' (London: J. Whitaker & Sons), with its admirable index, and of Caspar's 'Directory of the American Book and Stationery Trade' (Milwaukee), both issued during the present year, and both already noticed in these columns. Mr. Bowker points out the cost in labor and money and the long time needed to bring these works to their respective degrees of excellence, as a fair excuse for not expanding the scheme of the 'Trade-List Annual,' as some would have him. He rightly insists on the value of freshness secured by his method, by which not only are publishers' catalogues bound together, but an Educational Catalogue is provided, together with a record (by author, title, and subject) of books published from January to June of the current year.

Our recent notice of the 'Memoir of Douglass Houghton,' first State Geologist of Michigan, has brought us numerous inquiries as to the mode of procuring the book. It can be had by addressing the author, Mr. Alvah Bradish, 55 Fort Street, W., Detroit, Mich. The price is $1.75.

A European teaching an Oriental language to the cultivated speakers of it is not a frequent sight, yet Mr. Basil Hall Chamberlain has held, during several years past in the Imperial University of Tokio, the chair of Japanese and Philology. His 'Handbook of Colloquial Japanese,' issued last year, has reached a second edition. In both theory and practice, it forms a thorough equipment for the mastery of the spoken and easy book language.

The *Jahrbuch* of the Deutsche Shakespeare-Gesellschaft opens with a brief account of its history since its organization twenty-five years ago, by the editor, F. A. Leo, who also contributes a paper showing the relations of Goethe to Shakspere. There is, too, a description of the Duke of Buckingham's edition of "Julius Cæsar," and a curious translation of a Japanese student's account of the "Merchant of Venice" by Sekisupiyā (Shakspere), whom he ranks with the Chinese Rakantchin and the Japanese Bakino, "the three greatest story-tellers in the world." There is the usual careful review of Shaksperian literature, having especial reference to the Baconian controversy, and a necrology, which includes the well-known names of N. Delius, with a portrait, Alex. Schmidt, Karl Elze, and Halliwell-Phillipps. An interesting feature is the table of the representations of the plays at the different German theatres, from which we learn that in 1888 twenty-five plays were given 751 times, of which "Othello" took the lead with 129 representations, the "Merchant of Venice" and "Romeo and Juliet" following with 99 and 91 respectively. Mr. Albert Cohn's bibliography for 1887-88 is, as usual, remarkable for its range and fulness. A photolithographic copy of Shakspere's will, of the size of the original, accompanies this volume, which also contains an index of the whole set.

The Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences of Berlin has accepted a donation made by Count Joseph Florimond Loubat of New York for the purpose of giving a prize every five years to works on North America. Such works are divided into two series: (1) those on the history of the aboriginal inhabitants, as well as on geography, archaeology, ethnography, philology, and numismatics; (2) those relating to the colonization of North America by civilized nations, and the modern history down to the present time from any of its sides. The first prize of 3,000 marks ($714) will be given in July, 1891, to the best work of the second class, mentioned above, published between July 1, 1884, and July 1, 1889, whether in English, German, French, or Dutch. Besides those sent to the Academy (before July 1, 1890), copies must be presented to the Libraries of Columbia College and of the Historical Society of New York.

The prize on the Bluntschli Foundation, formed by the contributions of the admirers of the eminent Swiss-German international jurist and professor, has been awarded for the first time to Paul Heilborn, Referendary at Berlin, for an essay on the subject of "The Passage of Belligerent Troops and War Material through Neutral Territory in Time of War." The subject proposed for the second prize competition ought especially to interest Americans under existing circumstances. It is as follows: "The Right belonging to Governments in Time of Peace of Expelling Foreigners; its Foundation according to Public Law, and its Limits according to International Law." The question refers only to the right of expulsion as a political measure, and not as a police measure, not as a penalty of crime. The prize amounts to 2,000 francs ($400). The essays, which ought not to exceed 8 to 10 printed sheets (*feuilles*) 8vo, may be written in English, French, German, Italian, or Latin, and must be handed in at Munich by December 31, 1890. The particulars are given in the *Revue de Droit International* No. 5, 1888, and No. 1, 1889.

The Faculté de Droit of Paris also proposes three prizes from the legacy left by the Countess Rossi: (1) a prize of 4,000 francs for an "Essay on Transmissible Securities (*titres au porteur*) in French Law and the Laws of the Chief Foreign Countries"; (2) a prize of 8,000 francs on the subject of "The Best System of Publicity for the Constitution and Transmission of Rights to Real Property"; (3) a prize of 2,000 francs for an essay on "The Rights of Upper Houses or Senates as to Financial Laws." These essays, which may be written in French or in Latin, should be sent to the Secretary of the Faculty before March 31, 1890.

It is questionable whether the existing libraries in the United States offer sufficient facilities to American students wishing to compete for some of these prizes. Some years ago the Institute of International Law put on its programme as a subject of discussion the best method of spreading in any one country a knowledge of the legislation of other countries. At the meeting the French members laughed at the question and advised other countries to follow their example. The Committee on Foreign Legislation of the French Ministry of Justice started in 1876 a library of this kind, and, by means of well-considered purchases, exchanges with other States, and gifts, this now amounts to over 4,000 works and 18,000 volumes on the legislation of every country in the world, international law, political economy, statistics, and political geography, including dictionaries and other aids. The catalogue of this library has just been published ('Catalogue de la Bibliothèque du Comité de Legislation Étrangère,' Paris, 1889), which is a real vade-mecum on this subject. There is a nucleus for such a library in the State Department at Washington, but similar ones should be established at New York, Boston, and Chicago, and wherever there is a centre of political study. Many a question arises pertaining to our social and political development, the solution of which would be much aided by a careful comparative study of foreign legislation and systems. For completing such a library no better guide could be taken than this Paris catalogue.

—The only article of general interest in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for August is on the money of Central Africa, by Gerhard Rohlfs. He remarks on the singular fact that, though gold is to be found in nearly every part of the continent, and in some places, as Timbuctoo, for instance, forms an important article of commerce, it is never used for money. The only silver piece in general circulation, being at the same time the highest denomination of money and, to a certain extent, the standard of value, is the Mariatheresienthaler. This coin, which has very nearly driven out of circulation the Spanish two-pillared dollar of nearly equal value, must bear the date 1780 and have a certain number of points on the diadem and crown of the Empress, or it will not be accepted by the natives. Before the English entered upon their Abyssinian campaign, they had a large quantity of these pieces struck off at Vienna. At that time the rupee was introduced, but it soon disappeared, nor are the Italians as yet more fortunate in forcing their five-lire pieces into circulation in the same regions. The most widespread money of the smaller denominations is the cowry, which has a very varied value. Generally, a dollar is worth from three to four thousand shells, but, in one instance, Herr Rohlfs sold three horses for 190,000 cowries, or $38. It took, he adds, five people half a day to count them. Next to the cowry come the strips of cotton cloth, which, when of native make, are mostly of the same breadth (four fingers) as those employed by the ancient Egyptians for wrapping up their mummies. In some countries travellers have found small, thin, horse-shoe-shaped pieces of iron used as currency, their value ranging from fifty to two hundred for a dollar. Some of the provinces of Abyssinia and the adjacent countries use for the same purpose cubes of salt weighing a pound and a half and having a certain well-defined shape, their value varying, according to the distance from the mines, from forty-eight to four for the dollar. It is noteworthy that all this circulating medium, in which, it may be added, Rohlfs does not include the ivory tusk, has a practical use besides that of money—the dollar and the cowry for ornament, the cotton for clothing, the iron for weapons and utensils, and the salt for food. A supplemental number is wholly devoted to an account by W. v. Diest of a journey from Pergamus over the Dindymum range to Pontus. It is accompanied by some admirable maps.

—The tenth of the noble volumes of Dr. J. S. Billings's 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' (Washington: Government Printing-Office), begins with the letter O and ends with Pfutsch. It

falls below the average in the number of author-titles and (so far as books are concerned) of subject-titles, for a reason which is not apparent till we come upon the list of medical and scientific periodicals and transactions, filling 113 closely packed pages. For the rest, *place aux dames* might be the motto of the present volume, since Obstetrics, Ovary, and Ovariotomy alone demand 140 pages, while other rubrics pertaining at least as much to the female sex as to the male would considerably swell the total just given. Ophthalmia, Optics, and Orbit fill some 25 pages; the Œsophagus 25; the Palate 12; the Pancreas 9 to 10. Orthopædia (the name occurs in a French treatise as far back as 1741, though the literature of the subject is mostly of the last half century) has 10 pages to itself. Paralysis has 67; Pathology 20. The Pest extends over 41 pages, and under this heading occur some of the oldest and most curious works. A. Benedictus wrote in 1493 at Venice his 'De Observatione in Pestilentia'; and in 1674 appeared a 'Propugnaculum contra Pestem,' which invoked the aid of astrology. A characteristic English title for the period (the fore part of the eighteenth century) is 'The Plague. Containing: I. An account of the plague of Athens from the great historian, Thucidides, who had it himself. II. The same in verse by Mr. Creech, from the Latin of Lucretius. III. The same paraphrased in verse by Dr. Sprat. IV. An account of the plague now [1743] raging in Messina,' etc. A very long and important subdivision of the title Pest is the history of it, of which the second part is alphabetized by localities.

—An extremely useful grouping is that of works on the healthfulness of Occupations and Trades; and the lists of statutes concerning Oleomargarin and Pensions will be found convenient. The chapter on Obesity is not inflated, reckoning only three and a half pages; but mankind were early concerned about their adeps, corpulentia, obesitas, pinguedo, polisarcia, polypionia, their embonpoint and Fettleibigkeit—witness C. C. Leissner's 'De Obesitate Exsuperante' (Jena, 1683). The remedial properties of Oxygen were written about as early as 1796-7, but more especially in very recent years. Ozone does not (in this collection) antedate the fifties. Dr. Brown-Séquard was anticipated (as regards the end in view) by old Martin Pansa, with his 'Aureus Libellus de Proroganda Vita' of 1615, to say nothing of his various works of 'Consilium' (phlebotomicum, evacuatorium, anti-nephriticum, anti-pestiferum, anti-podagricum). Paracelsus, by the way, fills two pages, leading off with the year 1565. We turn the 1059th page of Volume X. with renewed admiration for the intelligence and industry which have produced such a monument to the healing art, to the history of the human mind, to American scholarship, and such an unrivalled aid to research in this branch of science.

—Prof. Nettleship's 'Contributions to Latin Lexicography' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) form a work which will be of service to scholars everywhere. It is much to be regretted that his project of the compilation of an entirely new lexicon should have failed through lack of coöperation, for these specimens, selected from what he had already prepared, show remarkably great qualifications for the task. They include such parts of his material as appeared to him to contain improvements upon the current Latin-English dictionaries in matters of arrangement of citations, new views of interpretation, and corrections, as well as a large number of words not given by Lewis and Short. These words seem to be taken chiefly either from late writers or from the old glossaries, to which the author is known to have given special study. Undoubtedly we have much to learn from those ancient lexicographers, who have until recently met with undeserved neglect. Only a few new etymologies are offered, and these with modesty. The quantity of syllables is carefully marked, and the general accuracy of method is evident from the separation of such words as *accerso* from *arcesso*, *designo* from *dissigno*, and in spelling, as in *admentum*. The treatment of *an* first as interrogative and not disjunctive is, we believe, unique in an English book. We wish that Prof. Nettleship had given us more inceptive verbs, correcting the errors which are so common in lexicons under this head. The book has a full index.

—It is not pleasant news to hear that the friendship which has bound together for forty years two great collaborators in French literature has been broken, and that the hyphen is destroyed that joined the names of MM. Erckmann and Chatrian. A difference about money has arisen between the two friends, and they have parted for good and all. M. Auguste Georgel, on behalf of M. Chatrian, lays bare the pitiful story in the *Figaro*, with a superabundance of sordid and ridiculous details. It appears that M. Erckmann has never taken any part in the composition of the plays to which the compound name has been attached, but has had a share in such profits of them as remained after certain collaborators of M. Chatrian had been paid. These payments to other collaborators constituted M. Erckmann's grievance, and he maintained that no part of them ought to come out of his pocket, and sent his nephew to ask that the whole ownership of the plays should be turned over to him as indemnity for what he had already lost in this way. The innocent and upright Chatrian was just about to give his consent to this plundering, M. Georgel says, when he himself appeared on the scene and put a stop to Erckmann's base work. The matter was left to the judgment of a referee, of whom M. Georgel's opinion is very unfavorable, who decided that Chatrian should pay over to Erckmann the sums that had been given to the collaborators. Half of this amount was offered to the nephew, who took it, and the affair was ended. This is the gist of M. Georgel's story, which may be a true and complete account of the unhappy affair. But there are parts of it that one would like to see cleared up before giving it one's entire belief. How did it happen that so bad a referee was chosen, for instance? Besides, M. Georgel tries to overwhelm Erckmann with odious charges of infidelity to France. He lives still at Phalsbourg, he says, among the Germans; he ran away and left his sick and idiotic sister under fire; he has a niece married to a German officer, and so on, and so on. Such absurd and irrelevant charges, together with the prejudice and hostility that appear in every line of M. Georgel's article, will be likely to incline fair-minded people to wait for further information before deciding where the blame in this unfortunate quarrel should fall. The propriety of such a suspense of judgment is made still more obvious by the latest news about the affair. M. Chatrian has affirmed the truth of M. Georgel's letter, and M. Erckmann publishes a note to say that he shall prosecute both his old friend and M. Georgel for libel and defamation.

—In 1872, on the occasion of the celebration of the 200th anniversary of the birth of Peter the Great, Count Dmitry A. Tolstoi requested the Emperor's permission to begin a collection of the letters and documents of that great ruler. A commission was formed of four professors of history, a Senator, the custodian of museums, and an Academician, who divided among them the work of collecting the materials. Appeals to the public and to foreign Powers proved not to be fruitless. By 1877 they had amassed 10,000 documents, but the sum assigned by the Treasury for copying them was so insignificant that two members of the Commission undertook the task of copying a considerable quantity of them. When Count Tolstoi retired from the post of Minister of Public Instruction, the work stopped; in 1884, by an imperial order through the new Minister, Count Tolstoi was intrusted with the oversight of the work, and he confided the charge of printing the first volume to A. F. Buitchkoff, Academician, director of the Imperial Public Library, who had continued his labor of copying uninterruptedly. It appeared that a great quantity of Peter the Great's letters had been lost, as was evident from the letters in answer, of which those giving information of the lost epistles are included in this volume. The notes (among which are quoted 362 of these replies) occupy a good half of the volume of 1.000 pages. What is known as to the fate of the missing letters is as follows: During the last years of the reign of the Emperor Nicholas, the Moscow senatorial archives were kept in a building where there was a school of architecture, with a corridor common to both. The archive hall was closed by folding-doors with leaves. By drawing the door towards one, a crack opened, through which the pupils of the School of Architecture crawled, stretching themselves out upon the shelves and bundles of papers, rummaging among them and tearing them up. Many of the students took especial pleasure in documents with the signature "Petrus," or "Piter," and calmly appropriated them. The materials for the remaining volumes are ready, and, when completed, the work will furnish a valuable aid in the study of the remarkable personality of the great Peter.

STUDIES ON SPAIN.

Études sur l'Espagne. Par A. Morel-Fatio. Première série. Paris: Vieweg. 8vo, pp. xi, 244.

THE author of this charming work has already distinguished himself by his profound works upon Spanish and Catalan literature and philology. In a work published some years ago ('L'Espagne au XVIe et au XVIIe siècle,' Heilbronn, 1878) he gave to the light a mass of historical and literary documents of great rarity and interest. The present volume is of a lighter nature, and appeals to the general reader. It contains three studies: on how France has known and understood Spain from the middle ages to the present day, researches into 'Lazarillo de Tormes,' and the historical element in "Ruy Blas."

The first study is especially novel and interesting. The relations between the literatures of two countries have often attracted the attention of scholars, and we have, for example, an admirable comparative history of the literatures of Spain and France ('Histoire comparée des littératures espagnole et française,' by A. de Puibusque, Paris, 1843); but we do not remember that any one has undertaken a sketch of the acquaintanceship of one nation with another. During the middle ages, intercourse between the two countries was confined almost exclusively to warriors who un-

dertook the crusade against the Moors, and to pilgrims who made the journey to the shrine of St. James at Campostella (Santiago). The latter, we may be sure, did not return to France with any very exalted idea of the inns on the way or of the manners of the wild Basques. Nor was any better impression made by the reputation for magic which Toledo long enjoyed. In the fourteenth century the intervention of Du Guesclin in the struggle between Peter the Cruel and his brother Henry was not of a nature to commend the two countries to each other.

From the fifteenth century on, the relations between the two countries became more intimate. Spanish soldiers take service in France, and Spanish scholars spread the reputation of their universities. With the sixteenth century began the period of Spain's magnificent empire, and with it a brilliant national literature, and now it was the turn of France to borrow. The Spanish marriage of Louis XIII. made *cosas de España* fashionable in France: dress, food, and language, all felt this influence. There was a veritable rage for Spanish grammar, and the press teemed with translations of Spanish novels. This was the first period of Spanish taste in France; the second was a period also of imitation, as Morel-Fatio remarks, but an intelligent imitation, which is able to create works more beautiful and perfect than the originals. This was the period of the "Cid" (1636) and the "Menteur" (1644). The novel, especially that in the style of rogues (*novella picaresca*), is also imitated, but it is not until the next century that this *genre* finds its perfection in the 'Gil Blas' of Le Sage. Meanwhile, more enlightened travellers are making the two countries better acquainted—Bertaut, the Countess d'Aulnoy, and Saint-Simon among them. How popular the Countess d'Aulnoy's travels were, even out of France, may be judged from the fact that the writer of this notice has before him the eleventh edition (1808) of the English translation. It is a very charming book, but the reader should never forget that the writer was famous for her fairy tales.

In the eighteenth century two currents may be recognized—one of the littérateurs, who still seek their material in Spain; the other of the philosophers, who, deeming Spain the land of fanaticism and ignorance, shower contempt upon it. The representative of the former class is Le Sage, whose famous 'Gil Blas' still presents an unsolved enigma. Of the philosophers, Montesquieu and Voltaire have left stinging epigrams which can never be forgotten. Witness these extracts from the 'Lettres Persanes' (lxxviii) of the former: "Ils sont les premiers hommes du monde pour mourir de langueur sous la fenêtre de leurs maîtresses, et tout Espagnol qui n'est pas enrhumé ne saurait passer pour galant. . . . Les Espagnols qu'on ne brûle pas paraissent si attachés à l'Inquisition qu'il y aurait de la mauvaise humeur de la leur ôter"; and, apropos of 'Don Quixote': "Le seul de leurs livres qui soit bon est celui qui a fait voir le ridicule de tous les autres." Nor is Voltaire much kinder. In the 'Essais sur les Mœurs' (ch. 177), he paints the typical Spaniard languishing under his mistress's window, and adds: "Tout le monde jouait de la guitare, et la tristesse n'en était pas moins répandue sur la face d'Espagne." The end of the century produced the two immortal works of Beaumarchais, the "Barber of Seville" and the "Marriage of Figaro," which have done so much to render Spain popular. It is curious, as Morel-Fatio remarks, that the name Figaro, which looks so Spanish, is not, and no one has yet discovered its origin.

With our own century the Romanticists took possession of the Peninsula, and the figure of the Spaniard playing his guitar beneath his mistress's lattice receives a pendant of the jealous Spanish woman with her dagger in her garter. Mérimée and Gautier have left brilliant traces of the influence of Spain, the former in his "Théâtre de Clara Gazul" and "Carmen," the latter in his "Tra los Montes." Hugo, as we shall see later, was also deeply affected by that passion for the *couleur locale* which the Romantic School thought they could find best in Spain.

Morel-Fatio concludes this charming study, of which we have been able to give but a bare outline, with the statement that France has too often, from the spirit of disparagement or by simple ignorance, superficially judged or incorrectly interpreted Spain. That country certainly deserves to be impartially studied which barred the Arab's way, saved Christendom at Lepanto, discovered a new world, drilled an incomparable infantry, created in art the most powerful realism, in theology a divine and enrapturing mysticism, in literature 'Don Quixote,' and finally gave to the noble sentiment of honor its finest and haughtiest expression.

The second study is devoted to that delightful little romance, 'The Life of Lazarillo de Tormes.' Every one has read and enjoyed 'Gil Blas,' but few know that 'Lazarillo' is the parent of that long line of novels in the style of rogues of which 'Gil Blas' is the most brilliant specimen. There are many mysteries about the little book—where it was first printed, and who was the author. The pretended first edition of Antwerp of 1553 has been seen by no one; and, until a copy is discovered, we must accept the edition of Burgos, 1554, as the first. The novel is generally attributed, without the slightest reason, to the famous statesman, Diego Hurtado de Mendoza. The first who made this groundless attribution was the Belgian, Valerius Andreas, in his 'Catalogus Clarorum Hispaniæ Scriptorum' (1607), incorporated the next year in A. Schott's 'Hispaniæ Bibliotheca,' where the statement is softened by the use of the word "putative" when speaking of this attribution. Some years previous to this, Father José de Sigüenza, author of the history of the order of Hieronimites, in giving the life of Fray Juan de Ortega, mentions that he was said to have written 'Lazarillo' when a student at Salamanca, and that the rough draft in his own hand was found in his cell. There is absolutely no proof of this statement but the words of Sigüenza himself. There is no ground for attributing the book to either of the persons named above, and the Spanish student still enjoys the possibility of settling this vexed question some day by a lucky find.

Victor Hugo's interest in Spain dates back to his childhood (he was nine years old), when he accompanied his mother to Madrid. They remained there a little over a year. It was while waiting at Bayonne for the convoy that he saw the little Spanish girl whose face was so deeply engraved on his memory, and whom he later introduced in a touching episode of 'Le Dernier Jour d'un Condamné.' His fondness for Spain first manifested itself in the 'Orientales' (1829), and then in "Hernani" the following year. The Spanish element in this famous play is not very large or very true. Eight years later appeared "Ruy Blas," perhaps the best of Hugo's dramas. In the note to this play the author made the most extravagant claim to historical and local accuracy: "Not a detail of public or private life, of interior, furniture, heraldry, etiquette, numbers, or topography, but what is exact." This statement Morel-Fatio has compared with the facts in the case with very amusing results. Hugo obtained his material from two books—the Countess d'Aulnoy's 'Memoirs of the Court of Spain' (not to be confused with her 'Travels,' mentioned above), and the Abbé de Vayrac's 'Present Condition of Spain.' From the former he drew his details of etiquette and palace life, as well as the rôles of the *Queen* and *Ruy Blas;* from the latter, his details of government, administration, genealogies, and heraldry. The 'Memoirs' of the Countess d'Aulnoy deal, however, solely with Marie-Louise d'Orléans, the first wife of Charles II. Now, in "Ruy Blas" the *Queen* is Marie-Anne of Neubourg, the second wife of Charles, to whom Hugo refers the statements of the Countess d'Aulnoy. This is historical accuracy with a vengeance, and is followed by a host of minor errors in the very points in which the author challenges inquiry. The names of the *dramatis personæ* afford some amusing examples, such as the utterly impossible name of *Don Guritan*, and *Montazgo*, which signifies the tax paid for driving cattle from one territory to another. Morel-Fatio says: "Hugo took possession of this word, which undoubtedly seemed to him very Spanish, and adorned with it the officer of the Indian Council. It is about as if in French we should name some one *Pâturage* or *Passage*." In his verse he says the household of the Queen costs yearly 664,066 ducats, and in his note refers complacently to the work 'Solo Madrid es Corte,' where, he says, those exact figures will be found. What the reader does find there is the sum of 574,866 ducats.

These matters do not detract from the poetical value of the drama, and would be unworthy of notice did not the author expressly vouch for the accuracy of his details. The reader of Morel-Fatio's article will justly infer that it is never safe to trust Hugo in minor matters like these, a conclusion which will be strengthened by a perusal of Biré's 'Victor Hugo avant 1830' (Paris, 1883), a work invaluable for the poet's early life, and in which are rectified a multitude of little errors on the part of Hugo.

PAUL'S SKETCH OF GERMAN PHILOLOGY.

Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie. Herausgegeben von Hermann Paul. I. Lieferung. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner. 1889.

THE general plan of this important work is similar to that of Gröber's 'Grundriss der Romanischen Philologie,' issued by the same house, and already noticed in these columns. What is contemplated is to provide a succinct and authoritative résumé of all that has been done in the various lines of Germanic philology, so that the student can "orient" himself conveniently either in the subject as a whole or in any of its branches. The work appears in large octavo, closely printed, and is to be completed in five or six instalments of about 250 pages each. The different parts of the subject are portioned out among twenty-six specialists, the general editor being Prof. Paul of Freiburg. Of the collaborators all are Germans, Netherlanders, or Scandinavians, with the exception of J. Wright, who is an Englishman.

The work begins with three sections by Paul himself; the first being on the idea and scope, and the second on the history of Germanic philology, while the third is devoted to the methodology of the subject. The fourth section concerns alphabets, the runes being treated by Sievers, the Latin alphabet by Arndt. Then

follows a very comprehensive fifth section devoted to histories, by various authors, of the different Germanic languages. That part of the history which preceded the ramification of the Germanic tribe, and antedates all existing records, is assigned to Kluge, who also writes the history of English. An appendix to this section will deal with living dialects. The next two will be occupied with mythology and heroic legend, and the eighth will take up the history of the various Germanic literatures. In this connection it is of interest to note that in only three out of ten cases is the history of a literature to be done by the same man that writes the history of the corresponding language. An appendix to this section will deal with popular poetry. The ninth section is to treat of metre, and the tenth of art, which is made to include both the plastic arts and music. Finally, the work is to conclude with four sections upon husbandry (*Wirthschaft*), law, military art, and manners and customs.

Of the work thus planned there is now before us one instalment, embracing the first four sections. The brief introductory section is devoted mainly to justifying the editor's broad conception of "philology," and showing the futility of all attempts to limit the application of the term to any particular department of the "history of civilization." The argument is, that all branches of historical knowledge whatsoever are more or less dependent on the science of written records. Hence it is a matter of convenience how far the history of law, medicine, industry, art, religion, or any other element of human culture, shall be regarded as coming within the domain of the philologist. A real philological classic of our day is Victor Hehn's 'Domestic Plants and Animals in the Transition from Asia to Europe,' though a librarian has been known to catalogue the book as natural history. We may note in passing that Paul's view of philology is substantially in accord with that of Whitney, who defines it as "that branch of knowledge which deals with human speech and all that speech discloses as to the nature and history of man."

The second section is a long and admirable résumé of the history of Germanic philology from the Middle Ages down to the present time. The extensive bibliography and the careful comments of a scholar so able as Paul will render this part of the work invaluable to students. At the close of his retrospect the writer deprecates two evils which, as he justly thinks, stand in the way of a healthy development of Germanic studies hereafter. The first is the partisanship of German scholars which is continually leading them into bitter personal disparagement of the members of opposing "schools." He calls for an abatement of the *odium philologicum*, and urges the need of a more general agreement upon fundamental principles. In this effort of his to put an end to the ridiculous clannishness of German scholars, the scholars of other lands will certainly wish him well; but we fear that his own somewhat caustic treatment of those whom he does not happen to like will not help on the philological millennium. It is surely going too far to say (p. 99) of a man like the late Prof. Scherer that "his critical attempts may be almost without exception characterized as erroneous," or that "his nature did not permit him to produce a well-matured and complete scientific work."

The second of the two evils deprecated is that the growing specialization of scholarship is tending to separate the students of language and the students of literature into two camps, which look with more or less of indifference and even contempt upon each other's operations. Those who concern themselves with phonetics, historical grammar, and the critical study of early texts are often disposed to look upon the students of more modern literature, whose method is somewhat different from their own, as dilettanti; while the latter class return the compliment by regarding the former as pedants absorbed in the form and indifferent to the substance of literary records. Against this tendency Paul very properly raises his voice. The specialization he admits to be in a measure necessary, since the field of philological study is so vast. At the same time he contends that the study of language and the study of literature should, as far as possible, go hand in hand; and that, in any case, the votaries of the one pursuit should indulge in no pharisaical emotions respecting the votaries of the other, but should rather regard them as fellow-workers in a common cause. This preachment of Prof. Paul's is sound and timely, and we hope it may do good both in Germany and in other lands.

For the writing of a chapter upon philological method it would be difficult to think of any one better fitted than the author of the 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte' and the co-editor of Paul and Braune's 'Beiträge.' What he has to say on the subject is rich in suggestion even to the experienced worker, but will be found especially helpful by those who are just setting out in the way of original research. General discussions of method and principle are apt to seem somewhat arid, nor can they, perhaps, avail much in changing habits once formed. But Paul is certainly right in holding that the beginner may save himself much time and much misdirection of energy if, instead of simply imitating a master, and finding out after the lapse of years that he has been imitating the master's weak points along with the strong ones, he will make, as early as possible in his career, a careful study of fundamental principles. Two or three of our author's prescriptions may be specified here. He insists that the philologist of to-day must be well grounded in psychology. He urges particularly the importance of considering *all* the facts pertinent to one's investigation; nothing is to be passed by as unimportant. "To be sure," says he, "the aim is to establish something important and worth knowing; but it betrays the dilettante to pick out deliberately what seems important." With still greater unction, he insists upon the necessity of attending to all possible explanations of the problem under consideration. One is not to make a guess and then go at the collection of facts to confirm it. By so doing the investigator is sure to be beguiled by the prettiness of his own hypothesis, and his work takes on the character of an attorney's brief.

Prof. Paul's bugbear is what he calls "unnützer Hypothesenkram." Against this black beast he loses no opportunity to warn the neophyte, and, to our thinking, makes too much of the matter. Hypotheses are necessary in all scientific work, and whether a particular one is going to be "useless" or not, can often not be told until it has been followed up. There must be more or less of guessing as one goes along, and all that can be demanded is that one keep his guessing and his vanity under the strict guardianship of his scientific intelligence. The maxim of collecting all the pertinent facts before allowing one's self to form a theory has a certain air of wisdom about it, but we imagine that in practice few persons really act on it. Nor, when we consider the progress of knowledge as a whole, can we say that one necessarily wastes his time in following a false lead. If it were highly important for men to get to the North Pole, we should scarcely say that they had wasted their time who had taught us experimentally how *not* to get there. To this should be added the consideration that many a happy scientific discovery has been made by men who found a kingdom while wandering from the trail in search of their fathers' asses. In short, the best regulative against fantastic theorizing is not so much the dread of premature and wrong hypotheses, as the general mental balance which comes of wide knowledge and catholic intellectual interests.

Of the fourth section we have not space to speak in detail. We remark only that this, too, is worthy of the noted scholars whose work it is, and take leave of the first instalment of Paul's 'Grundriss" with the feeling that it is a great work well begun.

Wellington. By George Hooper. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

Words on Wellington. The Duke—Waterloo—The Ball. By Sir William Fraser, Baronet. London: John C. Nimmo. 1889.

Mr. Hooper's Life of the Duke of Wellington belongs to the series of "English Men of Action," and is necessarily very compendious. It does not attempt to give any new view of the Duke—indeed, that is hardly possible. As a man, his qualities are so distinct and simple that it is difficult to make a mistake about them. As a general, there always has been and probably always will be some dispute as to his rank. Mr. Hooper is of those who would give him the highest. What he has to say about Lord Wolseley's criticism is worth quoting: "Lord Wolseley also asserts that if Napoleon had been the man he was at Austerlitz, he would have won the battle of Waterloo." This is a type of a good deal of military criticism which is a stumbling-block to the wayfaring man. The obvious reply is the one Mr. Hooper makes: "It is a pure hypothesis, and about as reasonable as one which might be framed thus: If Soult or Clausel, instead of Arabi, had commanded the Egyptian army in 1882, Sir Garnet Wolseley would not have won the battle of Tell el-Kebir."

Sir William Fraser's book is a gossipy collection of anecdotes about Wellington, supplemented by the account of the author's discovery of the room in which the ball of Brussels took place, with which the public has been already made familiar through the press. The reasons for identifying the historic ball-room with the old coach-maker's depot seem convincing enough, and the picture of the room shows that "Brunswick's fated chieftain" could not have sat within a "windowed niche of that high Hall," because the room was a low one (thirteen feet high), and, although the windows are deeply sunk in the wall, the lower edge of each recess is five feet from the floor. The Duke of Brunswick sitting in one of these would not have presented such a picture as Byron would have cared to immortalize. Sticklers for local accuracy in poetry may add, therefore, one more count to their already voluminous indictment against Byron. In the long run, the discovery of the old coach-maker's depot will probably not affect the poet's credit very much.

Sir William Fraser's book contains a number of good anecdotes, some of them well told, one at least very badly. This is the anecdote of Gen. Grant which has attracted so much attention. The author, instead of giving it once for all, in its correct form, gives, as if true, a grossly impossible story at page 79, which, he says, when he heard it, "fascinated" him, as well it might, and then at page 170 he gives, as

he says, with "regret," the real version. The first story is as follows:

"Gen. Grant was invited to dine at Apsley House by the second Duke of Wellington. A most distinguished party assembled to meet him. During a pause, in the middle of dinner, the ex-President, addressing the Duke at the head of the table, said: 'My Lord, I have heard that your father was a military man. Was that the case?'"

Having put this libel in circulation, the author, at page 170, after expressing, as we have said, his regret that he ever took the chance of spoiling so good a story by inquiring what really took place, coolly says: "I must now, in the interests of truth, state what the Duke told me happened." It seems that Grant, during the dinner, "kept trying to get him to say what was the greatest number of men that his father had commanded in the field." The Duke, with his well-known cleverness, added: "I saw what he was at. If I had said forty or fifty thousand men, he would have replied, 'Well, I have commanded a hundred thousand,' so I was determined not to answer his questions as to this, and I succeeded." It appears, therefore, that the Duke, because he chose to conjecture that Grant would be boastful and uncivil, was so rude as to refuse to answer a perfectly proper question addressed to him by a guest. The story does not shed any light whatever on the character of Grant. It might be told, however, to illustrate certain peculiarities in that of the second Duke of Wellington.

An anecdote relating to the iron shutters on Apsley House, which every one who has been to London has noticed, we have never seen before in print. The shutters were put up after the windows had been broken at the time of the Duke's unpopularity in 1832. Some years afterwards, when he was in great public favor, "a great crowd waited in Piccadilly, and gave him a tremendous ovation on his return home. The Duke took not the slightest notice of their cheering, but, just previously to entering his gate, he pointed with his right hand calmly to the iron shutters. He then took his hat off, with a mockery of gratitude, and entered his house."

The following is a good anecdote of George IV., though what it has to do with Wellington we do not know. When the news of Napoleon's death reached London, some official announced it to the King in these words: "It is my duty to inform your Majesty that your greatest enemy is dead." "Is she, by ——!" said the King.

There is much good reading in Sir William Fraser's book, and the subject is one in which the author has a personal and family interest through his father, who was one of Wellington's officers. It is injured by a certain tone of awe-struck admiration which, however proper as a matter of feeling, is not an aid to narration. In fact, it is the strongest proof of Wellington's greatness that one is able to read such a book without a sneaking desire to pull down the hero from the pedestal on which he is put.

The Scientific Spirit of the Age, and Other Pleas and Discussions. By Frances Power Cobbe. Boston: George H. Ellis.

THE article which names Miss Cobbe's new volume should be read in the light of her own admission in her preface that it is not intended for judicial discussion, but is avowedly a one-sided plea. She is writing, she tells us, "exclusively on the adverse side, and has left the glorification of the modern Diana of the Ephesians to the mixed multitude of her followers." With this understanding, the article is less preposterous than it would otherwise be, but it is still sufficiently removed from any fairness or fruitfulness to make us wish it had not been written. This style of writing may have its place in a young people's debating society, but Miss Cobbe has done too much good work to fall into it in her later years. Although she has appealed from so many current theological forms of thought, she writes of science with genuine theological rancor. She has taken a conspicuous part in the famous vivisection controversy, and has become so embittered by it that science and vivisection have come to be for her nearly synonymous terms. Whatever her theme, she gravitates to this fixed idea. Her arraignment is almost exclusively an arraignment of biological—we might say medical—science. Against our American practitioners in particular she brings a railing accusation, suggestive of the possibility that some cruel wag from this side of the Atlantic has been putting a joke on her. "An eminent American physician" is credited with the remark, "In my country the ardor of scientific research is rapidly overriding the proper benevolent objects of my profession. The cure of disease is becoming quite a secondary consideration to the achievement of a correct diagnosis to be verified by a successful post-mortem." One of the worst dangers which the student of science is, to Miss Cobbe's thinking, likely to fall into, is the adoption of materialistic views on all subjects. In this connection we have the arrant nonsense of the following passage:

"He need not become a theoretic or speculative Materialist—that is another risk which may or may not be successfully eliminated. But he will almost inevitably fall into practical Materialism. Of the two sides of human life, his scientific training will compel him to think always in the first place of the lower. The material (or, as our fathers would call it, the *carnal*) fact will be uppermost in his mind, and the spiritual meaning thereof more or less out of sight. He will view his mother's tears not as expressions of her sorrow, but as solutions of muriates and carbonates of soda and of phosphates of lime, and he will reflect that they were caused not by his heartlessness, but by cerebral pressure on her lachrymal glands. When she dies, he will peep and botanize upon her grave, not with the poet's sense of the sacrilegiousness of such ill-placed curiosity, but with the serene conviction of the meritoriousness of accurate observation among the scientifically interesting 'flora' of a cemetery."

One is strongly tempted to characterize such stuff as this by a certain British monosyllable which is now often heard among us.

An apparent atrophy of Darwin's taste for music and poetry as he grew old is made much of by Miss Cobbe. She returns to it again and again with eager satisfaction. A circumstance due wholly to Darwin's intense engrossment in special studies, and which the engrossment in metaphysics or theology has paralleled much more frequently than engrossment in science, is treated as if it were the inevitable result of scientific studies. Darwin's character, in full view of its limitations, did not do much to discredit biological science.

The other essays in this volume render the suspicion unavoidable that the habit of writing has with Miss Cobbe outlasted inspiration. Even the essay on "Reformed Judaism" smacks of the literary venture more than of a moral purpose. It raises the question whether reformed Judaism may not be made the rallying point of modern Theism, and gives a favorable answer; but it is much more likely that reformed Jews will rally to a Theism which has not avowedly a Jewish or Christian basis than that Theists of Christian antecedents will rally to a Jewish centre. The essays on "The Education of the Emotions," "Thoughts about Thinking," and "To Know or Not to Know" are more remarkable for the poverty of their invention than for anything else.

The concluding essay, "The Town Mouse and the Country Mouse," is much pleasanter than any other in the book. It discusses the relative advantages of life in the country and the town, and what can be said on either side is said very gracefully. But the discussion being limited to the opposition of a London clubman and an English country Squire, it is not particularly helpful to the average American. Six months of one and half-a-dozen of the other would seem to be a more rational solution than either to the exclusion of the other, if the country six months can be in one's own house. Six months of country boarding is not a consummation to be wished. It should be remarked that Miss Cobbe's "Country Mouse" is her own private mouse. She has no praise for the hunts and shootings which constitute for English country gentlemen much of the charm of country life. Had she gone into this she might have found more cruelty in sport than in vivisection. She has a word of protest against the pigeon-shooting at Hurlingham.

The Life of Sidney, Earl of Godolphin, K.G., Lord High Treasurer of England, 1702 to 1710. By the Hon. Hugh Elliot. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 425.

LORD GODOLPHIN, says his biographer, was "a man who was undoubtedly great, but who, as every reader of English history will admit, is much less known to the public generally than are most of his distinguished contemporaries." The political revolution by which Godolphin's administration was overturned, and Harley and St. John came into power, is one of the most picturesque and best-known incidents in the political history of England; but the personality of the man who was thus displaced from power, is, it must be admitted, an indistinct and shadowy one to most readers.

The character which Godolphin really bears as a statesman is, we think, that of a rather timid person, a man of detail, with no large policy and, indeed, deficient in strength and fixedness of principle. Sir Hugh Elliot has endeavored, and not without success, to shake this judgment. For the early part of Godolphin's career, we cannot say that the popular opinion is materially affected. The account here given of his early years and his public life through the reign of William III. confirms the common notion that he was a shifty, vacillating man, a good administrator, but with no positive attachment to either person or party or set of principles. An example is given (p. 158) in his acquiescing in a request of the Queen (Mary) in regard to certain pensions, in which the admission is frankly made that "for the sake of appearances he committed an act which he strongly condemned." From the time, however, of his reaching the highest station, as head of the Government during the greater part of Queen Anne's reign, there appears very little in his conduct to condemn. The author seems wholly candid and fair with his readers, and shows no disposition to extenuate; but the questions that arise at this period are rather in regard to judgment and expediency than right and wrong. The author's aim is to show that Lord Godolphin was not merely an able administrator, as is universally admitted, but a statesman of a higher type. In the war of the Spanish succession, he maintains that Godolphin alone discerned the true line of military policy in his scheme for coöperating with the insurgent Protestants of southern France, and that this plan would have conducted to

great results. In regard to the union with Scotland, the great legislative act of his administration, the credit is given to Godolphin of pointing out the method by which the end was accomplished, in his passage of the Act of Security. It was in this, we are told (page 283), "that Godolphin most signally displayed his greatness, and in which he outshone all his contemporaries, not even excluding the renowned Somers. It was not the destination, but the path to the destination, which he indicated and pursued, and which, in spite of every evil prediction, led to the greatest legislative achievement of the age—the English and Scotch union."

Another point of interest is in Godolphin's relation to Marlborough:

"History has been fond of placing Godolphin in a position very secondary to Marlborough, of treating him as a confidential agent or an honest and industrious head clerk who executed at home the policy which Marlborough directed from abroad. Marlborough's letters are a complete refutation of this mistaken notion. They afford a striking proof of Godolphin's intrinsic and independent value. Every line proves that Marlborough looked upon Godolphin as another self, as a person whose genius was as transcendent in politics as his own was in war" (p. 315).

The great importance of Godolphin's administration, apart from special events of war and legislation, is in the fact that it formed a period of transition from the mixed system of government, controlled by the personality of the sovereign, to the system of party government. This explains, too, we think, much of the inconsistency and apparent insincerity in Godolphin's career. We find some excellent remarks upon this point (p. 217), although its full bearing is not clearly pointed out. Godolphin and Marlborough made an attempt—the last of any moment—to govern without party. It failed; they were forced to associate themselves strictly with the Whig party, and from this time, with rare and short exceptions, the Government of England has been always that of a party. "He has been reproached with disloyalty to the Queen and to the Tory party, with timidity and with fickleness. He was, in fact, engaged in the futile attempt of balancing himself where all equilibrium was impossible."

Godolphin seems to have come to an understanding of the necessities of the case sooner than Marlborough: "Godolphin had long seen the fallacy of the scheme to which Marlborough still so closely adhered. He had abandoned it, and now every effort of his life was concentrated in reconciling the Queen and Marlborough to the Whigs." When the work had been completed, when the Godolphin administration had become a Whig one pure and simple, he was near the end of his power and his life. The Queen was by sentiment and conviction a Tory, and a Tory administration soon came in power. In the events which led to this change, in which Godolphin has been much censured, our author vindicates his dignity and clear-sightedness. Of an earlier crisis (1706) he says: "He loyally bore the odium which should have attached to his mistress, and we believe that to this day his honest attempt to shield her has had the effect of weighting his character with that charge of insincerity so loudly proclaimed against him by the Whigs" (p. 319).

This volume, readable and handsomely printed, nevertheless lacks essential aids to its use. There is no index, the table of contents is extremely meagre, and even the running-titles give very little assistance.

Caroline Schlegel and Her Friends. By Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick. Scribner & Welford. 1889.

MOST persons who have any acquaintance with the life and character of Caroline Schlegel would probably deem her a very unengaging subject for an elaborate biographical memoir. A woman who made trouble wherever she went, who was known in the circle of Goethe and Schiller as Dame Lucifer, who was notoriously lax in her relations with men, and who, withal, whatever her talent, did nothing the least memorable in a literary way, would hardly seem to deserve at this late date the handsome monument here erected to her memory. In short, we cannot help regarding it as a debatable question whether the work was worth doing; but if it was, Mrs. Sidgwick deserves the credit of having done it well; and if she does not compel sympathy for her unwomanly heroine, she at least gives a vivid picture of a curious episode in the history of German literature.

A short sketch of Dame Lucifer's career will suffice to show what manner of person she was. She was born in 1763, her father being Prof. Michaelis, a Göttingen Orientalist of some repute in his day. Her early letters suggest a talented coquette without high principle or steadfastness of character. In 1784 she married Georg Böhmer, a Clausthal doctor with whom she led a dreary existence for four years. Released from her captivity, as she called it, by the death of her husband in 1788, she returned with her children to Göttingen, where she captivated the young student A. W. Schlegel. Later, after living for a time with a brother in Marburg and quarrelling with him, she betook herself to Mainz, where her busy tongue helped to break up the household of the famous republican Georg Forster, whose wife, Therese Heyne, had been her intimate friend at Göttingen. Living in Mainz at the time of the French occupation, she identified herself with the Red Republicans, of whom Forster was a leading spirit, and was known to fame as Forster's "amie." At the same time, having failed to elicit a proposal of marriage from one Tatter with whom she had fallen in love, she resentfully decided to "amuse herself" by becoming the mistress of a certain Frenchman otherwise unknown to history. In the spring of 1793 she was imprisoned for her republican leanings, and suffered great indignities at the hands of her countrymen. Upon regaining her liberty a few months later, she found herself without resources, bankrupt in reputation, and an object of general aversion. From this extremity she was rescued by Schlegel, who had for some time been living in Amsterdam, where he was engaged as private tutor. Schlegel had repeatedly warned his recreant lady-love by letter to have nothing to do with the Mainz Republicans; but now, with a forbearance truly "romantic" (seeing that she was about to become a mother as the result of neglecting his counsel), he got a leave of absence, hurried to her relief, and placed her in retirement under the charge of his brother Friedrich, then a profligate student at Leipzig. It is significant for the character of the younger Schlegel that this woman in these circumstances exercised a decidedly elevating influence upon him.

Two years later, the elder Schlegel returned from Holland and made Frau Böhmer his wife *de facto*. After the lapse of another year, the pair were married in church from motives of policy, and settled in Jena, where for the next few years Frau Schlegel helped her husband in his literary labors, wrote a little occasionally on her own account, and kept open house for the coterie of the *Athenæum*—the Romantics, as Mrs. Sidgwick somewhat strangely calls them. By 1802 she had tired of Schlegel, and by general consent transferred herself to Schelling, the formalities of divorce and marriage following a year or so later at the convenience of the parties concerned. As the wife of Schelling she seems to have led an exemplary domestic life, and to have tried to atone for the aberrations of her stormy past. She died in 1809.

Mrs. Sidgwick's memoir is based upon the published collection of Caroline's letters and upon the well-known works of Haym and Brandes. It is written in a judicial tone, and takes pains to avoid a strenuous application to the Romanticists of moral standards which they deliberately rejected. Of this we certainly do not complain; but the simple truth is, when all allowances have been made that the indulgent muse of history may reasonably make after a lapse of nearly a hundred years, that Caroline and her friends, so far at least as concerns the period here portrayed, were a "sorry set," and no faithful account of them can be very delightful reading. At this distance in time, one could tolerate the sickening details of private life with very good grace if only these things were connected in some way with noteworthy literary performance. But such is not the case. Mrs. Sidgwick, indeed, devotes a chapter to 'Lucinde,' and another to the *Athenæum*; but 'Lucinde' is an insufferably silly book, of which its author himself soon became ashamed, and the *Athenæum* fell flat from the beginning, and died without perceptibly affecting public opinion or the course of German literature. The three volumes contain nothing that any one would now think of reading unless compelled thereto by some sort of duty.

The Federal Government of Switzerland: An Essay on the Constitution, by Bernard Moses, Ph.D. 12mo, 256 pp. Oakland, Cal.: Pacific Press Pub. Co. 1889.

THE author has here assembled in small space the fundamental ideas of central government as found, not only in Switzerland, but in important confederations of both hemispheres. In fact, so many details are given respecting the institutions of the United States, Canada, Mexico, and the South American republics, that one is inclined at times to look back to see if he has made sure of the title. This, however, does not detract from the value of the book. It is evidently an outgrowth of lectures on comparative constitutional history, and the matter thus brought into juxtaposition, especially the more unusual references to Spanish America, will be found useful to the student.

An historical introduction on the rise of Swiss Federalism is followed by a general chapter on Distribution of Power, in which ancient and modern instances are adduced to show that governments have a tendency to centralize in respect to locality, and to expand as regards the number of persons who control them. The parts devoted to legislature, executive, and judiciary are particularly full of details of other countries, though the remainder of the book, touching foreign and internal relations, army, finance, and general welfare, is devoted more exclusively to Switzerland.

The work does not invite much controversy, since it keeps closely to the matter found in the constitutions, often quoting entire sections, and follows the best commentators. It does not attempt to go outside of Federal Government, leaving local institutions for others. Two slight misstatements of fact should be corrected in passing. On p. 110, Mexico, Venezuela, and Switzerland are classed together as giving Senators and Representatives equal

terms—two years in the first two, and three in Switzerland—whereas the peculiarity of the Swiss upper chamber lies in the fact that not only are Senators paid by the States which send them, but the term of office is under State control, and varies from one to three years. On p. 197 the Government monopoly of gunpowder is made to realize "about 500,000 francs annually." The net income for 1888 was 165,905 francs, while in 1884 it was but 88,000, and the average for thirty years would not much exceed 100,000 francs. This, however, does not materially alter the author's comment that the undertaking is unimportant as a source of revenue.

A Treatise on Coöperative Savings and Loan Associations. By Seymour Dexter. D. Appleton & Co.

In this work Judge Dexter has done for the building and loan associations of this State what Wrigley did long ago for those of Pennsylvania. For while this system of coöperation, in its essential features, is the same in all the States, the statutes differ, and Wrigley writes more closely to the law of Pennsylvania, as Dexter does to the law of New York. Judge Dexter's book is very timely now that these associations are rapidly growing in number in New York. It is so easy to start a building and loan association, and so common for the majority of the officers of such an association to have only the vaguest knowledge of the system itself, that a little book of this kind, which discusses the subject clearly and concisely, must do a great deal of good. The manner in which these associations assist members to save money and to own homes is explained in simple language; the division of profits between the different series of an association is illustrated; statistics of the work of the associations in the different States are presented; and the very important subject of premiums, under the different plans in use for paying them, is discussed. Full directions are given about all the details of organizing, with instructions about keeping accounts, and there are copies of all the necessary blanks in the way of mortgages, assignments, notices of withdrawal, stock certificates, etc.

In regard to premiums, the author says: "The association should discourage the bidding of large premiums." That is, he would make the premium simply a measure of the competition for the money in the treasury, and not hold out the argument that the measure of an association's success is the size of the premium it secures. Of the different plans devised for paying the premium, the author gives preference to what he calls "the New York premium plan," which he thus describes:

"The borrower, at the time of his bidding, clearly understands that whatever premium he bids is in the nature of a bonus, and that the amount that he bids is deducted from his loan at the time; and he gives security to the association for $200 a share and pays interest thereon, and the whole premium transaction is closed."

This scheme he defends on the ground of its simplicity. But in every coöperative scheme the idea of strict coöperation should never be lost sight of. If a member of one of these associations pays a premium for a loan with the understanding that it is to run for about ten years, but finds it convenient to pay off that loan in five years, should not a part of his premium be returned to him? There is nothing unfair in "the New York premium plan," when the arrangement is understood in advance by the borrower. But should not cooperation be something more than merely "fair"? The plan of refunding a part of the premium to withdrawing members has been found to work well in practice, and the best way (in effect) to do this is undoubtedly to have the premium paid, not in advance, but in monthly instalments, as additional interest, which it really is. Judge Dexter himself praises this plan so warmly that it is somewhat confusing to follow him to his conclusion that "the New York plan" is the best.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acton, P. Songs and Sonnets. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Allen, Prof. A. V. G. Jonathan Edwards. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ashby, Dr. H., and Wright, Dr. G. A. The Diseases of Children, Medical and Surgical. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.00.
Bickford, L. H. A Hopeless Case. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 30 cents.
Biddle, H. D. Extracts from the Journal of Elizabeth Drinker, 1759–1807. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Billman, I. Bluebird Notes: Poems. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Bindley, T. H. Tertulliani Apologeticus adversus Gentes pro Christianis. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 6 shillings.
Bray, C. The Philosophy of Necessity. 3d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Brief Digest of the First Six Volumes of American State Reports. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Brundage, Miss F. Little Maids. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Cahn, W. Das Reichgesetz über die Erwerbung und den Verlust der Reichs- und Staatsangehörigkeit vom 1. Juni 1870. Berlin: J. Guttentag.
Child, Prof. F. J. The English and Scotch Popular Ballads. Part VI. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Chute, H. N. Elementary Practical Physics. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Costellow, F. H. The Sale of Mrs. Adral. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Dabney, V. Gold That Did Not Glitter. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Dale, A. An Eerie He and She. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
De Garmo, Prof. C. The Essentials of Method. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Dering, R. G. Giraldi, or the Curse of Love. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Fonblanque, A. de. How We Are Governed: A Handbook of the Constitution, Government, Laws, and Power of the British Empire. 16th ed. Frederick Warne & Co. 75 cents.
Haller, G. Le Bleuet. An Alsatian Romance. Brentano's. 25 cents.
Hamerton, P. G. French and English: A Comparison. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften. Part I. Abbau—Aktiengesellschaften. Jena: Gustav Fischer; New York: F. W. Christern. Also, G. E. Stechert.
Heaven, Louise P. Chata and Chinita. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Heimburg, W. Her Only Brother. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Irving, A. Chemical and Physical Studies in the Metamorphism of Rocks. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Kendall, May. "Such is Life." Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Larrabee, Rev. E. A. The Sacramental Teaching of the Lord's Prayer. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co.
Little, Rev. W. J. K. Sunlight and Shadow in the Christian Life. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.75.
Long, G. The Thoughts of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
MacDonald, G. Unspoken Sermons. 3d series. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Macleod, H. D. The Theory of Credit. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Malden, Mrs. S. F. Jane Austen. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.00.
Marenholtz-Bülow, Baroness. The Child and Child-Nature. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
McCaskey, J. P. Franklin Square Song Collection. No. 6. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Milligan, Rev. W. The Book of Revelation. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Morfill, W. R. Grammar of the Russian Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 6 shillings.
Morse, J. T., jr. Benjamin Franklin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Newsholme, Dr. A. School Hygiene. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Oliphant, Mrs. Lady Car: the Sequel of a Life. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Our Family Ways. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co.
Pearson, F. W. Her Sacrifice. Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Publishers' Trade-List Annual. 1889. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
Purinton, Prof. D. B. Christian Theism: its Claims and Sanctions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Robert, Lt.-Col. H. M. Pocket Manual of Rules of Order for Deliberative Assemblies. 100th thousand. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 75 cents.
Sackett, Dr. S. P. Mother, Nurse, and Infant. H. Campbell & Co.
Sause, J. The Art of Dancing. 5th ed. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Scott, Sir W. Marmion. Edited by Thomas Bayne. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 3 shillings.
Sidney, Margaret. Our Town. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Smith, H. Century of American Literature: Benjamin Franklin to James Russell Lowell. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Standish, B. H. Beyond or Here; A Poem. West Union, Iowa: Blackmun & McClintock.
Tincker, Mary A. Two Coronets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

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Suetonius's Lives of the Cæsars. Books First and Second. Edited, with Introduction and Commentary, by Harry Thurston Peck, Ph.D., Professor in Columbia College. 12mo, 215 pp., cloth. Teachers' price, $1.20.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1889.

The Week.

THE Iowa Democrats have for several years taken strong ground in their platforms upon the question of tariff reform, and this year they are even more emphatic than usual, showing that they share the increasing confidence which their party associates in other parts of the country are feeling in the strength of this issue. They also follow the example which is becoming general in Democratic platforms of declaring squarely in favor of the Australian ballot system. This is a practice which must cause Gov. Hill much uneasiness. A declaration in favor of a vague reform in election methods would not trouble him at all, for he professes to be in favor of something of that kind; but a specific call for the Australian system, which he says is a "mongrel foreign" one, and is hailed with delight by certain well-meaning people because "it comes from foreign shores and bears the approval of a monarchical government," must fill him with alarm for the safety of the pure American system which he and Tammany are so determined to perpetuate.

The temperance plank of the Iowa platform is a model of straightforwardness and clearness—so much so that it is virtually a new departure. It reads:

"Resolved, That in the interest of true temperance we demand the passage of a carefully guarded license tax law, which shall provide for the issuance of licenses in towns, townships, and municipal corporations of the State by a vote of the people of such corporations, and which shall provide that for each license an annual tax of $500 be paid into the county treasury, and such further tax as the town, township, or municipal corporation shall prescribe, the proceeds thereof to go to the use of such municipalities."

Compare that with the declaration of the New Jersey Republican Convention of Tuesday week in favor of "purity and temperance and the preservation of the home," and "such legislation as will most speedily and thoroughly eradicate the evil of intemperance." Iowa has at present a prohibitory law which is notoriously a complete failure in the cities. The Democrats make the direct issue of supplanting this with a high-license tax law, with a minimum tax of $500, with a local-option provision allowing any community to raise it by popular vote to any limit desired. This is the system of regulation which has accomplished in several Western States the best results thus far achieved anywhere. The New Jersey Republicans would have been both consistent and courageous if they had taken the same stand, for they were committed to the high-license principle, having secured the law embodying it which the Democratic Legislature repealed; but they abandoned their ground in the hope of catching some of the liquor vote.

A sign of the times which merits the attention of politicians is the series of "tariff-reform picnics" in Western States, particularly Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, the last few weeks. The people gather at some central point from miles around, bringing materials for a substantial meal with them, and then listen to speeches in favor of a thoroughgoing revision of the tariff. Not less than thirty of these picnics have been held in Missouri the past month, and some of them equalled in numbers and surpassed in enthusiasm any meeting held during the Presidential campaign. Senator Vest and other speakers at these picnics report that the interest of the farmers and of the working people generally is something without precedent in their experience. The "campaign of education" is evidently under way.

The success of ex-Secretary Whitney's cruisers has been acknowledged in a very handsome way by his successor. The example ought to have some effect on the Republican newspapers which gave such awful accounts of the doings and designs of Mr. Cleveland's Cabinet. The Indianapolis *Journal*, for instance, which propounded the theory that President Cleveland's character and history justified the suggestion that the banks were making him presents of $10,000 checks for keeping the Government balances in their hands, ought, now that President Harrison is keeping nearly the same balance in the same place, to come forward and say it is sorry to have been so silly and malignant. This sort of confession often does the man who makes it more good than the man who receives it. The war waged on Mr. Cleveland by the Republican press was a disgrace to the American name, and can only be excused by the fact that it came from men who, when ousted from office, felt that they had been robbed of valuable property. It is not unlikely that when the next change comes we shall see on all sides better manners and more candor.

Both the retiring Commissioner of Education and his successor are profoundly impressed with the progress which the South has been making of late years in building up a good public-school system. Mr. N. H. R. Dawson, in his last annual report, says that the increase of enrolment in the schools of that part of the country over the increase in population "has probably never before been paralleled in a country so long settled"; that "the sentiment in favor of free schools supported by public funds is becoming each year more universally prevalent"; and that "the public-school systems of the Southern States have been undergoing an unprecedented development under laws adapted in each case to local circumstances, *and are now practically all established on a permanent basis.*" Mr. Dawson's successor, Prof. W. T. Harris, has returned from a tour through the South, and reports that "in the more thickly settled States of the South, notably South Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee, popular education is making marvellous strides." Prof. Harris was particularly struck by the prevalence of the spirit of self-help: "the South is taking hold and helping itself," he says, after having been so long told by foolish Northern advisers that it must have help from outside. The statements of Mr. Dawson and Prof. Harris add further weight to the accumulating evidence that any scheme for Federal aid to education in the South is unnecessary and must be mischievous.

The Republican party continues to visit its wrath upon its members who reveal family secrets. Mr. Ainsworth, who told the truth in the New York Assembly last winter about the ceiling scandal, has failed of a renomination, though the chances for the return of the leaders in the job which caused the scandal are said to be good. It will be remembered that Mr. Ainsworth was chairman of the Appropriations Committee, and conducted the first investigation of the ceiling expenditures. In a speech on the floor of the Assembly, in explaining his report, he made the following statement:

"We all know that politics was here last year thicker than the panels above us in this ceiling. And the only reason a commission was attached to this bill was for the simple purpose of taking care of the politics that was in the job on the eve of a Presidential election. Isn't that true? It was an unwise thing to do it. We ought not to have done it. We ought to have left it in the hands of Commissioner Perry, and let the politics take care of itself, and we would have had a Democratic President instead of a Republican if we had done it."

This very frank admission that if an honest ceiling had been built, Cleveland would have been elected President instead of Harrison, sealed Mr. Ainsworth's fate. He tried to explain away the speech, but it had been taken down by the official reporter and could not be suppressed. He has been thrown out of the party now, in accordance with the same inflexible moral code which has decreed that John J. O'Brien should be expelled because he put into his pocket the good Republican money which was given to him to buy votes with.

The last batch of postmaster appointments by the President contained that of Howard Wells, at Rock Island, Ill., vice August Huesing, removed. When Mr. Cleveland became President, he found the Rock Island office filled by C. W. Hawes, a Republican, who had been appointed by President Arthur only a few months before, his commission dating from July 4, 1884. Mr. Hawes was allowed to serve out his four years' term, and a little more, his successor not being installed until September 13, 1888, when a Democrat, August Huesing, was appointed. He retained the employees whom he found in the Post-office—three Republicans and two Democrats—and, as far as can be learned, has conducted the office in an efficient and unexceptionable manner. He is an excellent business man; has given the office his undivided atten-

tion; is a director in the People's National Bank, and some ten years ago was elected Sheriff of Rock Island County (which was Republican by 900 to 1,000 majority) by 465 majority, and conducted the office with ability and to the general satisfaction of the people. Mr. Huesing's term would not expire until September, 1892, but he is removed in September, 1889, without any reason except the fact that he is a Democrat, and the Chairman of the Republican County Committee is appointed in his place. Shortly after his inauguration Gen. Harrison was quoted as saying that "we must do at least as well as Cleveland did" in the matter of allowing officials to serve out their terms, but he long since gave up all pretence of trying to do so.

The Minneapolis *Journal*, a Republican newspaper which is not edited by an office-holder, tells the truth about the present condition of civil-service reform, and the man who is responsible for it. Referring to the outbreak in the Republican party against the reform, in which the Congressman from the Minneapolis district has been conspicuous, the *Journal* declares that "there never was a time when the Civil-Service Law was more generally unpopular and more publicly condemned by those whose party is pledged to its support and extension." While the *Journal* hardly expects to see the Republicans in Congress go to the extent of repealing the Civil-Service Law, it confesses that there is manifestly no purpose to carry out the pledge of the Republican national platform, that "the spirit and purpose of the reform should be observed," with anything like an honest purpose to make it a complete success. Whether or not this pledge shall be redeemed, the *Journal* holds, depends upon Mr. Harrison.

The country still waits to learn what candidate for the vacant office of Commissioner of Pensions shall have the "advice and consent" of the Grand Army of the Republic, and in consequence shall be named for the place by the obsequious servant of this organization who signs commissions. This is no "slander of the Mugwump press": it is the frank confession of Republican organs. The Washington correspondent of the New York *Press* reports that the President of the United States defers making any appointment, because "the President persisted that *he desired a man who had the unanimous endorsement of the G. A. R.*" It seems difficult to understand this prolonged delay of the Grand Army Machine to inform Gen. Harrison whom he must appoint, when there is one man who has "claims" which plainly outweigh all the rest. This is Gen. William W. Dudley. He believes thoroughly in Tannerism, which it is insisted must be maintained, but he has not Tanner's one fault of talking too much. He represents the Grand Army Machine, and believes that there should be no concealment of that Machine's purpose to run the Government, so far as it has any interest in the workings of the Government. He has had experience in the office, having been appointed to the place by Garfield in June, 1881, as a reward for his services in carrying Indiana for the Republicans in the election of 1880. He has put Harrison under far greater obligations than those which compelled Garfield to turn out a most efficient Pension Commissioner of the same party and give him the place in 1881. He was just as much entitled to the Commissionership of Pensions, according to the standards of the Harrison Administration, as Wanamaker was entitled to the Post-office Department. "By rights" he ought to have had the place last March. There is absolutely no good reason why he should be kept out of it now that it is vacant.

The report that the Republican State Committee of Ohio have invited Tanner to take the stump for Gov. Foraker is almost incredible, although the Governor has, with his customary recklessness, plunged Tanner as an issue into the Ohio campaign. Before Tanner's removal Foraker had been denouncing all attacks upon his pension policy as springing from Democratic hatred for Union soldiers, and as being, therefore, beneath any Republican's serious attention. The news of Tanner's removal came while Foraker was in the midst of a campaign speech, and was such a blow to what he had been saying in previous speeches that he was naturally somewhat irritated by it. He broke forth at once into the following "impassioned" view of it:

> "That good, gallant, and most-beloved no-legged soldier, Corporal Tanner, has been removed from his position, for what reason we know not, but we propose, and are going, to know why he was removed. If Tanner does not go back, I want a man put in his place who will carry on business in the same style. It is evident that an obscure member of the Cabinet, who was never heard of before his elevation to that position, has been instrumental in removing Mr. Tanner from office."

The astute editor of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* is suspected of discovering the inflammatory character of this passage when it came to him in the Governor's speech; at all events, it did not appear in the report of that speech published in his paper of the following day. It did appear, however, in other papers, and has caused great anxiety, chiefly because the "obscure member of the Cabinet" alluded to by Foraker has a millionaire brother living in Ohio who has hitherto been a heavy contributor to Republican campaign funds. Efforts have been made to deny that Foraker said what is attributed to him, but the production of a number of affidavits from persons who heard his speech has prompted him to admit that he used substantially the language quoted. If Tanner, whose mouth is said officially to have been so destructive to his own interests as to cause his removal, joins forces on the stump with Foraker, whose mouth has also a national reputation for dangerous explosiveness, there will be a campaign in Ohio which will be worth following.

Every good soldier who is honest about it will frankly admit that there were a great many men in the Union Army who were cowards and sneaks and bummers, and that these men are, as a rule, the most urgent in demanding pensions. The editor of the Portland *Oregonian*, the leading Republican paper of Oregon, who served in the Union Army, declared some time since in the columns of that journal that he knew of his own knowledge that, "since the passage of the Arrears of Pensions Act, about every shirk and utterly worthless veteran of his brigade has been a successful applicant for a pension." In one case a wagoner who lost his leg by tumbling off his team while helplessly drunk, got a pension on the plea that he had lost it in action with the enemy. In another case a man swore to having received injuries in a battle at which he was not present, and described his regiment as supporting a battery, when it was in a thick wood distant half-a-mile from any artillery. In several instances within the editor's knowledge, men who escaped from service by shooting off their fingers have received arrears of pensions as if for honorable wounds. In one case a New England merchant worth at least $50,000, who never was in action, and who resigned after less than three months' service, has mortified his decent comrades by trying to get a pension, on the plea that he could trace his present condition of imperfect health to a catarrh he suffered from while in service.

Mr. Bryce, the publisher of the *North American Review*, last week had a printer committed for trial for offering to sell his subscription list to the *Forum*, a competing magazine, which handsomely informed against the offender. This is the crime which Messrs. Quay and Clarkson tried to commit against the *Voice* during the last Presidential canvass, but nothing was ever done to bring them to justice, though the *Voice* threatened it for some time. Clarkson is now figuring as Assistant Postmaster-General, and delighting the Boys by the enormous number of Democratic postmasters he has removed, instead of being brought up, as he ought to have been, for grand larceny. As to Quay, it would be ridiculous to pursue him for larceny until he has answered that charge of the Philadelphia *Press* of having done something to the State Treasury before which "Republicans would stand dumb." We have several times tried to get the *Press*, and even our esteemed contemporary the Philadelphia *Ledger*, to say what they thought this offence of Quay's was, but they also "stand dumb" about it, and Quay's fame and power in the meantime continue to grow.

The reinstatement of Dr. Sherer in the place as Government chemist from which ex-Secretary Fairchild dismissed him with opprobrium, almost completes the righting process which Mr. Fairchild left for his successor. We doubt, judging from the report of an interview with him in Sunday's *Herald*, whether Mr. Fairchild understands to this hour what was the fault which fair-minded men found with his treatment of Dr. Sherer. It was that on the faith of a ridiculous report made by a paid

and untrustworthy detective in a field with which he was not familiar, he (Mr. Fairchild) not only made a violent attack on Dr. Sherer's character in an official report for which he could not be called to account in a court of law, but followed it up by disgraceful dismissal without trial from a salaried place. This was as gross an abuse of power as ever was perpetrated in time of peace. What Mr. Fairchild would now do, if he understood his position and wished to vindicate himself in his action towards the Sherers and others, is to produce even two or three impartial and intelligent men who do not consider the Byrne report a ludicrous document, and the Secretary's mode of directing Byrne's inquisition un-American, unlawyerlike, and unfair and unconstitutional.

Vermont and New Hampshire are both very anxious to increase their population, which is steadily dwindling outside of a few cities and large towns. Organized efforts are making in each State to bring in people from outside to cultivate the abandoned farms, and it is even proposed to send to Sweden and Norway for immigrants. But why is the most obvious source of supply overlooked? There are tens and hundreds of thousands of negroes in the South who want to leave their present homes, and whose white neighbors want to have them leave. There is serious talk of a movement to transport them in large numbers to the Territories in the Northwest which cover the same degrees of latitude as Vermont and New Hampshire. Why not invite them into New England, and, if they need help to get there, raise money to bring them? New England is perfectly sure that it understands how to solve "the negro problem," and nothing would help the country so much as to see a couple of New England States furnish an object-lesson by filling up their dwindling towns with negroes, doubling the length of the scant school rolls with the names of negro children, turning over to negro postmasters the offices of the pleasant summer resorts in the White and Green Mountains which correspond to such places as Bay St. Louis and Ocean Springs on the Gulf Coast, and generally giving the negroes that perfect equality which they are denied in the South. There ought to be "money in it" to satisfy Yankee thrift, and, quite aside from pecuniary considerations, the chance to show the rest of the nation how perfectly simple any question is when a New Englander tackles it is too good to be lost. Let us hear no more about New England trying to tempt Norwegians and Swedes across the ocean when there are any quantity of negroes within twenty-four hours' railroad ride ready and anxious to come.

There was an unpleasant suggestion made to a reporter on Thursday by a gentleman who is supposed to enjoy "inside" views of city politics, that the proposal to take a slice of the Park was not seriously made, and was to be withdrawn as soon as it had drawn the fire of public disapproval, and that its failure was then to be made an argument in favor of more extensive territory immediately above the Park, which was, when the Exposition was over, to be expropriated and added to the Park, thus doubtless relieving a good many owners of lots in that vicinity of burdens too grievous to be borne and bettering the property of others. We do not know whether there is any foundation for this story or not, but we must express the earnest hope that none of the Committee will do or say, or allow to be done or said in their behalf, anything which will give the public the impression that there is a real-estate ring behind the Exposition. The non-political members will do well to keep this in mind. It must be remembered that Tammany, which is deeply interested in the scheme, has always been noted for its passion for real estate. All its great chiefs have made fortunes in uptown lots. To say nothing of Tweed, John Kelly, who for thirty years had no calling, died the possessor of whole blocks of Harlem property. The public has not forgotten these things. We must have no odor of this sort about the Exposition, and one way to prevent it is to avoid all indirection in communications made to the public, and all appearance of keeping back anything. It seems a great pity that the Committee on Sites cannot make up their minds to go right out to the Harlem River, where they can get all the open space needed close on the water, with limitless facilities for transportation. If they continue talking of attacking the Central Park, or of fiddling with Park lots, we venture to predict they will raise enough hostility by next January to put in peril the whole scheme of an Exposition in New York.

The unfortunate stockholders of the London dock companies are now at last beginning to make themselves heard. The theory of the philanthropists who egged on the strikers and sent them subscriptions was, as usual in such cases, that they were helping a large body of poor men to resist the tyranny of a bloated corporation. The solemn truth is, that they were insisting that a body of poor people who had invested their savings in docks should support for an indefinite period a large body of "casual" laborers, for whose presence in the city and for whose hardships they are no more responsible than Cardinal Manning. When the docks were first made, they were considered a good "widow and orphan" investment, and large numbers of poor women and professional men invested their little all in them. On this class the fall in the shares has come with terrible severity. The London Dock Company has of late only paid 1 per cent., and the East and West India Docks nothing at all. When trade began to revive, these poor stockholders began to hope that better times were in store for them, when suddenly John Burns and Cardinal Manning and other philanthropists appeared on the scene and told them the wages they were paying were shamefully low, and that they must support some thousands of "casuals" now in London in greater comfort, and at the same time make some provision for others still to arrive from the country. To the question whether the burden might not be shared by other classes who were better off, the answer was no, that the casuals lived round the docks and liked the work of unloading ships, and preferred being taken care of by dock stockholders, no matter how poor they were.

So many reballotings will be necessary in the French elections that the size of the Government's majority is still uncertain, but that it has a working majority there appears to be no doubt. The despatches tell us little or nothing as to the fate of the purely Boulangist candidates—that is, of candidates nominated avowedly as followers of Boulanger. Their success has apparently been but small. The great bulk of the Opposition consists of Bonapartists and Legitimists, who as a rule worked together, on the principle of anything to overthrow the Republic. The result of the election, should the present calculations prove correct, really sets the Republic on its legs for an indefinite period. No other Government, since the Revolution of 1789, has received a similar vote of confidence at the end of twenty years' trial. On the contrary, each of them has, at the stage of existence which the Republic has now reached, proved ripe for destruction. The probabilities are, too, that the issue submitted to the electors having been virtually the overthrow or perpetuation of the Republic, the majority now returned will be more homogeneous, and, for the present at least, more disposed to work together than any that the Ministry has had to depend on for many years back.

The contest between the Republic and Boulanger would have been an ignoble and humiliating one for the Republicans, if it were not that the Bonapartists and Legitimists had made common cause with him. Both Prince Victor and the Comte de Paris issued manifestoes in which they advised their following to support the Boulangist candidacy on the ground that it would help bring about a revision of the Constitution. They each have a curious confidence that revision will be sure to bring him good luck. Prince Victor's theory is, that an appeal to universal suffrage would lead to the reëstablishment of the Empire as the true and only democratic government, while the Comte de Paris is equally confident that if the country wants a monarch at all, it will take him. Each, too, expresses absolute confidence that, if he were put on the throne, French troubles would cease, and the new form of government become permanent. But it is difficult for any one who knows the history of France during the last hundred years to read their proclamations without a smile, there is such a Cheap-Jack air about them. Boulanger was plunged in great perplexity as to the effect on his fortunes of his continued absence from the country, and tried to counteract it by offering to come home and stand a trial by court-martial; but this of course the Government would not heed.

THE SCANDAL PROSPECT.

SHREWD, though doubtless cynical, observers are beginning to say that the present Administration will produce a crop of scandals which will place it fully on a level with Grant's second term, of unsavory memory. The air is already, in the first six months, full of signs pointing in that direction. In the first place, Gen. Harrison fatally weakened himself on the moral side by giving Wanamaker a place in the Cabinet after having been fully informed of, and asked to investigate, this worthy's attempt to obtain, by a corrupt consideration, a very large sum of money for campaign purposes from the Pacific railroads in the last week of the campaign. In the next place, a candidate who comes into the Presidential chair by an enormous expenditure of money, through a man of notoriously bad character like Quay, on the tariff issue, is mortgaged to the corruptionists from the beginning.

We mean nothing offensive to honest supporters of the protectionist theory when we say, that the chief supporters of a high tariff must of necessity be men to whom the tariff is an investment, and who will, therefore, defend it, as they would defend any other kind of property, by all the means within their reach. If they cannot get rid of their assailants in any other way, they will buy them off, and thank God they have the means to do it. In other words, a high tariff is sure sooner or later to beget corruption on a great scale. It means definite gain or loss in dollars and cents, to a few rich men, and they will therefore always, as long as human nature is what it is, meet arguments against it by checks in its favor. Our tariff is defended in this way, and will be as long as it exists, and the result is naturally and inevitably the diffusion through the whole body politic of the money view. It introduces the money standard into every public office and puts a price on every vote, and brings into prominence as politicians all the moneyed men of the country *quâ* moneyed men. The consequence is, that Gen. Harrison's Cabinet meetings and consultations during the last six months have really been attempts to satisfy his creditors, the wool-growers and manufacturers, who set him up in business and now want a first dividend. They expect him to pay 100 cents on the dollar, but will take it in instalments. To this state of things we owe the attack on the surplus through Tanner. That Tanner was put in the Pension Office to dissipate the surplus, and so destroy one of the leading arguments for the reduction of the tariff, is, we presume, now believed by nine-tenths of the voters. A shrewder man than Gen. Harrison—Blaine, for instance—would, perhaps, in like circumstances have done the same thing, but he would have done it in a more discreet way. He would not have selected for the work a noisy blatherskite like Tanner, but some quiet, canny lawyer or business man, like Maynard, for instance, who would have eaten into the surplus, on the white-ant plan, without alarming the public.

So, also, a shrewder man, in Gen. Harrison's place, would not have made his chief lieutenant in New York a man like Platt, who was an object of universal ridicule and contempt in 1880, whose capacity as a jobber is notorious, and who is not and never has been associated in the public mind with any politics but corrupt politics. Of course it is as certain as anything of the kind can be, not only that Platt will plunge the Administration into scandals, but that the public will be on the lookout for a scandal whenever they catch sight of Platt. Of this the selection of the Custom-house site is a fair example. That the Bowling Green has been chosen, in spite of the protests of the great bulk of the merchants—that is, of the parties most interested—in order to forward a real-estate speculation in which Platt and Elkins and other Republican jobbers are interested, is to-day the general belief in this city. There is nothing in Platt's career to upset this belief. On the contrary, everything that is known of his history goes to confirm it. He probably would not be the least ashamed of it if it were proved against him in open court to-morrow. In fact, he would probably chuckle over it as a revelation of his smartness.

The sudden raising of duties by appraisers on various articles, in defiance or evasion of the decisions of the courts, was, it is true, an abuse started covertly under the late Administration, but it is being carried on with the utmost boldness by the present one. That the Custom-house here is being managed for purposes of this sort by a set of politicians, among whom Plummer and Platt are the chiefs, for the direct purpose of helping their own private business, is also generally believed, and there are things occurring every day to confirm this belief. There is, in short, every possible sign that the Administration has surrendered the Custom-house and the Pension Bureau to its creditors to enable them to recoup themselves for advances made during the late campaign; and one of the most important of these signs is the gross disregard of his pledges displayed by President Harrison in the selection of his subordinates. President Cleveland gave way to the spoilsmen, it is true, but he did not do so without a struggle, and until he had been two years in office. Gen. Harrison has done so without a moment's delay and without the slightest resistance.

What is, perhaps, most painful in the situation is the exhibition the President is making of that most sorrowful, and only too frequent, phenomenon of our day, the possession of a double conscience, one for the church and the Sunday-school, and another for politics and business. The calm and publicity with which a great many men of his type work this curious moral machinery, is puzzling as well as startling, and suggests the existence of some hideous break in the hold of our modern religion on conduct, which the Church has not as yet managed to discover and deal with. And yet we assert that it is at this moment doing more to sap the faith of the younger generation in Christianity than all other influences combined.

ADVANCES TO DISBURSING OFFICERS.

THE advancing of funds to disbursing officers of the Government, about which there has been so much said in connection with Secretary Windom's recent explanation of the increase of the public debt, constitutes one of the most memorable bones of contention known to the Treasury Department. There was no room whatever in the original Treasury scheme for anything of the sort. The act establishing that department assumes all the way through that a warrant drawn on the Treasurer by the Secretary for the payment of money will be based on an account settled and certified by the Comptroller. But everybody knows that Hamilton, nevertheless, advanced moneys whenever he considered it expedient, and for so doing was most virulently assailed by the Democrats of his day. In his long and interesting "Explanation" (to be found on page 81 of volume 7 of Mr. Lodge's Life), Hamilton frankly confessed that if the proper appropriation act had been passed, he considered it justifiable, as well before as after the service was performed or the supply obtained for which the fund was designed, to make disbursements from the Treasury for the object, if it appeared safe and expedient so to do. Such a course, one can see, was necessarily taken for the good of the service, but surely it was liable to great abuse, and a careful man would have urged Congressional sanction for such a power. The committee of investigation appointed by the House of Representatives inquired very closely into all these matters during the Administration of Jefferson. Gallatin informed them that a custom had prevailed before he became Secretary of paying moneys out of the Treasury not only in advance of a settlement by the auditors, but even of an appropriation by Congress. The Secretary used to write a simple letter directing the Treasurer to pay, and the irregularity was afterwards corrected by securing an appropriation and drawing the formal warrant.

Under Gallatin many of the safeguards were erected which still exist, restricting the discretion of Treasury officials and others in making advances. In 1823 it was enacted that "no advance of public money shall be made in any case whatever." But it was provided that "under the special direction of the President" such advances should be made to the disbursing officers of the Government as the faithful and prompt discharge of their duties and the fulfilment of the public engagements might require. A case arose in 1843 (Williams vs. The United States) calling for a construction of this law. The sureties of the Marshal of the District of Columbia maintained that they were not liable for the large sums due from their principal, because they had been advanced him without the special direction of the President. It was proved, however, that the President had given directions in writing a short time after the act was passed, specially authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to make proper advances to various classes of disbursing officers—marshals and others

—and the Supreme Court held this sufficient. The language of the decision is worth quoting:

"While it has been doubtless the object of Congress *to secure economy* and regularity in public disbursements, and for that end *to limit*, as far as was proper, *the discretion* of subordinate agents over the public money, it never can be reasonable to ascribe to them a conduct which must defeat every beneficial end they could have had in view, and render the Government an absolutely impracticable machine."

It is generally supposed that prior to the year 1853, when President Pierce furnished a list of officers to whom advances might be made, special directions issued from the President in each case, in literal execution of the statute. But this old case which we have cited turned upon the proof of a similar standing order of the Executive issued in or about 1823, which was among the papers destroyed in the burning of the Treasury. The contents were, under these circumstances, shown by clerks acquainted with them. President Pierce, however, attached a most important limitation to his standing direction. "In no case," he enjoined, "where the agent is to give security, shall the amount in his hands at any one time exceed the amount of his security."

Though subsequent Presidents have modified Pierce's order by including officers not known in his day, this restriction has stood unchanged, and forms the very groundwork of the function of the accounting officers in countersigning requisitions for advances. Comptroller Lawrence especially observed it and continually harped upon it. Every officer, whether stationed in the departments or elsewhere, who disburses public moneys usually gives bond with security. Their requests for advances are scrutinized by the comptrollers in order to determine whether the amount asked for added to the amount at the time in their hands exceeds the penalty of their bonds. This is not always done. It cannot, indeed, in all cases be done, for the very good reason that as the same officer frequently deals with several auditors, and there is no general registry where all balances are brought, it is impossible to determine how his accounts stand. The same disbursing agent may draw the same day requisitions which will go through different hands and be subjected to no intelligent scrutiny, for the reason that each comptroller is distinct from the other, and neither has full means of determining the condition of affairs. But it is true, notwithstanding, that the head of the Treasury Department, under the law and executive orders, is prevented from making advances beyond what is "necessary to the faithful and prompt discharge" of the duties of these disbursing agents, and that the penalty of the bond is the guide. In no case should that be exceeded. If he has no proper means of keeping the check of the accounting officers upon these agents, by reason of a faulty or deranged internal system, it is plainly his duty to bring about, by his own efforts or by the aid of legislation, such a change as will enable him to retain his peace of mind when he attaches his signature to the countless warrants placed before him.

MORE ABOUT THE SITE OF THE FAIR.

If we are to have the Fair in New York, time is of the last importance in making the preparations. In fact, the Committee ought to be able to go before Congress in December or January and say: "We have an organization; we have a suitable site all ready; we have the hearty support of the people of the city and State, and we have a reasonable prospect of so much money. We ask now the pecuniary aid of the National Government, and its sanction and support for the invitations we shall address to foreign nations."

As matters stand at present, what the Committee seems likely to have to say to Congress is this: "We have an organization, and some hope of some money. We cannot yet say how much. We have no site, but we shall have a tolerably good one if we succeed in repealing an act of the Legislature which forbids our occupying the Central Park, and if we can come to terms with some eight hundred owners of real estate outside the Park. To the repeal of the statute we shall, it is true, encounter the fierce opposition of probably three-fourths of the inhabitants of the city, and perhaps that of the Governor; and the arrangement with the private owners for permission to occupy their land will be a task of enormous difficulty, and will take a great deal of time—probably all the time we have for preparation. The sooner Congress makes us a very large appropriation, therefore, the better, for we shall probably need it to buy up the Legislature and settle with the real-estate men."

The extraordinary haste, not to say levity, with which the Committee fixed on the site has been substantially admitted by their principal organ, the *Times*, on Tuesday. It shows that they have marked out for themselves fully twice the space taken for the Paris Exposition, and that two-thirds of this was selected where they must have known the choice would excite violent, if not fatal, opposition—the Central Park. Their attention for the last three or four days has been confined to meeting the objections to the invasion of the Park; but on discovering how formidable this is, they have at last asked themselves the question which they ought to have asked in the beginning, "What have we got outside of the Park?" Well, what they have appropriated in their mind's eye outside the Park besides the Riverside and Morningside Parks, is a large number of vacant lots, the property of private individuals, to the value of $48,000,000, and they seem actually to have assumed without asking that the owners of these would lease them to them for a trifle. This of course is in the highest degree improbable. The great bulk of these owners are doubtless more or less burdened by these lots, and only too eager to make something out of them that will help them carry them while waiting for a sale. If the Committee want them, they will unquestionably have to pay high prices for them, whether they rent or purchase them. Some owners will very likely refuse either to rent or to sell, and the most curious feature of the situation is that the refusal of a single owner, occupying a central position, would stop the enterprise. Each of these 800 owners, in fact, would hold the *liberum veto* of the Polish Diet. That this simple, obvious, and most important fact has at last dawned on the minds of the Committee the article in Tuesday's *Times* shows. Assuming that the Committee would manage to do without the whole, and content itself with a narrow strip north of the Park held by 125 owners, the *Times* says:

"One of the most serious problems with which the Committee on Site must contend will be that of securing this or any other territory in the neighborhood of the Park. With unlimited funds at hand it would, of course, be easy to acquire as much property as might be needed outright by purchase. With everything financial thus far in the air, the question is beset with vexatious possibilities. It is hardly to be hoped that 125 owners could be brought to one frame of mind in respect to a matter affecting their material interests. If their property were not to be purchased from them, it is quite conceivable that they may not all agree to pass it over to the managers of the Fair to do with as the managers may like for the next four years."

The proposed mode of dealing with this difficulty has the same air of mingled eccentricity and levity. The Tammany Corporation Counsel has, we believe, given an opinion that lots might be "condemned" for the use of the Committee and bought at an appraisement, and the *Times* tells us that Mr. W. E. D. Stokes, the Secretary of the Committee on Legislation, "thinks that the Legislature can authorize the appraisement and condemnation of all the land the Fair may require, and that it can then be bought in in the usual way." This is worthy of a Youngster in a Republican newspaper office. The Legislature can take no man's property except for "public use," and the use of a fair got up by a private association to celebrate the discovery of America is not "public use," *pace* the Tammany Counsel. If a man's property could be taken for a large fair, it might be taken for a small one, and we might any of us be legislated out of house and home if any of our neighbors wanted to hold a "fair" on our land. Of one thing the Committee may rest assured, no owner of land who does not wish to surrender it to the Exposition will sit down under this exposition of the law either by the learned Mr. Clarke or the sanguine Mr. Stokes. He will fight their interpretation of "public use" tooth and nail up to the Court of Appeals, and we venture to say no lawyer of repute doubts that he will win; but, win or lose, the litigation would work fatal delay. And then consider for a moment the time necessary for negotiation with 125 greedy owners, each anxious to make what he could out of the occasion.

The apparent failure to consider all these points, combined with the recent great activity in the enterprise of the eminent Tammany contractor and politician, Mr. Crimmins, is leading thousands to ask with increasing earnestness whether the enormous appropriation of land outside the Park, covered with these difficulties, was ever seriously meant; whether in fact the real design all along has not been to select an unnecessarily

large area, part in the Park and part out, and then plead the obstacles to the use of the outside tract as an excuse for a larger encroachment on the Park, until the whole was absorbed; or whether the talk of "condemning" property for the use of the Fair is not really meant to prepare the public for its condemnation for the use of the Park, which even if unnecessary would be legal, and at any rate would relieve a good many owners of unsalable lots at good prices, and run up the value of a good many others. At all events the whole site, with its rocky eminences, numerous sunken lots, with the vast prospects of dumping and excavating thus afforded (filling up the Harlem Mere is part of the scheme), with its jaunty indifference to public opinion, its violent changes of sentiment on the part of some of its prominent advocates, bristles with suggestions of hidden impropriety which are finding very unpleasant lodgment in the public mind, and which the members of the Committee ought for their own sakes to make an effort to dissipate.

It ought not to be forgotten—and we do not offer it as a suggestion, but as a memorandum—that the city owns large open spaces, notably Van Cortlandt Park and Pelham Bay Park—each ready for occupation for any purpose; that they can be had at once for the purposes of the Fair, without cost, without negotiation or litigation; that all the money which would be spent in buying out the Harlem lot-owners or tearing the Central Park to pieces, might at Van Cortlandt Park be spent in providing means of communication to any desired extent, which would retain their value after the Fair was over; that the "noble buildings" which are to be put up and all other improvements made for the Fair might there be retained permanently, to the public advantage and the advantage of the neighboring property-owners, and that under this arrangement the Committee could go to Congress in December and say that it had its site ready and had the people of New York at its back.

COURAGE IN POLITICS.

THE St. Louis *Republic* prints a letter from ex-Senator Ross of Kansas, now a resident of Deming, New Mexico, regarding his course in voting for the acquittal of Andrew Johnson twenty-one years ago. The letter is full of interest, both as recalling one of the most important crises in our national history, and as shedding light upon the character of the man whose vote turned the scales when the future of the Government was trembling in the balance. The future of the Government, we say—for it is now generally conceded by thoughtful students of our institutions that the success of the impeachment scheme would have worked an irrevocable change in the character and operation of the system established by the Constitution. That system was based upon the division of all powers between the executive, the legislative, and the judicial departments, and was intended to secure the independence of each department within its proper bounds. The controlling minds in the Convention which framed the Constitution were especially impressed with the necessity of securing the independence of the Executive. "Experience," said Madison during the discussions, "proves a tendency in our governments to throw all powers into the legislative vortex. The executives of the States are in general little more than ciphers; the legislatures omnipotent. If no effectual check be devised on the encroachments of the latter, a revolution will be inevitable." In the same vein Hamilton wrote in the *Federalist*:

"The tendency of the legislative authority to absorb every other has been fully displayed and illustrated. In governments purely republican this tendency is almost irresistible. The representatives of the people, in a popular assembly, seem sometimes to fancy that they are the people themselves, and betray strong symptoms of impatience and disgust at the least sign of opposition from any other quarter; as if the exercise of its rights, by either the executive or judiciary, were a breach of their privilege and an outrage to their dignity. They often appear disposed to exert an imperious control over the other departments; and as they commonly have the people on their side, they always act with such momentum as to make it very difficult for the other members of the Government to maintain the balance of the Constitution."

This natural tendency of the legislative authority to absorb all power was greatly strengthened just after the war by Andrew Johnson's break with the party which had elected him, and especially by the pig-headedness of the man. The fact that the people of the country sympathized with Congress in its prolonged and bitter controversy with the President, gave a further impetus to the tendency which Madison had observed in the colonies, a century before, to "throw all powers into the legislative vortex." The movement to get rid of an obnoxious President by a prostitution of the prerogative of impeachment was the logical outgrowth of the latent disposition of Congress to usurp the whole governing power, roused into action by a combination of circumstances calculated to insure its fullest development.

It was, of course, essential in framing the Constitution that some way should be provided for getting rid of a President who might try to overturn the Government, trade his authority for money, or behave otherwise like an abandoned wretch. It was, therefore, provided that a President might be tried, and if found guilty by two-thirds of the Senate, deposed for such offences as "treason, bribery, and other high crimes and misdemeanors." This latter clause was interpreted by Story as covering only offences which "may be utterly incompatible with the public safety and interests, or may bring the Government itself into disgrace and obloquy." Nobody now pretends that Johnson had been guilty of any such offences. The trouble with him was that, so far as he could, he blocked the reconstruction schemes of the Thad Stevens school of Congressional politicians, and was "dreffal aggravatin'" about the way he did it. His removal, upon the charges on which he was brought to trial, would have been, as Mr. Ross forcibly characterizes it, "a Presidential eviction under the lash."

If the movement had succeeded, there can be no doubt that the Presidency would have lost for all future time its due weight of authority, and that the Executive would have been merely the supple tool of Congress. The balance thus disturbed, the Supreme Court would logically and inevitably have been the next object of Congressional attack. A partisan majority which resented the use of the Presidential veto to defeat the enactment of laws that it wanted to pass, would not long have allowed a Supreme Court, after those laws had been enacted, to declare them "null and void," as the Supreme Court a few years later did annul such important measures as the Civil-Rights Act. The effect of such a revolution would have been to make Congress the sole repository of power, and to put all the processes of government at the mercy of the majority in a party caucus. The melancholy spectacle presented in France of late years—of a powerless executive, a legislative department pulled hither and thither by tides of popular feeling, and thus a government which inspires neither confidence at home nor respect abroad—would have been seen in the United States. Mr. Ross does not exaggerate when he says that "the logical end would have been anarchy."

From this utter wreck of the republican experiment in America we were saved only by the courage of Mr. Ross and the six other Republican Senators who voted with him for the acquittal of Johnson. The votes of all seven were essential, but at the time Mr. Ross was treated as the man who turned the scales, inasmuch as the verdict of the other six had been foreshadowed, while his course was left in doubt. He may well rejoice that he has been allowed to live long enough to see his action endorsed by the American people, as it is now endorsed by the people without distinction of party. In this respect he has been more fortunate than his more famous associates, Fessenden and Grimes, who died only one year and four years after the trial, before full justice had been done to their conscientiousness and courage.

A striking and impressive feature of this crisis in our national history is the fact that the man who thus preserved the Government as the framers of the Constitution established it, was not a trained statesman, like Fessenden, and Trumbull, and Grimes, and that he had secured this chance to make his name for ever remembered through the accident of death creating a vacancy in the representation of Kansas in the Senate, which he was first appointed and subsequently elected to fill. He had been working as a printer only a short time before his entrance into the Senate, and he is back again at his old trade in New Mexico, after having served as Governor of that Territory under Cleveland. But this quiet, plain man rose to the level of an occasion which called for the highest courage and statesmanship, and, twenty years later, though he approaches old age in obscurity, he enjoys the satisfaction of seeing his services to the republic recognized and confessed by all thoughtful men.

ANAHEIM, RIVERSIDE, SAN DIEGO.—I.

PORTLAND, Ore., September, 1889.

AFTER taking in the sights of Los Angeles, including the palms and orange groves, the cable-car scenery and Chinatown, which have been often enough described, it will repay the tourist to devote a week or two to a round trip through that part of the State which lies south of Los Angeles, as far as San Diego and Tia Juana on the Mexican border. Take a ticket to Riverside, via Orange, and stop over a day at Anaheim, which commands a specially fine view of the snow-capped San Gabriel range and the giant San Bernardino. Anaheim is known as the "mother colony," having been founded as early as 1858 by a party of fifty Germans from San Francisco, in search of a pleasant site for homes and good soil for raising Rhine wine. To-day the population is no longer exclusively German, nor is wine-making the chief industry, for Anaheim enjoys the sad distinction of being the place where the destructive vine disease originated, and now there are few good vineyards left in the vicinity, though the cellars of the hospitable families are still well stocked with a Riesling that unmistakably betrays its legitimate descent from the celebrated Johannisberger stock on the Rhine. Undaunted by their misfortune, the Anaheimers have dug out their dead vines and planted in their place oranges, walnuts, pampas plums, and figs, which in a few years will bear as rich fruit and as big profits as the former vineyards. The fields and orchards are supplied with water through a ditch from the Santa Ana River, sixteen miles long, and lined all the way with willows. A drive along this ditch is interesting, as is a visit to the ostrich farm, two or three miles from the town. If a longer stay is contemplated, there is excellent hunting of wild goose, ducks, and other waterfowl, all the way from Anaheim to the ocean, while in the cactus fields around the town may be found quails and pigeons, and the sportive jackrabbit abounds. In hunting him you not only satisfy the craving for murder of some sort, which still lingers as a relic of savagery in the gentlest human breast, but you do a great service to the farmers, who are sometimes obliged, in self-defence, to organize rabbit drives, at which two or three thousand of the long-eared, fleet-footed robbers are killed.

The town of Orange, between Anaheim and Riverside, already gives warning of the neighborhood of the State's orange centre. The station, in the springtime, is piled up to the ceiling with boxes of oranges, and near by a number of men are busily at work wiping the golden fruit with wet rags and rolling it down inclined boards to dry, preparatory to packing. The fruit is generally bought on the tree by the packing companies, who send round their men with ladders, and sacks suspended around their necks, from which the fruit is transferred to boxes to be repacked afterwards, the bruised or imperfect ones being thrown out, so that three boxes (of the seedlings at any rate) yield only two for the market. Orange-picking is painted by the imagination as the most poetic of all agricultural employments, and nothing, certainly, could look more picturesque than the boxes of luscious fruit scattered through an orchard, under the dark-green fragrant trees; but the orange-tree, like the rose-bush that loves to twine around it, bristles with thorns, which cry for blood, and make orange-picking about as exciting and perilous a pursuit as rabbit-hunting amid the cactus bushes.

The town of Orange still belongs to Los Angeles County, but before reaching Riverside we have entered San Bernardino County, the largest in the United States—"about the size of the States of Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, and Massachusetts combined." The counties of Southern California are very much larger than those of the central and northern part of the State, and as the population increases they will doubtless be subdivided. Thus a strong movement is now on foot to take the southern part of Los Angeles County and make the new county of Orange out of it. But it is doubtful if San Bernardino County will be divided very soon, for the greater part of it is comprised in the irredeemable Mojave Desert. The region west of the Bernardino range, however, is one of the most valuable in the State, experience having shown that it is the chosen home of the orange. Los Angeles County has many fine and luxuriant orange groves, and more of them than San Bernardino County, yet to see California orange culture in its highest perfection one must go to Riverside. Nowhere else do the orchards seem so luxuriant and so well cultivated, or the fruit and trees so glossy and clean. Here the oranges do not need cleaning with a rag, owing to the absence of the black scale which elsewhere often gives the leaves and fruit a dirty appearance. The white scale-bug, too, which destroys the trees, has thus far spared Riverside groves, and in the business street of the town a notice is posted warning purchasers of orange trees not to import any from infected counties. The orange is not indigenous to California, as it is to Mexico and Florida; it does not flourish here without some care, and becomes remunerative in proportion to the amount of care bestowed on it. A glance at the well-ploughed, weedless, carefully irrigated orchards of Riverside at once explains the enormous profits realized by local growers; and an incident that occurred at Anaheim throws further light on the matter. Noticing a couple of malodorous freight-cars on the side track, I asked a man what they contained. "Manure," he replied, "from the numerous sheep corrals in the neighborhood, and bound for Riverside," adding that this had been found the best manure for oranges, and that in a few years the Anaheimers who now foolishly sold their treasure would be importing it from elsewhere at an exorbitant price. Rows of cypress trees are planted along the edge of every orchard, and sometimes even traverse the orchard in several places, to serve as windbreaks; for though there are no hurricanes to provide against, the desert wind is sometimes sufficiently boisterous to shake down bushels of unripe fruit and break the heavily-laden branches, unless thus protected.

The best way to see the Riverside orange groves, and marvel at their extent, is to ride or walk along Magnolia Avenue, doubtless the finest avenue in America. It is laid out a distance of twelve miles, and seven miles are now finished. Between the road and the houses on each side are four rows of tall eucalyptus and spreading pepper trees, and two rows of fan palms, ten to twenty feet in height, and growing more beautiful every year. Nor is this fine avenue a monopoly of carriage-owners, for the poorest can enjoy its sights by paying ten cents for a ride on the street-cars which have their track under a row of pepper trees, without interfering with the broad carriage drive. In this way Riverside spreads itself out, covering a territory, orchards included, of fifty-four square miles, and almost realizing the ideal of one of those California "rural cities of the future" sketched in my last letter. The grounds of some of the elegant villas which line this road are thrown open to the public, and one of them, which I examined, with its extensive stables, shady walks, hammocks, tennis grounds, and notices of club meetings and *al-fresco* teas, had an air of hospitality and sociability recalling the life on Southern plantations before the civil war. The large adobe house, a relic of the Spanish occupation, was deliciously cool on a warm day, and the owner said he did not find it unhealthy. He showed me through his extensive orchard, and, with a large table-knife, cut open specimens of more than half-a-dozen different kinds of budded oranges for me to taste. They were all sweet and juicy, but he had to admit himself that the differences in flavor were not so pronounced as the differences in the original homes of these varieties led one to expect. California fruit-growers doubtless attempt too much in seeking to raise oranges from so many different countries in the same field without losing their characteristic flavor. This difference in flavor is due to differences in soil and climate, and can only be preserved and reproduced in a similar soil and climate. As California fortunately has an infinite variety of climates and soil, it is probable that the problem of raising Italian, Spanish, Mexican, and Florida oranges all in the same State will yet be solved, but not in one and the same orchard. The Spanish blood-orange, for instance, the most delicately-flavored of all oranges, is rarely seen in California, and when I asked why, I was told that it was inclined to sport and lose its characteristics. There is a fortune in store for the man who finds out under what conditions this variety flourishes in Spain, and seeks out a similar locality for them at home. Another excellent variety, the Florida russet, I never saw on the Pacific Coast. Its appearance is against it, and it is difficult to teach people to select their fruit for the palate rather than the eye.

Riverside is a little too far inland to get much benefit from the ocean breezes, but it is surrounded by mountains, snow-capped till summer, which to some extent atone for this disadvantage, and which make Riverside, from a scenic point of view, one of the most attractive places in the State. This, combined with its horticultural prosperity, causes it to grow rapidly, and among the newcomers and the old there are a large number of English families, who, of course, endeavor to bring their household gods and customs with them. Foremost among these is the fox-hunt; but as there are no foxes to be hunted, the simple-minded plebeian jackrabbit has to take the place of his astute, bushy-tailed colleague. There are no fences to jump or fields to destroy, and everything is in plain sight; but as the riding is much faster than in England, there is no lack of excitement. To come home from one of these hunts with a pair of rabbit ears in her hat is the chief pride of the English damsels of Riverside. Besides, these ornaments take the place of a parasol, much needed here sometimes. In midsummer, no doubt, Riverside is a good place to get away from, but in winter it offers special advantages to invalids.

It is not necessary to stuff your pockets and valise full of oranges on leaving Riverside for the South, for you will find just as good fruit, and plenty of it, in San Diego County. Backing up to a station called Citrus, a few miles north of Riverside, you wait for the train which leaves Barstow on the Atlantic and Pacific, or Sante Fé, Railway, for San Diego, and which, soon after you have boarded it, enters the county of that name, a county not quite so large as San Bernardino, but still, according to the guide-book, covering as much ground as Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Delaware combined. It forms the south-

western corner of the United States, and owes much of its local color to the proximity of Mexico, or Lower California, a peninsula which a large number of educated people in the East are in the habit of mistaking for "Southern California." The branch of the Santa Fé Road referred to is known as the California Southern Railroad. Between the Bernardino range and the ocean it traverses a region where the spring vegetation, though almost as abundant as in Los Angeles County, is not so luxuriant, owing to the diminished rainfall. Three-fifths or more of the vegetation which carpets the fields seems to consist of compositæ, and the predominant color is yellow—as if to hint at the fact, which has long since been demonstrated, that there is more gold to be got out of the surface of California soil than out of all its subterranean mines. One never tires of looking at these gaudily-colored fields, especially when bordered by foot-hills, whose green garb is ornamented with red, yellow, brown, and blue patches, like a "crazy-quilt," varying in shade and atmospheric effect with the time of the day; or when, as on this route, there is a background of high mountains, with their snow caps drawn half way down their treeless foreheads as late as May. The two chief mountains are too long-drawn-out to be imposing sculpturally, but the great mass of snow on them gains in charm by contrast with the surrounding blue sky and warm sunshine. The best point of view is from Perris, the junction for the short branch road to San Jacinto. Soon thereafter the Laguna is reached, also known as Lake Elsinore; but if the tourist expects to see one of those picturesque mountain lakes for which the State is famous, he will be grievously disappointed. The Laguna is a commonplace, dreary old pond with steep hills on one side and flat on the other. There are ducks on it, but no cover to approach them. In May it was sixteen feet higher than two years previously, and it has a habit of getting very low till the real estate on its banks has been claimed, whereupon it roguishly rises and submerges it for a few years. But the soil in the vicinity is credited with marvellous properties.

We now enter the region of Indian missions and reservations, and expect to see some of the redskins loitering about the stations, as they do at Yuma and elsewhere; but not a single one is to be seen at any of the towns. Those who make pilgrimages in the tracks of novel heroines may find something to interest them hereabouts with their 'Ramona' as a guide, but otherwise the region is dreary and desolate, its only apparent attraction being the snow mountains just described. A pleasant change is afforded by the passage through the Temecula Cañon, in which it is refreshing to follow along a creek though it be but a few inches deep and two or three feet wide. It cools the air and lines the bank with pretty bushes. Presently smoke-like mists begin to rise from the water, as if it were on fire; scattered pools with bulrushes and flocks of birds, and the russet color and rank monotony of the vegetation, indicate the approach to the ocean. A cool saline breeze strikes the cars; the windows of the more sensitive passengers are lowered, and at the same moment the Pacific comes into sight—to many of the tourists their first view of the king of waters. But the outlook is limited, for a few miles at sea hovers a fog-bank which looks as opaque and solid as if a Krupp gun could make no impression on it. For the rest of the way to San Diego the ocean is almost constantly in sight, and new varieties of plants and flowers occupy the attention. Conspicuous among the flowers are a white morning-glory, larkspurs and lupines in several colors, the ice-plant, with red flowers, and leaves that seem to be covered with icicles, and a flowering bush which at a distance resembles the alpenrose. HENRY T. FINCK.

BARBARIAN SIGHTS AT THE EXPOSITION.

PARIS, September 6, 1889.

THE Exposition continues to be a great success; indeed, the success is greater than it has ever been. Every day the railways bring to Paris thousands of people, who come to spend a few days among its wonders. The aspect of the Parisian boulevards is changed at night: the whole city is a sort of Valley of Jehoshaphat: all possible languages are heard, all costumes are worn. M. Melchior de Vogüé, well known in France as the introducer of Russian literature among us, has written some suggestive articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the Exposition, with his enthusiastic disposition. He has spoken of the Eiffel Tower, of the new style of iron architecture, of the huge Machinery Hall, of the mysterious force which works in the electric dynamos. I am surprised that he has not yet insisted upon what may be called the theatrical and international character of this great congregation of men and things.

During the warm evenings which we have had this year, this theatrical character could be better appreciated than in the daytime. I have sometimes entered the Exhibition by the gate opposite our Foreign Office, and found myself in what is called the Colonial Department. The moon was shining on groves of palm trees, fountains were playing with a soft murmur in square Algerian or Tunisian courts; the white forms of Arabs, Bedouins, Kabyles, dressed in the burnoose, were visible here and there in dark corners, or gliding slowly under the trees; here were the low tents under which were families brought from the provinces of Oran, or Constantine, the little houses, built in wood and plaster, of the Kabyles; some Kabyle child or infant of the oasis or the Atlas was running about or playing. The bazaars, so thronged in the daytime, were shut, and their occupants were enjoying the fresh air of the night. Sounds of drums, of barbarous instruments, were heard in the little cafés. If you entered between curtains thrown aside by a negro, you would fancy yourself in some African town; here the women danced their Oriental dances to the sound of their accustomed music; curious human forms were spread on low divans, servants were going about offering coffee in small cups; ejaculations were heard which you could not understand. The languid children of the East seemed to look with contempt on the Christians, though they were willing to amuse them and to receive their money.

Who brought these people here? Is money-making such a passion that it can destroy the whole order of nature, and bring the children of the desert, or of the Atlas, or of the Lebanon to the banks of the Seine? Or were these people only the dregs of the Mediterranean towns? Was it fair to judge Islam by such representatives? The fire-eating Aissawas were surely disgusting, with all their ferocious tricks, and they pretend to belong to a religious sect. The French colonies are represented by little villages. The French naval officers have taken care of this department, and all here is quiet and orderly. You can make the acquaintance of New-Caledonian life, of the Gaboon, of Senegambia; you can see real idols and real idol worshippers. When you approach Annam you hear extraordinary shrieks; they come from the Annamite Theatre, and it is worth while to enter and take a seat. The best actors of Annam, we are told, have taken the trouble to come here and entertain us. They have brought their splendid silk costumes, embroidered by fairies, their horrible masks—for they never show their faces—the men, at least, for there is a woman who shows hers, and it is plain enough, poor woman! She plays the part of a queen, and, at a given moment, she has to weep, and she really does weep. You can see the tears rolling down her cheek. She weeps every day, at the same hour; is there a Parisian artist who could do that? The men, meanwhile, shriek in a most unearthly fashion; it is their way. Such shrieks I had never heard before. They gesticulate very oddly. I had a friend with me, who explained to me some of their gestures. For instance: The mandarins (for they seem to be all mandarins) often jump on horseback; but there are no horses on the stage; nevertheless, they make all the movements of a man who mounts a horse; when you are not in the secret, the effect is extremely ludicrous. A river is always represented by a carpet thrown on the stage, etc. The author of the play, some Annamite Corneille or Racine, sits there all the time with a big drum between his knees. When he is pleased, he strikes on his drum; the audience is confounded, but the actors are encouraged. On the whole, an Annamite play seems to be one of the wildest forms of amusement; the one I saw and heard produced on me the effect of the most horrible nightmare. But we must be tolerant to the Annamites if we wish them to be tolerant to us. Every time I go to the Opéra I see now some negro king of the African coast, some Persian or Tunisian Prince, looking on from the Government boxes. What do they think of our operas and our ballets? The Shah could not bear for an hour the new ballet, "The Tempest," based on Shakspere's "Tempest"! All theatrical representations are conventional.

Nothing is probably more conventional, more symbolic, than the Javanese village, which is one of the most popular features of the Exposition. It is built entirely of bamboo. Little shops are open, where you can buy various Javanese articles and Javanese tea; under a sort of tent is a small theatre, on whose stage are musicians, all sitting in an Oriental attitude and playing on extraordinary instruments. One of these is made entirely of pieces of bamboo, which strike each other; others are of bronze and remind you of kitchen dishes. The music is odd, not without a sort of charm; it is a rather indistinct noise, to which the sound of bronze gives life. Four female dancers, very young (the youngest is about fourteen), dance to the sound of this music. They wear curious gold helmets, and are entirely painted with saffron; their silk costumes, draped with much grace, are covered with ornaments; they wear huge bracelets on their bare arms and a sword at the back. Their dance is said to be religious; it is very different from anything we call a dance, being a sort of slow march. The legs and the body move but little; the arms and hands are always in motion, and these motions are very odd: the hands seem to revolve freely round the wrist in every direction; they throw about at times, in a spasmodic way, the long pieces of silk tied around the waist. The faces are very grave, almost stern—at least they were so at first, and the first time I saw the Javanese dancers, they executed all their movements with a gravity which gave their dance an original character. Each step,

each motion seemed to be dictated by some thought; but now the Javanese girls have become half-Parisian. They have been lionized; ladies have visited them in the house where they live; *Figaro* has exhibited them in a great soirée given to Mr. Edison, together with the new American star of the Opéra, and with other celebrities. They have been petted by the public. They now laugh, and chat, and utter little French exclamations; they have been rolled in the great cosmopolitan cement of the Exhibition, and have already lost a great part of their originality.

And so it is with many other shows of this kind—for the Exhibition covers a multitude of them. You find them not only in the esplanade of the Invalides, they are hidden everywhere along the arcades of the Exhibition. There is a long street, following what is called the Palace of the Liberal Arts, and going towards the end of Machinery Hall, which is one long perpetual show. The Eiffel Tower may well be called the Tower of Babel. Here you have a theatre, where you can see real Gitanos from Granada, with their *capitan*, dancing all sorts of dances, shouting with sharp southern voices, and clapping their hands as hard as if they were of wood. You can hear the Rumanian orchestra, look at the descendants of the Romans now living near the Danube; a girl who serves you a glass of beer in her Rumanian costume, has the look of a Roman Empress; the man in the orchestra uses the antique pipe of Pan. There is a curious and almost morbid beauty in the strange national airs played by all these half-Italian, half-Turkish looking men, all dressed in white cotton clothes, embroidered with red. Strange also are the Indians, with their turbans, who will serve you mysteriously with a cup of tea, in what is called the Indian palace. But the most curious and the most thronged part of the place is a whole street, copied exactly, with the greatest minuteness of detail, from Cairo, with its donkey boys, mosques, and the muezzin chanting from a high balcony, and the small cafés full of people gazing stupidly on some dancers. The *Rue du Caire* is the first thing which visitors to the Exhibition have to *do;* and when they have left it they think they know the East.

But this is not enough; cosmopolitanism and internationalism have not found the immense field of the Exposition large enough; we have an invasion of Spaniards all over Paris. In one of the circuses are to be seen every night splendid processions of dancers belonging to all the provinces of Spain; they appear in their charming and varied costumes, with their provincial banners; they march, and then execute their national dances. A Spanish company have gone to the trouble of building a real Plaza de Toros, at an immense expense; there are every day real bulls and toreros, and banderilleros, and *Capitanes de la Plaza*, in magnificent dress, with splendid horses. There is room for 20,000 people, but the place is empty; the whole affair will be a complete failure. The Government does not allow the killing of the bull, and what is a bull-fight without it? I entirely approve the action of the Government. Why should we introduce the cruel game of bull-fights into our life? We have already introduced in France the English races: the jockey was one of the forms of the movement which prepared the French Revolution—it seemed to belong to constitutionalism; but nowadays all sensible people would be very glad to be rid of him, and of all that goes with him.

If the Plaza de Toros is a failure, the same cannot be said of your Buffalo Bill; he is an immense success. All French people have a passion for the *Peaux Rouges* and the novels of Fenimore Cooper; they all admire the cowboys; and Buffalo Bill, with his sombrero, his long curly hair, and his handsome face, has become one of the most popular figures of the day.

And so our time goes on: "from sport to sport they hurry me." We shall soon be sick enough of this continual show, and we ask ourselves, will they, the Javanese, the Annamites, the Chinese, etc., be as sick of us as we are beginning to be of them? And what has been the use of all this? Do we feel any better, more humane, better disposed to the rest of the world? We ask ourselves, also, what has been the effect of our civilization on all these minds? What will they think of us? And finally, this grand spectacle, which for the immense majority is a mere show, because ignorance does not allow the greatest number to watch and to understand the development of science—will it be moral or demoralizing? will it have good or bad effects? I confess my doubts. Surely, such a spectacle impresses even the ignorant with a sort of dumb sense of the power of the human intellect; but, on the other side, these races brought together from all parts of the world seem to have nothing in common except blind and brutal instincts, which find their satisfaction in the coarsest spectacles. Men are said to be all equal; they are especially equalized by their follies and their vices.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

VII.—THE RETROSPECTIVE EXHIBITION.

PARIS, August 16, 1889.

JUST as Henri Regnault was hailed as a coming master and was cut short in his career at the early age of twenty-eight, so Bastien-Lepage, who created a genuine sensation with his "Portrait of My Grandfather," at the Salon of 1874, following it in succeeding Salons with such works as "Les Foins," "Portrait of My Parents," "Jeanne d'Arc," and "The Potato-Gatherers," was looked upon as a rising *chef d'école*, and, after only ten years of painting, died in 1884, just after he had completed his thirty-sixth year. Looking back at the condition of art when Regnault made his advent, and comparing it with the state in which Bastien found it, it is apparent that, of the two, Regnault's influence has been the more powerful, for the "Salon picture" as it exists to-day largely owes its origin to him. The big canvases, with their scenes of carnage and torture, were almost unknown in the Salon before Regnault, and the example he set in the "Execution without Judgment—Tangier," has been followed *ad nauseam* by hundreds of ambitious young painters, many of them with the smallest amount of talent, others with a great deal, but degenerating more and more until it has resulted in the production of mere vulgar atrocities such as the "Vitellius Dragged through the Streets of Rome," or the "Andromache," by Rochegrosse. Bastien worked in a more peaceful field. If his influence has been less far-reaching than that of Regnault, it has been vastly more beneficial. A weak imitation of Bastien is a harmless sort of production, and to resemble him at all it must contain a certain amount of naïveté, which is never a bad quality. There is no opportunity for such carnivals of horror as are possible for a youngster who fancies himself another Regnault, and is bent on out-Heroding Herod.

Bastien's small portraits—the marvellous one of his brother, the architect, seated at a table with his drawing instruments; those of the Prince of Wales and Sarah Bernhardt and Albert Wolf—have had the effect of stimulating this style of portraiture, and we find excellent work in the Decennial Exhibition by Chartran, Friant, and others, which is directly traceable to him. In his pictures of out-door life, those remarkable effects in *plein air*, Bastien no doubt drew something from Courbet and even from Manet; but he is decidedly original, and his work is distinguished from theirs by infinitely better drawing, and by a research for color that goes beyond Courbet and that Manet never approached. In the portrait of his parents, again, Bastien, with the most exquisitely sensitive drawing and an abundant sense of color, reaches a very high level. In the portrait of his mother particularly, there is an exactness that is worthy of Holbein, with an unaffected sentiment that we can find nowhere outside of the great Dutchmen. Painted out of doors, as these portraits are, in the diffused light, there is an original side to them that belongs to nobody but Bastien. The "Portrait of my Grandfather" is equally remarkable, and is the last word in sincerity and truth in the out-door school of painting. The Jeanne d'Arc is too well known to call for comment, but it is worth noting that, surrounded here by the best art that France has produced, it loses nothing of its beauty and is one of the masterly works in the Retrospective Exhibition.

We must now return to Ingres, to establish the connection between such men as Paul Baudry and the art of 1830. Not that Baudry and Delaunay are classicists exactly, but they have not felt the influence of Delacroix to the extent that Courbet and his followers have, and through all the new "movements" they have pushed steadily along on the paths laid out before them—paths which, if we follow them backwards, lead not only to Ingres, but to the great masters of the Renaissance. Baudry is preëminently a stylist. There are eleven canvases here by him, and in the three earliest, "Portrait of Baron Jard-Panvillier" (1855), "The Infant St. John" (1861), and "The Wave and the Pearl" (1863), a delightful nude figure, very fine in color, we find the pure drawing and delicate sense of form that mark the classicist along with a graceful but somewhat conventional execution. In the later ones, notably in the "Portrait of Gen. Cousin Montauban, Count Palikao" (1877), and the "Portrait of Madame B.," we find that, without losing a particle of his masterly drawing, and retaining all his feeling for form, he possesses the most astonishing freedom of execution. The portrait of Count Palikao, a life-size portrait, with the General in uniform, standing beside his horse, with his right arm leaning on the saddle, and his sword held cane-like, with the butt of the scabbard resting on the ground, is such a work as we can only compare with Velasquez or perhaps Van Dyck. Certainly there is nothing in these galleries that is so distinctly a great piece of painting in the sense that Velasquez is great, in the wonderful force of a man who is absolutely sure of himself, and dashes through his work, neglecting nothing, never slurring over a difficult bit of form or adopting expedients to escape hard problems of color, and produces a canvas that includes everything which others attain only in part by patient labor—a canvas that makes us marvel at such technical skill, and charms us by its beauty. There is the same enchanting verve in the "Portrait of Madame B.," a lady seated in a chair with a child on her knees, and the same distinction of character. Unfortunately, Baudry is not represented here by any of his decorative work. In the section of drawings and

water-colors there are some of his studies for his ceiling, "Glorification of the Law," and other decorative panels, but they are studies only. The Opéra contains his greatest work, the decoration of the foyer, and it is absolutely necessary that these decorations should be seen to form an idea of the greatness of Baudry's talent.

Delaunay, classicist in the "Death of the Centaur Nessus," "Ixion," and "David Victorious," is seen at his very best in two admirable portraits, one of a lady in black, and the other of an old lady with the head in three-quarters view. This last is a wonderful piece of drawing, possessing the naïve beauty of Holbein. I have spoken at length of his great merit as a painter of portraits in the account of the Decennial Exhibition. There remain to be mentioned a fine full-length portrait of a lady by Carolus-Duran, "Portrait of Mme. F." (1869), the best of all his portraits, perhaps; three by Cabanel, notably the "Portrait of M. Armand"; four by Paul Dubois, of which the best is the celebrated "Portrait of My Children" (1876); and two by Bonnat, whose "Portrait of Mme. Bischoffsheim" is one of the most strikingly real of the long series he has painted and one of the best of his portraits of women. Bonnat is further represented by his famous "St. Vincent de Paul" (1866) and his equally famous "Christ on the Cross" (1874).

Other notable names in the catalogue of the Retrospective Exhibition that call for special mention after these are Vollon, Falguière, Laurens, Bonvin, Ribot, Merson, Meissonier, De Neuville, and Detaille. The exhibit of the works of these painters is complete and interesting, but, except in the case of Meissonier, perhaps, it is not necessary to go into details. The Meissoniers are nine in number, headed by that remarkable composition, the best of his military pictures, "1814." "The Emperor at Solferino," familiar to visitors at the Luxembourg Gallery, is also here, and there is a fine small portrait of the owner of "1814," M. Delahante, and two marvellous little pictures, "Waiting" and "The Etcher," both of them painted more than twenty-five years ago, and both in the possession of the painter, from which those who are acquainted with the opinion Meissonier holds of certain of his pictures may conclude that he sets great store by these. Leaving that out of the question, they are evidently of his best.

Of landscape painters, the three works by Cazin, "Madeleine," "The Flight into Egypt," and "Nativity," should of course be noted. There are three excellent works also by Lavieille, a painter who has the honors of the Luxembourg, but is comparatively little known outside of France. He died here last year, and his pictures are not very numerous.

Puvis de Chavannes, the great artist whose decorations, "The Life of Geneviève," at the Pantheon, "The Sacred Wood," at the New Sorbonne, the "Pro Patria Ludus," at the Museum of Amiens, and others, have made him famous, and placed him at the head of modern painters of decoration, cannot be seen here as he should be seen to understand the value of his work; but among the five canvases, the "Beheading of St. John" and "The Prodigal Son" show at least partially his excellence, and give some idea of his distinctively individual methods.

The lesson the Retrospective Exhibition offers to the young painters of France is so plainly written that he who runs may read. Remembering that there exist rightly only two forms of painting—the easel canvas and decoration—they can see what wonders may be accomplished in the first by looking at Millet's "Gleaners" or Corot's "Biblis." They will see that there is everything in these pictures—color, drawing, light and air—and they must feel that it is consummate art, while the big canvases in the Decennial Exhibition are vague and empty. They will see that mere size adds nothing to the impressiveness of a picture, and that where the subject is not in itself grandiose it detracts from it. They can see that to make a real work of art, it is not necessary to arrest the attention of the indifferent passer-by, and force him to look, but that the best things are never fully taken in at first glance; and they ought to learn that the reason why the "General Prim" or the "Remise des Chevreuils," "The Gleaners" or "Biblis," the "Count Palikao" or the "Jeanne d'Arc" are great works of art is because the men who painted them had something to say, and brought the whole strength of their talent to bear to say it without thinking of how the picture might look in the Salon, or whether the jury would vote it a recompense or not. These men painted for the sake of painting and for love of the beautiful in nature, and it is because they have been able to express themselves in a language that all can understand, and have triumphed over countless difficulties to make their expression beautiful, that the world accords them homage.

Whether the young painters will take the lesson and profit by it remains to be seen. There is, however, already a reaction against the evil tendencies that have made such headway in the Salon. It is probable that another ten years will see a decided change, and that the *tableau de chevalet* will take its rightful place again in the exhibitions. It is to be hoped that such a change will take place in France, and the sooner it comes the better, for the bad example set in the Salon has spread to the artists of other countries, and the evil will continue there until the reform comes from Paris, the art centre of the world. The young artists have a bright example before them in Dagnan-Bouveret, who has never been led away from his principles, and who has yet attained to the highest honors, though he has never found it necessary to paint a genre subject on an heroic scale.

Looking at the Retrospective Exhibition and the Decennial Exhibition together, although the triumph undoubtedly belongs to the generation that has passed or is passing away, it is nevertheless gratifying to find that at the bottom the same great principles are adhered to in the present day which are the cause of the preëminent superiority of the French school over all its contemporaries in the century that has passed. Sound drawing, the basis of pictorial art, is taught in the schools, and it is not in this particular that the artists of to-day are wanting. This is especially notable in the portraits in the Decennial Exhibition. The marked decadence in landscape painting is due, as has been pointed out in a former letter, to the prevailing fashion for bigness and glare which has almost annihilated color; but in Cazin at least we find a man who fulfils the requirements of a landscape painter, and whose splendid talent must sooner or later make its influence felt. In decoration Puvis de Chavannes is a worthy successor of Delacroix and Baudry, though his work differs widely in its essential characteristics from that of either of these, and there is no doubt of his being a master. Finally, there is in Meissonier, Gérôme, Bonnat, Delaunay, Gervex, Dagnan-Bouveret, Vollon, Laurens, Merson, and a score of others whose place is made and whose reputation is fixed, a strong conservative element that will prevent bad tendencies from overpowering the good; and we can reasonably hope that, with this conservative force, and the lesson that the Retrospective Exhibition so clearly teaches, there will soon be a reaction that will utterly sweep these tendencies away, and carry the French school of art through another brilliant epoch as glorious as the one they are now celebrating in the Champ de Mars. WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

FRÉMONT AND MONTGOMERY BLAIR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the first week in July last you refer, in an uncertain way, to the connection between the withdrawal of Gen. Frémont from the Presidential contest in 1864, and the resignation of Montgomery Blair from the Cabinet at the same time. As the relation between the two events does not seem to be generally known, and, indeed, is apparently not understood by the biographers of Mr. Lincoln in the *Century Magazine*, a word of explanation is perhaps demanded from any one familiar with the facts.

President Lincoln was extremely desirous for harmony among Republicans, and that Frémont's withdrawal be brought about; and to accomplish these ends Senator Zachary Chandler of Michigan left Washington early in September of 1864, and proceeded to the home of Ben Wade in Ohio. Senator Wade was soon brought to see that the withdrawal of Gen. Frémont, and harmonious action by the Republicans, was an absolute necessity, and agreed to cease his opposition to Mr. Lincoln on condition that Mr. Henry Winter Davis, his associate in the celebrated Wade-Davis manifesto, should be satisfied. Mr. Davis was next approached, and his assent to harmonious action was on condition that his personal, and, as he thought, political enemy, Montgomery Blair, should leave the Cabinet. To this latter condition Mr. Lincoln consented.

With the progress thus made Senator Chandler next visited New York, where, from his headquarters in the Astor House, he opened negotiations with the immediate friends of Gen. Frémont, for the purpose of procuring his withdrawal. In this work the Senator was efficiently aided by George Wilkes of the *Spirit of the Times*. The leaders of the Frémont movement were ultimately won over to the scheme of reconciliation, and consented that the General should withdraw, and thereby unite all the strength of the party in the support of Mr. Lincoln.

At one time during the negotiations Mr. Bryant of the *Evening Post*, feeling the necessity of harmony, and fearing that the opposition to Mr. Lincoln in certain quarters might prove disastrous to his reëlection, had in type an editorial for his paper advising Mr. Lincoln's withdrawal, and a united Republican support of Gen. Frémont or some other available candidate; but, by the vigorous assurances of Senator Chandler that harmony could better be reached in the support of Mr. Lincoln, the editorial was withheld from publication.

The night after the conclusion of the arrangement with the friends of Gen. Frémont, Senator Chandler returned to Washington, reaching there in the morning, and called promptly at the White House, where he was anxiously and eagerly received by the President. He announced the result of his negotiations, and Mr. Lincoln at once fulfilled his part by addressing a note to Mr. Blair asking his resignation (which was promptly tendered),

thereby closing the dangerous breach and making certain his reëlection.

I was a guest at the Astor House during the greater part of the negotiations, and accompanied Senator Chandler to Washington and to the President's house, and make most of the above statements from personal recollection of the events as they occurred, and the others on the authority of the Senator. That these facts are not more widely known is doubtless due to Senator Chandler's well-known reticence, with all but his intimate friends, as to his own services. DAVID H. JEROME.

SAGINAW, MICH., September 16, 1889.

COLLEGE TEMPTATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I desire to return my sincerest thanks for your advocacy of the doctrine that colleges should close their doors against boys who do not earnestly desire to learn. A few years of experience in teaching have convinced me that the average college is suffering more to-day from the presence of such boys than from any other cause whatever. Their lack of preparation causes the teacher to consume valuable time in explanations needless to the remainder of the class, they deprive the class-room work of much of its value to real students by disorderly conduct, they make uninterrupted study impossible in dormitories, they demoralize their associates, and they do incalculable damage to the college by lowering the respect in which it is held by the community.

Probably the difficulty is complicated, in the eyes of many, by the fact that a pretty large proportion of the boys who give the trouble are of wealthy parentage. The college of small endowment must be careful not to alienate men of means without good reason. I shall be very much mistaken, however, if the first college of good standing which advertises to the world that it will weed out all the idle, vicious, and incompetent without fear or favor, and makes good its promises, does not make a distinct advance in financial prosperity by the reform. There are many people who want to send bad boys to college for reformation, but there are still more who want to send boys of good character and studious habits to colleges where they will not be forced into association with the idle and vicious, and where their desire to learn will suffer from no unnecessary interference.

It would also be an inestimable boon to boys who are disposed to yield to the temptations of wealth if it were impossible for them to secure the social advantage of a degree from a respectable college without conducting themselves as gentlemen and students should.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O.

[The President of a Western college writes us in the same sense: "Please accept hearty thanks for your excellent article on 'Colleges without Temptation.' We have for several years pursued with good results the policy indicated by you, of getting rid of all young men who need watching and cannot take care of themselves. With them the greater part of the temptations have disappeared."—ED. NATION.]

POETRY AND MANNERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your excellent editorial on "Manners in the Public Schools," do you not think that the reforms you suggest will be greatly facilitated by a reform in the direction of making our elementary courses of instruction more interesting to our school-children? It seems to me that children must be lifted above the dead, humdrum level of their home life, and that school must be made a pleasant place to them before the counsels of their teacher with regard to manners, or any other points not connected with the routine work of the class, can have any appreciable effect.

But is this element of interest on the part of the children much considered in our public schools? They seem to me to be great "cramming" factories which turn out prodigies in the way of map-drawers and mental arithmeticians, but which utterly fail to present us with what we most want—young men and women soundly trained in mind and body. Let one picture to one's self how a school day passes, and one will cease to wonder that such a state of things exists. Hour by hour creeps past, class after class is heard in a mechanical way, teachers grow cross and despairing, and children more weary and dull or else more flippant and rude—this, I fear, is a day's history for most of our public schools. Could "manners, virtue, freedom, power" be taught amid such surroundings, even though Milton were to come back to us, as the poet wished—even if he resumed his old rôle of teacher?

But these evils have been recited time and again, and one has no excuse for dwelling upon them unless one has a remedy to offer. It seems to me that the late Matthew Arnold offered a remedy when he insisted upon the value of poetry as a part of the curriculum of every school. Nothing will so lift a child above the humdrum level of his home life as hearing and reading good poetry; nothing will make him so plastic to his teachers' precepts of good manners and good morals; nothing will so counteract the bad literature of the present day; and certainly nothing will so influence for good his after life.

I shall be told that the number of studies is too great already; but I reply that it is a thousand times better for a boy to be familiar with "Marmion" than for him to be able to draw a map of Cochin China or to calculate the tenth power of nine in his head. It is fair to say that an hour spent on good poetry will be worth the six hours now spent on the average public-school course.

The want of proper teachers will also be urged; but, if it is once understood that poetry must be taught, proper teachers will be forthcoming. I hear that the Johns Hopkins University is, after all these years, to have a lectureship in poetry somewhat similar to that which Henry Birkhead founded at Oxford. If this experiment proves a success (and to this end I advise the Hopkins authorities to make a careful study of the history of the chair of poetry at Oxford, and to avoid certain mistakes there made), other universities and colleges will feel obliged to follow the example set them. This will mean that professors of poetry, who can train teachers of poetry, will become common, and that the deadly mechanical processes that are crushing the life out of modern education, will be superseded. Matthew Arnold always fought "machinery" wherever he saw it—in religion, in politics, or in education; he never dealt it a heavier blow than when he raised his voice for the proper study of poetry in every school. I mean, of course, the study of poetry as poetry—not as a vehicle of philological or historical facts.

One other point deserves notice. We are worried over the question whether the Bible shall be used in our schools, and we are perplexed at the claims the Roman Catholics are making. It does not seem probable that any compromise will be made by which non-sectarian religious instruction can be given; and so, many good people are aghast at the thought that their children are condemned to receive a purely secular education. But if we are not to have the Bible—and for my own part I see no force in the reasons urged against its use—why should we not make good poetry serve as the next best substitute for it? Assuredly the child who gets continuous instruction in our serious English poetry will not leave school without a moral, nay, a Christian, education. On such a basis the Protestants can join forces, and, unless they do join forces, there is danger ahead for our schools.

The public-school system of this country is on trial, and many thoughtful men have declared against it; but I venture to think that this is not because the fundamental idea of the State's duty towards its children is discredited, but because these thoughtful men have become disgusted with the deadly, mechanical systems of instruction that most of our States have adopted. When these systems have been changed, the defection of one religious body will not cause our educational fabric to totter, and the thoughtful men who turned away will come forward once more with help and counsel.—Your obedient servant,

W. P. TRENT.

THE UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH, September 14, 1889.

THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the reference to the competition for the prize on the Bluntschli foundation in the literary notes in your columns for August 16, it is forcibly stated that there should be libraries in the principal centres of the country which would afford opportunity for the study of foreign legislation. I venture to state that the State Library of Massachusetts has within the past few years made a modest effort to supply such a demand, and it contains, in addition to the statutes of this country, fairly complete collections of the laws of the following governments and provinces:

Great Britain, Canada, the general Government and provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, Northwest Territories, British Columbia, and Manitoba; India, the general Government and provinces of Ajmir, Assam, Bengal, Bombay, British Burmah, Central Provinces, Coorg, Lower Provinces, Madras, Northwestern Provinces, Oudh, and Punjab; Queensland, South Australia, Victoria, West Australia, Tasmania, and New South Wales; also the British colonies of Antigua, Bahama, Barbados, Bermuda, British Guiana, British Honduras, Cape Colony, Ceylon, Cyprus, Falkland Islands, Fiji, Gambia, Griqualand West, Heligoland, Isle of Man, Jamaica, Jersey, Leeward Islands, Malta, Natal, New Zealand Straits Settlements, and Trinidad; France, the general Government, together with its dependencies of Guadaloupe, Martinique, Réunion, Établissements Français de l'Inde, Senegal, Saint Pierre and Miquelon, and French Guiana; Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Geneva, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, Argentine Republic, Brazil, Chili, Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Peru, Venezuela, the Hawaiian Islands.

Yours respectfully, C. B. TILLINGHAST,
Acting Librarian.

STATE-HOUSE, BOSTON, September 18.

GERRYMANDERING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to say to your correspondent "A. I." that in this State we are perfectly familiar with the performance called *gerrymandering* in the precise sense given to it by the 'Encyclopædic Dictionary.' Whatever may be the correct pronunciation of Mr. Gerry's name in the current derivative, the *g* is always pronounced like *j*. Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms' gives a concise history of the word "gerrymander." Its pronunciation is doubtless a case of attraction brought about by the familiar abbreviation "jerry" for Jeremiah. There is no occasion for taking our English cousins to task for mispronunciation in this case, though the alternative spelling is clearly without authority. Besides, we should not be too ready to cast stones at them for mispronouncing our proper names, as we sin quite frequently in respect to theirs.

C. W. Super.

Ohio, September, 1889.

[It is rash to affirm, but we apprehend that in New England, of which Elbridge Gerry was a native, gerrymandering is commonly and correctly pronounced with a hard *g*.—Ed. Nation.]

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A Government report shows that the aggregate of deposits in the savings banks of the United States on the last day of June, 1889, was $1,364,196,550, and the number of depositors 3,838,291. These constitute only about one-sixteenth of our population, while in the British Islands two-sixteenths of their population (viz., 4,220,927) are depositors in their Postal Savings Bank. As we have more wealth, which, also, is more generally diffused, we should have more depositors in savings banks than the British; the difficulty being, in our case, that our population is scattered over so large an area that corporate savings banks cannot reach the people. If, however, the counters of our post-offices could be used as places for the deposit of the savings of the people, we may anticipate with confidence that at least another sixteenth of our population—4,000,000 more — would become depositors, beginning thereby a career of thrift and self-reliance.

The Government report referred to also states that there was an increase last year of 822,336 in depositors, and of $290,901,595 in deposits. These figures demonstrate how undesirable it would be to concentrate the vast sums that would be deposited at our postal savings banks in the Treasury at Washington; an amount too large for Congress to restore wisely to the channels of circulation. In fact, it is mainly this difficulty, that of providing for the use of the aggregate deposit of our people, which delays the introduction of the postal savings-bank system into the United States.

By transmitting the deposits made at the post-offices (*a*) to the States in which they originate, or (*b*) to corporate savings banks, we at once avoid the concentration of the savings of the people. The forty-two State governments could find use for the money in perfecting internal improvements, or in the loan of it to municipalities (as is done in England). The aggregate amount of deposit would never diminish, but be a constantly increasing sum. A low interest—say 2 per cent.—paid to the depositors, plus the charge by the national Government for the post-office service, would give the States money at a very low rate, while attracting to their treasuries an immense sum through the sense of absolute security which the people would rightly feel in placing their savings in the hands of a legislature which they directly control. Freedom of individual action would be preserved by giving equally cheap access through the post-offices to corporate savings banks as to the State treasuries; and such companies, paying a higher rate of interest than the State governments, would not be crowded out of business.

Horace J. Smith.

Pontresina, Switzerland, August 23, 1889.

HISTORICAL SEMINAR METHODS AT LEIPZIG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read the articles of Mr. Fling on the work of the Leipzig Historical Seminar in the *Academy* for April and May of this year. While the picture which he gives of the Seminar and its work is a very accurate one, as far as it goes, and while I agree entirely with his general conclusions, as I believe every American who goes to Germany for advanced history must, the picture is nevertheless a one-sided one. The Seminar work of Prof. Arndt must be added to make it complete. His subjects are always from mediæval history—generally select questions of German constitutional history. He begins with the earliest documents which illustrate German institutions, and comes as far down as time will permit.

It so happened when I was there that the 'Germania' was up for study at the same time under both Prof. Maurenbrecher and Prof. Arndt, but the methods of study were very different. One has been accurately enough described by Mr. Fling. In Prof. Arndt's work topics were almost never assigned to individuals. Some one or two became responsible for the translation of the passages to be taken up each evening, but the discussion was always general. Every student was at any moment liable to be called upon for his opinion, and if he did not have one, he generally made a mental resolution that he would be provided next time. Questions and suggestions came as freely from students as from instructor, and nobody had any idea of going to sleep. Altogether, the scene was not greatly different from that presented in the class-room of a wide-awake American instructor in the 'Germania,' who knows what ought to be done with such a book, as a good many of them do. Nor did the character of the work done seem to me very different, except that the interest was historical, and that a different and wider range of books was drawn upon.

The strong points of Prof. Arndt's method come out still more clearly when he takes up the charters and diplomas of a later period. Let us suppose a case. We are in the eleventh century, we will say. We know the special period to be taken up and the general topics; perhaps a number of subordinate topics with references have been announced—at any rate, enough is known so that very good general preparation can be made in both literature and sources, but no one knows the special topic or the text which is to be studied this evening. As the exercise opens, each man is handed a sheet of paper on which he finds, copied by the gelatine pad, a diploma of the period. Some one is asked to read it while the others follow—it is very rarely translated—and then Prof. Arndt says: "Now, gentlemen, what do you see?" For about five minutes every one tries his best to see something in the document worth mentioning. Then the work begins. "Well, who has it?" or, "Herr R., what have you found?" Suggestions are made by one and another. The usual answer is, "Yes, good, but there's more yet," and the students are gradually led on to extract by their own efforts, with only the slightest suggestions from the Professor, the historical facts directly implied, then those more remotely implied, and, finally, those only to be obtained by an extended process of inference, till the apparently simple-looking document is made to illustrate a range of fact that no one dreamed of at the outset. If the division at any time seems to be at a stand, they are encouraged by such expressions as "Zu, zu, meine Herren!" "Haben Sie Augen?" "Lieber Herr! was für Historiker!" This last is sometimes put in even stronger form, but always pleasantly, not angrily, and good work is certain of full appreciation.

This is only a single evening. Its method may not be repeated during the whole year. The rule is constant variety, but always quickness of work and keenness of insight. Sometimes the documents handed out are taken home for study, with a set of assigned topics, which are, however, very apt to be left behind when the discussion is well under way. Sometimes, after an hour spent on a document, Prof. Arndt will suddenly ask: "Is this genuine or a forgery?" and after more work it will be found to contain signs of forgery which ought to have been seen from the start. Again, a reference will be found to a fact of political history, and the Professor will call for all the sources which mention that occurrence. The books will be brought and opened on the table, and one student will read this and another that account. Questions will bring out the relations of the writers to the time and to the events, and their relative trustworthiness, and the two or three which are pronounced best will be very carefully compared, and everything possible extracted from them.

But it is impossible to describe fully a constantly varying method—only its general effects can be suggested. The things which Prof. Arndt demands that his students shall see in what he puts before them, are often things which it is not possible for them to see with their limited knowledge of constitutional history. But no doubt he understands that as well as any one, and for that very reason no better method could be devised to teach the men, what every student of history must learn, that when you have read a document through once, you have not seen all there is in it, and that after you feel sure you have got all it says directly, there may still be a great deal to be drawn from it by careful inference. The whole object of the work is to teach the best methods of historical investigation, and all the best students of history there gratefully acknowledge their indebtedness to it. The number of Leipzig history dissertations dedicated to Prof. Arndt indicates clearly enough the feeling. The students say that Arndt's Seminar reproduces very accurately the methods employed in similar work by Waitz—that this was recognized by Waitz as more true of Arndt than of any other instructor in Germany, and that Waitz in turn reproduced the methods of Ranke's original exercises, which were so "epoch-making" in Germany.

Whether this genealogy is correct or not I cannot say, but I do know that any American who goes to Leipzig for history, no matter in what branch of it, and does not join Prof. Arndt's Seminar, has missed one of the best opportunities he will find abroad. Indeed, if Americans are going to Germany for history at all (and it is very rapidly becoming unnecessary), I do not see why more of them do

not go to Leipzig. About one at a time seems to be all we can maintain there. One may, perhaps, want to see and hear the great men at Berlin, but for genuine work there is no place superior to Leipzig. Prof. Maurenbrecher is a remarkable lecturer. His audiences are always large, and in speaking he is full of life and enthusiasm, and keeps men awake. On this side of the work he has few equals in Germany. As a teacher Prof. Arndt is equally remarkable. He has a great deal of that power, so very rare in Germany, so much more common with us, which takes hold of students and wins their confidence and awakens in them the desire to do good work, and then shows them how to do it. PRESTON.

THE END OF WOMAN-BURNING IN ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Gentleman's Magazine* for 1789, under the date of March 18, there is the following account of the last woman-burning in England:

"The nine following malefactors were executed before the debtors' door at Newgate, pursuant to their sentence, viz., Hugh Murphy and Christian Murphy, alias Bowman, for coining; Charles Messenger and Tredway Pocock, William Coliard, and John Norrington, for burglary; James Grace and Joseph Walker, for coining; and William Craddock, for a robbery. They were brought upon the scaffold about half an hour after seven, and turned off about a quarter past eight. They behaved in a decent manner, and seemed fully sensible of their unhappy situation. The woman for coining was brought out after the rest were turned off, and fixed to a stake and burnt, being first strangled by the stool being taken from under her."

On the 10th of May, 1790, Sir Benjamin Hammett, in the House of Commons, asked for leave to bring in a bill to alter the law. He mentioned that it had been his duty as Sheriff to attend on the melancholy occasion of the burning of the female in the preceding year, and that the Sheriff who did not execute the sentence of burning alive was liable to a prosecution; but he thanked heaven that there was not a man in England who would carry such a sentence into effect. He obtained leave to bring in a bill to alter the law; and in that session the Act 30 Geo. III., c. 48, was passed. I have no doubt that the sentence of burning alive was carried out in earlier times. Then it was modified, contrary to law, by the executioner pulling a rope tight about the neck of the condemned as soon as the fagots were lighted. In 1739, at the execution of Catherine Hayse for the murder of her husband, the executioner scorched his hands and let go the rope. After this a low gallows was erected and the woman was first hung and then fagots were piled over her and she was burned.

I have noticed that many persons will not believe that such cruel punishments were ever inflicted in remote times, or at the present time in barbarous districts. They have never seen it themselves, and no evidence can make them believe that any persons can be so cruel.

F. MCCARTHY.

[We close this "inquest" (if we may make an equivocal translation of M. Gaidoz's *enquête*) by noticing, for the honor of American humanity, that the account of negro-burning in Kentucky which a correspondent lately copied for us from the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, has been pronounced a hoax by that paper. Of course the melancholy truth remains, that the conditions of Southern society are still such that probably not a man south of Mason and Dixon's line would have felt justified in denying the alleged occurrence, as any Northerner would have done on reading that a negro had been burned by a mob for rape, say, in Vermont or Michigan, though he might have been lynched in either of these States. The *Courier-Journal's* readiness to be imposed upon is proof of this statement.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

DE WOLFE, FISKE & CO., No. 361 Washington Street, Boston, have, by the failure of another firm, become the publishers of Mr. William H. Whitmore's 'Ancestral Tablets,' the most ingenious and compact form of "family tree" ever devised—a genealogical blank-book which fairly implores to be filled.

'The Soft Porcelain of Sèvres,' with an historical introduction, by Édouard Garnier, translated into English by H. F. Andresen, has begun to be issued in ten parts by J. W. Bouton, No. 706 Broadway, New York. There will be fifty plates in water-color.

Halliwell-Phillipps left his wood-blocks and electros to the New York Shakespeare Society, which has formally authorized their use in the eighth edition of the 'Outlines of the Life of Shakespeare,' about to be issued by Longmans, Green & Co., who have purchased the copyright from the estate of the author.

The pleasant announcement is made that the "Riverside Aldine Series"—one of the most beautiful in its artistic simplicity ever undertaken by any American publisher—is to be further extended. To the ten volumes (by Aldrich, Warner, Lowell, Harte, Howells, and Burroughs) are now added 'The Gray Champion, and Other Stories,' by Hawthorne, and Thoreau's 'Walden' in two volumes. We should like to see in the series a volume of the European stories of Bret Harte, of which 'Sarah Walker' is the best, as indeed it is one of the best the author ever wrote. And there is no decently printed edition of Mr. James's 'Daisy Miller,' to which might well be added an 'International Episode,' 'A Bundle of Letters,' and its sequel, 'The Point of View.' And why should not Mr. Woodberry follow his admirable biography of Poe with a much needed orderly and annotated selection of Poe's short stories?

To commemorate the first production of an Ibsen drama in English, Mr. T. Fisher Unwin, London, is about to publish, in an edition limited to 115 copies on Van Gelder paper, Mr. William Archer's translation of 'A Doll's House,' illustrated with seven platinotype photographs, including a portrait of Ibsen and six portraits of the performers in the costumes of the play.

Volumes three and four—the last—of the Life of William Lloyd Garrison, by his sons, published by the Century Co., are to be issued October 10.

In view of the forthcoming memoir of Mrs. Stowe by her son, a work announced by Funk & Wagnalls, entitled 'The Life-Work of the Author of Uncle Tom's Cabin,' would seem to be in questionable taste; but the author, Florence Thayer McCray, is said to have had the assent and assistance of both Mrs. Stowe and the Rev. C. E. Stowe.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, continue their "Great French Writers" series with Paul de Rémusat's 'Thiers,' translated by Prof. Melville B. Anderson. They announce further 'Seven Days After the Honeymoon,' presenting "a model breakfast and dinner bill-of-fare"; and 'The Story of Tonty,' by Mrs. Catherwood.

'Open, Sesame!' an extensive collection of prose and verse for committing to memory, edited by Mrs. B. W. Bellamy and Mrs. M. W. Goodwin, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

The Elder Publishing Co., Chicago, have nearly ready 'Birds and Butterflies,' a book for boys and girls, by M. G. Musgrave.

Thomas Whittaker promises early in October 'Diabolology: the Person and Work of Satan,' being the Paddock Lectures for the current year, by Edward H. Jewett, D.D.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will issue directly 'Notes on the Revised Statutes of the United States, and the Subsequent Legislation of Congress,' by John M. Gould and George F. Tucker. The same firm has reprinted the 'Thoughts' of Marcus Aurelius as translated by the late George Long, with his final revision. It makes a pretty volume.

Harper & Bros.' forthcoming books include 'Select Poems of William Wordsworth,' edited by W. J. Rolfe, with illustrations by E. A. Abbey, Alfred Parsons, and others, of which the readers of *Harper's Magazine* have had a foretaste; 'City Legends,' by Will Carleton, with illustrations; 'Summer Holidays: Travelling Notes in Europe,' by Theodore Child; 'The Boy Travellers in Mexico,' by Thomas W. Knox; and 'Chita: A Memory of Last Island,' by Lafcadio Hearn.

The little that is to be told of the life of Jane Austen is repeated from the standard authorities by Mrs. Charles Malden in her volume just added to the "Famous Women" series (Boston: Roberts Bros.). Its merit and usefulness lie in its summarizing with extracts the six novels of the great Englishwoman.

Under the somewhat awkward title, 'The Three Germanys,' Mr. Theodore S. Fay publishes (through A. S. Barnes & Co.) a history of Germany in two volumes and 1,300 pages. It professes to be nothing more than a compilation, but even as a compilation its merit is doubtful: its great length alone would prevent it from taking equal rank with a useful manual like Lewis's translation of Müller. Perhaps the most noteworthy thing to be said of it is, that it is the work of an author in his eighty-second year; and it might be further said that it betrays so great a lack of the literary sense as to explain how it happens that none of the numerous books which Mr. Fay has published during more than half a century have secured a permanent footing in our literature. Motley, in one of his letters, mentions Mr. Fay as a man of most amiable character and of sincere religious convictions. The latter crop out in most irrelevant ways in the work in question, and often remind the reader of the absurd judgments with which the late Dr. Allibone's great piety led him to blemish his otherwise invaluable 'Dictionary of Authors.'

Prof. J. Hirschberg of Berlin made a trip from New York to San Francisco in August and September, 1887, and, for the instruction of his countrymen, has published his diary of the thirty-six days the journey occupied (Leipzig: Veit & Co.; New York: Westermann). His pages are crammed full of facts and figures; he is particular to give precise dimensions, dates, and hack fares, mentions the hour at which he leaves or arrives at a town, stating in parenthesis the population of the place and the omnibus fare from the station to the hotel. In short, he furnishes a useful handbook which will save those who follow in his wake the sad necessity of keeping or publishing a diary of their own.

Mr. William Cary has edited with skill and Mr. De Vinne has printed with taste 'A Record of the Dinner of the New York Graduates of Yale University in Commemoration of Victories in Rowing, Baseball, and other Athletic Contests, February 16, 1889.' The complete text of a dozen or more after-dinner speeches is given here, and thus the 'Record' gains value as a hand-book of American post-prandial oratory. Herein the social philosopher will find the "off-hand address," with its store of anecdotes more or less remote (in origin and in application). And two other things more concrete may be found also. First, a letter from Mr. J. D. Wickham, of the class of 1815, the oldest living graduate, who records that he was well acquainted with Nathan Birdseye of the class of 1736! And second is the significant assertion of Mr. Twitchell, who rowed in the race of 1859, that every member of the Yale crew and every member of the rival Harvard crew went to the war which broke out two years later.

The Clarendon Press, Oxford (New York: Macmillan), has published, in a small quarto, the 'Chronicon Galfridi le Baker de Swynebroke,' edited, with notes, by Edward Maunde Thompson, principal librarian of the British Museum. This chronicle extends from 1303 to 1356, and is a principal authority for, among other events, the battles of Bannockburn, Crecy, and especially Poitiers. A "Chroniculum" appended to the larger work, containing twenty pages, is really an introduction. The notes are very full, and are illustrated with three excellent maps—of the march of Edward III. in 1346, the raid of the Black Prince in 1355, and the battle of Poitiers.

An interesting episode in the history of Spain is narrated in 'Don Carlos d'Aragon, Prince de Viane,' by G. Desdevises du Dezert, a volume of 455 pages (Paris: Colin). This prince, who was born in 1421 and died in 1461, had a life full of strange vicissitudes. The legitimate King of Navarre after the death of his mother Blanche (1441), he was deprived of his inheritance by his father, afterwards King John II. of Aragon, who was lawfully only king-consort of Navarre. The life of Don Carlos was occupied with a long-continued struggle for his rights, in which he was aided by his uncle, Alfonso the Magnanimous, and in which he suffered exile and imprisonment. He was, says his historian, "not only the last national sovereign of Navarre, and the representative of Catalan independence, he counted also among the most cultivated princes of his time." The book is a worthy contribution to mediæval history, especially as giving information of a history so little known as that of Navarre.

Students of Maximilian's ill-fated empire should procure Paul Gaulot's 'Rêve d'Empire: la Vérité sur l' Expédition du Mexique' (Paris: Ollendorff). M. Gaulot has composed this work from the incomplete notes made by the late Ernest Louet, chief paymaster of the expeditionary corps, who was cut off in the midst of researches for a similar publication. As we read in *Polybiblion*, it appears that Napoleon III. entertained the scheme of a foreign establishment in Mexico unfriendly to the United States two years before he offered a throne to Maximilian.

We have received from Prof. Paul Fredericq of Ghent a copy of his 'De l'Enseignement Supérieur de l'Histoire et de la Géographie en Hollande,' a companion to his previously published papers on historical instruction in France, Germany, and Great Britain. The material is rather slight. History is neglected in the universities of Holland, and were it not that the religious history of the Netherlands has been taken up with zeal by the theological professors, there would not be much to say upon the subject. "Shut out from the Faculty of Letters, history has thus found an unexpected asylum among the theologians." The description of the several universities and their professors is in the same graphic style, and illustrated with the same entertaining detail, as in M. Fredericq's previous papers.

The most skilful and humorous draughtsman who calls himself "Caran d'Ache," has just collected half a hundred pages of his comic sketches into an 'Album Caran d'Ache' (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), which we may recommend heartily to all lovers of pictorial humor. The Franco-Russian artist has an astonishing fecundity of humorous invention, and an extraordinary industry in working out the subsidiary details of his subject. See, for example, the individuality of each of the dogs in the series called "La Plus Belle Conquête de l'Homme," and again in the "Chasse au Tigre . . . à Batignolles." Indeed, dogs—after horses and soldiers—are what M. Caran d'Ache does best. As good as anything in the book is the "Appareil à Duel," arranged first that there shall not be a fatal issue, and then that there shall be. Here again the attendant dogs of the duellists are delightful; but they yield in humor to the attendant surgeon.

A new National University which opens in Chicago on October 1 is to have an organ in the *National Magazine*, devoted to literary, educational, and scientific subjects.

The current number of the *Technology Architectural Review* (Boston) contains some creditable examples of the premiated work of the Institute. Mr. C. A. Cummings continues his "Outline of a Spanish Tour," with architectural indications, and mention even of the railroad distances and fares.

In recent numbers of the (London) *Bookbinder* there have been letters on the bookbindings in the Paris Exhibition, obviously from the pen of an English binder, who knows enough to appreciate the best French work, but not enough to see the vast gap which yawns between that and the best work of the ordinary English binders—among whom we do not include Mr. Cobden-Saunderson.

M. Octave Uzanne gives prominent editorial advertisement in *Le Livre* for August of an ingenious one-man society for producing works by the masters of contemporary French engraving. Every one knows the tendency of all associations of amateurs either to be divided as to the choice of their proposed creations or to fail to keep to a high level. M. Henri Béraldi, author of 'Graveurs du XIXe. Siècle,' makes himself president and treasurer of the society which he designates "L'Estampe Française," fixes the undertakings and pays the cost of the engraving. Those who wish to share the expense with him on these terms may do so, but they will have no vote in the direction. M. Charles Glinel exhumes from the *Keepsake Français* of 1832 a discarded poem of Alfred de Musset's, "Derniers Moments de François Ier," a dialogue between King and Jester, which recalls by association Victor Hugo's "Le Roi s'Amuse." A third paper is by Henri de Rochessauvre, and summarizes a small and little-known work of Machiavelli's—'Ritratti delle cose della Francia' and 'Ritratti delle cose della Alamagna.' One might expect a comment having a bearing on contemporary feeling between the two countries, but such is not the case, and the article is light and pleasant reading, and revives an Italian calculation as to the peace of Europe at the opening of the 16th century.

—The third volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of George Washington' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) has both an historical and a dramatic unity. It covers nine months of the years 1775-1776, from Washington's taking command of the forces about Boston to the evacuation of that city by the British. The episode to the main action is the Canadian expedition of Montgomery and Arnold. Washington's annoyances, in this crude beginning of a contest of which few foresaw the extent, were numerous and constant. There was a dearth of powder, which restricted offensive operations and made the defence of his works precarious. The officering of his command developed the usual jealousies, especially in the collision between Continental and colonial commissions. Soldiers would not enlist till they knew who their officers were to be—with good reason, seeing that some were cashiered for fraud and cowardice—and in the Massachusetts regiments the officers were chosen by the men, and were accordingly remarked for their subserviency to their creators. The absence of class distinctions among these New Englanders, and of what Charles Lee called the "decent distance of officers," struck Washington and the Southern members of his family as something very odd and deplorable. General Greene wrote in December, 1775, that "his Excellency . . . has not had time to make himself acquainted with the genius of this people." Their homesickness when it was a question of prolonging their service by entering the Continental army, so that furloughs had to be given them, was certainly not appreciated. Washington was for enlisting free negroes, but the Southern influence prevailed with Congress to limit this practice to reënlistments. He forwards to Joseph Reed a letter and poem addressed to him by the negro poetess, Phillis Wheatley, which he had been disposed to publish "with a view of doing justice to her great poetical genius"; and in a very civil letter of February 28, acknowledging her "elegant lines," he hopes to have the pleasure of an interview. "Your obedient humble servant," he signs himself. This volume has been very freely annotated by Mr. Ford, who perhaps overlooked an opportunity to point out Washington's indebtedness to Addison for his pet phrase about *deserving* success though one cannot command it.

— We have received from Mr. C. P. Huntington a map of Equatorial Africa, accompanying a circular headed "A Few Words to Americans on the Slave Trade." Mr. Huntington has, he says, for many years felt deeply the wrongs done to the African race, and has been interested in their future, and he now proposes a plan for making the nineteenth century—already preëminent for emancipation on the grand scale—for ever illustrious by the extinction of the slave trade and its attendant evils. In brief, his scheme is for an international policing of the great waterways of Africa on two lines, viz., east and west by the Congo, Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria Nyanza, ending on the east coast at Mombasa; and north and south, by the Nile, the lakes just mentioned, Lake Nyassa, and the Zambesi, ending on the south at Quilimane. Railways do not, as might perhaps have been anticipated, enter into this arrangement to any very considerable extent. The proposed Congo railroad, one from Suakim to Berber, and one from Mombasa to Victoria Nyanza, are all that are delineated on the map; the rest is water. There is, to our thinking, nothing impracticable about this conception, which involves not only the destruction of the infernal trade in human

beings, but also the security of the peoples now harried by it, the establishment of industry, and the indefinite expansion of commerce. Mr. Huntington's map is colored to show the devastated region, the routes of slave caravans, etc. We hope he will take counsel of Mr. Stanley on the latter's emergence from the "dark continent," of which we seem to have authentic promise.

— In a letter printed in another column, Mr. David H. Jerome of Saginaw, Mich., explains the connection between the retirement of Montgomery Blair from President Lincoln's Cabinet and Gen. Frémont's withdrawal as a candidate for the Presidency in 1864. That the two events were connected with each other in some way was made probable by the fact that they took place simultaneously. Together they constituted the most important political event of the year. That Mr. Lincoln's reëlection was put in serious jeopardy by the "Frémont movement" is a fact well known to all persons whose memory goes back so far. Yet this movement is belittled and ridiculed by Mr. Lincoln's biographers in the *Century Magazine*, and Mr. Blair's withdrawal from the Cabinet is ascribed to different grounds—that is, to general dissatisfaction on the part of the Radicals of the period, not to the particular dissatisfaction of one person. This one person, Mr. Jerome tells us, was Henry Winter Davis, not Gen. Frémont, as we conjectured in a paragraph previously referring to the subject. The intermediary in the affair was the late Senator Chandler of Michigan.

— Mr. Jerome's statements are so precise, he having accompanied Senator Chandler in his mission, they harmonize so perfectly with all the facts otherwise known, and they explain so fully the withdrawal of Mr. Lincoln's favorite Cabinet Minister (for Mr. Blair was his favorite, so far as he had one in his official family), that we cannot doubt their substantial accuracy. We hope that Messrs. Nicolay and Hay, in the revised edition of their work, will introduce these important facts, although they may necessitate the recasting of one or two chapters. It will be helpful to the truth of history, and to a correct knowledge of Mr. Lincoln's character, to show that he was not at all squeamish as a politician. In order to carry a point which he considered important to the country, or to his own party, he would make a bargain as readily as another man, but he would not make a bargain distinctly immoral in itself. It was not immoral, under the circumstances then existing, to sacrifice Blair in order to get the Frémont ticket out of the field, but, of course, it would have provoked criticism at the time if it had been known.

—Again we have to deplore the loss of one of our most valued contributors, in the person of William Allan, formerly Lieutenant-Colonel and Chief Ordnance Officer, Second Corps, Army of Northern Virginia (Stonewall Jackson's), and at the time of his death, on September 17, Principal of the McDonogh School near Baltimore. Col. Allan was born near Winchester, Va., in 1837, and was an accomplished mathematician and engineer. The war was no sooner over than he set about writing the history of that part of it which came under his observation. His two works, 'Chancellorsville' (1867) and 'Jackson's Campaign in the Shenandoah Valley, November 4, 1861—June 17, 1862' (1880), in both of which he had Capt. Jed Hotchkiss for his colaborer, won attention immediately by their clearness, accuracy, impartiality, and self-restraint. We doubt if any more truly military or more trustworthy memoirs have been evoked by the civil war. Col. Allan, putting by other offers, accepted the headship of the McDonogh School in 1873, and in 1887 published the third and last of his works (as known to us), the 'Life and Work of John McDonogh,' the founder of the institution. This biography will always remain an interesting memorial of American philanthropy under difficulties, moral and material. We doubt if the writer himself was conscious of the light it shed on the Southern mind and ethics in the old slavery days. In 1882 Col. Allan began his connection with this paper as a reviewer of books relating to the war, whether from the Federal or Confederate side, and he continued to render this service (not wholly confided to him, we ought to add) up to last year—the lack of material alone causing a cessation. As an educator he will be greatly missed, and his memory held in very high esteem.

— Dr. George Hamill Cook, State Geologist of New Jersey, whose sudden death on Sunday, at New Brunswick, we record with unfeigned regret, was born at Hanover, N. J., on January 5, 1818. He graduated at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, at Troy, N. Y., in the not undistinguished class of 1839, and remained as instructor for a number of years, holding the chair of chemistry from 1841 to 1846, and of geology and engineering from 1842 to 1846. After a short experience as a manufacturer, he resumed his teaching, first as professor of mathematics in the Albany Academy, then as its principal, and then, in 1853, as professor of chemistry and natural philosophy in Rutgers College, with which institution he was steadily connected up to the time of his death. He could hardly have had a better training for the main work of his life, which began directly with his becoming an assistant in the Geological Survey of New Jersey (1854 56). To this department he brought fresh energy, and was in 1864 made its head, and he lived to see completed the great Atlas of New Jersey, executed under his direction as an example to all the other States of the Union. His final Geologic Report had advanced one volume towards print when he was taken away. Meanwhile, he had been appointed director of the New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Station, in 1880, and risen to be president of the local water board of New Brunswick, and become a member of the State Board of Health, and chief director of the State Weather Service. He managed the Survey with great shrewdness and the utmost economy, without waste as without display, and always with an eye to the material advantage of the people of the State. He commanded their unbounded confidence, and they freely granted him the modest maintenance which he asked for science. Prof. Cook was a man of perfect simplicity of manner, of real modesty and transparent integrity, certain to be loved, as he was, and to be missed, as he will be. Though past three-score and ten, he died in the harness and in the active exercise of unabated powers.

— The latest report about the unfortunate Erckmann-Chatrian rupture is contained in a brief article which M. Fernand Xau publishes in the *Écho de Paris*. The friends of M. Erckmann consider it necessary to deny the ridiculous charges of his lack of patriotism, which M. Georgel asserted were proved by Erckmann's continuing to live among Germans in Alsace. It seems that he was ordered back to Phalsbourg by his physicians in order that he might breathe his native air, but he lives there in retirement. In fact, he never goes out, except in a carriage, in order to avoid the Germans, and has given up his old joyous evenings at the *brasserie* and the delights of "la chope mousseuse." All this is absurd enough, but perhaps excusable in the present state of French feeling towards Germany. What is of somewhat more importance is the assertion that M. Erckmann has never received what is his fair share of the profits of the literary work in which he has collaborated, and that the referee to whom the case was submitted by consent of both parties gave him an award. Of still more consequence is the announcement that M. Erckmann is about to publish a volume containing a full history of the long partnership, and that this will be for the most part documentary.

THE LOSSES OF THE CIVIL WAR.

Regimental Losses in the American Civil War. By Wm. F. Fox, Lt. Col. U. S. V. Albany Publishing Co. 1889. 4to, pp. vi, 595.

At once, and without preamble or qualification, it may be said that this is a very valuable book, by whose creation the author has made not merely military students, but all patriotic Americans, his debtors. Modestly presented "only as a convenient digest of official publications," with an apology that a private citizen should undertake such a work, it is really an elaborate, painstaking, and apparently accurate discussion from the regimental standpoint of the Union casualty statistics in the late war.

War is force carried to the last extremity. There are campaigns where manœuvres replace battles, but in the end, with armies at all nearly equal, battles must be fought and lives be lost. No general can compel the surrender of his adversary without a trial of strength; no nation will relinquish its pretensions without an exercise of that force to which an appeal has been taken. When the shock comes, some, doubtless many, individual lives are needlessly sacrificed by errors in the field, the victor blundering as well as the vanquished. But at last pressure, which is a euphemism for death, overcomes resistance, and the weakened side gives way. It may be six weeks and one Königgrätz, or four years and the blood that flowed between Gettysburg and the Gulf, that are required to settle the dispute, but the ultimate argument is the same. Col. Fox is right, then, when he lays stress on the tribute of life as the measure of practical devotion each regiment yielded. He does not question what others might have done, he simply records what some have done. And he is right, also, in using the regiment as the standard, for, as he says, the relative importance of the various points on the battle-field where there was contact and where the pressure was greatest, where valor and heroism were most displayed, are best shown by studying the behavior of those units, the military families that encamped about and marched under the same colors. Perhaps, too, the unaccustomed mind can best grasp such facts and the connected conditions when thus grouped. Eighteen thousand men falling from eighty or one hundred thousand Unionists at Gettysburg make a less clearly defined picture than the 224 casualties that occurred among the 262 members of the First Minnesota on that field. The greatest loss of life does not necessarily imply the greatest service, but, as a rule, great military service was marked by great loss of life.

More than two and three-quarters million separate enlistments, representing somewhat less than two million individuals, were made in the two thousand-and-odd regiments called

into the national service for varying periods, with unequal numbers and to different duties. The author's attempt is to reduce these very complex figures to something like a common basis, and he has succeeded in separating their factors so as to make classification possible. But his special object is to determine regimental mortuary losses, and with this aim he consolidates those dying of their wounds with those killed outright. It seems to us that he might have gone a step further and reckoned those discharged for disability on account of wounds, if not with the dead, at least in a separate column. In the field this cannot be done, or, rather, to do it would require time and energy better otherwise employed. The general must know, and know promptly, how many of his men are killed outright, how many are missing, and, especially, how many others are disabled. Hence the field return. He cannot wait to have determined the ultimate fate of the wounded. But to the statistician, and ultimately to the statesman and the economist, it is of great public importance to realize the deaths, whether immediate or remote, and, as we think, the number of those whose fighting days are past. But, disregarding those who were discharged, whether ultimately dying, recovering, or remaining crippled, it appears that, taking the war throughout, the killed outright were to all the wounded as 1 to 4.8, while those who lost their lives from battle were to those wounded but not dying in service as 1 to 2.5. This is approximately correct, taking one battle as a whole with another as well as for the entire war, but it by no means holds good for all the regiments engaged. Close quarters with a resisting foe means a high mortality, both actually and comparatively.

It would be interesting, but it is impossible, to notice all the features of this cyclopædia; but, to cite some of the remarkable statistics here collated, we find, for instance, that there were 45 infantry regiments that lost 200 or more killed or mortally wounded in action, the 5th New Hampshire leading with 295, while of the heavy artillery regiments, which in effect were overgrown infantry, the 1st Maine heads the list with 423, and of the cavalry again the 1st Maine with 174. But actual loss and percentage of loss are not identical. There were 200 regiments whose deaths in action were 10 per cent. or more of their entire enrolment, and of these 22 lost 15 per cent. or more, the 2d Wisconsin leading with 19.7 per cent. (This regiment received in all nearly 900 casualties among its total membership of 1,203). Of course, the percentage of loss to those actually engaged is still higher, as a certain number of men are always on duty other than with the firing line. And the author has added an astonishing table, confessedly not complete, of sixty-nine regiments in twenty-three distinct engagements where the casualties (not the mortality) ranged from 50 to 82 per cent. of those engaged, and in which nearly if not entirely all the missing were known to be killed or wounded. By way of comparison, observe that the Light Brigade at Balaklava lost 36.7 per cent.; the Third Westphalian at Mars La Tour sustained the heaviest German loss at 49.4, and the Garde-Schützen at Metz lost 41 per cent., almost their extreme. Another table gives a list of 260 regiments whose death-rate alone exceeded 10 per cent. in individual battles. This includes the duplication of certain famous commands, where they suffered thus more than once. The 1st Minnesota leads with 28 per cent. at Gettysburg, followed by the 25th Massachusetts, with 23 per cent., at Cold Harbor. It is worth noting that the fire from the muzzle-loading rifles of the rebellion was quite as effective as that from the breech-loaders in France in 1870-71.

The volume contains brief but intelligible and excellent sketches of all the army corps and of a few of the more famous divisions. Then follow 300 pages of regimental statistics, a page to a regiment. These give the figures by companies, the actions and resulting deaths, and a concise regimental sketch in the form of notes. The author carefully disclaims setting these up as the best 300, but he is perfectly justified in his assertion that they were 300 fighting regiments. These in turn are succeeded by a list of 225 battles, with the regiments sustaining the greatest losses in each, and this again by a list by States of all the regiments and batteries, with mortality from all causes, and a running commentary upon them. The book closes with naval statistics and a chapter upon Confederate losses. From this last we cannot refrain from extracting this story of Gettysburg: On the first day Capt. Tuttle's Co. of 26th N. C. "went into action with 3 officers and 84 men; all of the officers and 83 of the men were killed or wounded." On the same day Co. "C," 11th N. C., of the same brigade, lost 2 officers killed and 34 out of 38 men killed or wounded, and on the third Capt. Bird took the 4 remaining men into the charge and brought out the colors himself. Such figures need no eulogy.

The treatise is wisely and absolutely free from all discussion of battles or campaigns in any tactical or strategical sense. It deals with no might-have-beens, but confines itself strictly to a recital of facts without expression of opinion upon the facts. This self-control is the more remarkable because of the author's intimate acquaintance with the family history of the army, developed by the years of study that have gone into this book. This silence adds greatly to the value of the work. But it is a soldierly reticence, not the dulness of ignorance or indifference. He simply does not wander beyond his self appointed lines. When he does allow himself to speak, it is apparent that the military sentiment has well survived the long years that have covered the memories of Virginia and Tennessee. He still feels the injustice and does not hesitate to denounce the stupidity of the War Department in ignoring the sentiment that is such an important military factor, and, by disbanding corps and transferring brigades, disregarding and crushing the *esprit* that is such a stimulant. Enthusiasm is a military virtue always to be cherished. As would be supposed, Col. Fox is an earnest advocate for careful recognition of regimental feeling, and lays great stress upon the distinct duty of complete records, in justice to the enlisted man who cannot expect to win personal fame, but whose honor is bound up collectively with his fellows'. But he is too hopeful when he looks for a working agreement with the enemy to respect the neutrality of such rolls. While discussing these general principles he might have inveighed against the useless multiplication of regiments, against the inane stoppage of enlistments, and then the deluge of new organizations, while the old and disciplined ones were permitted to be frayed out under the unceasing attrition of the field. He might have cried out against the enormous bounties and the consequent rascalities, and against the loose inspections that accepted herds of infirm men to "fill the quota" and then to be discharged, now possibly unworthy pensioners by the grace and generosity of the nation. It is true all this is strictly beside his subject, but it is in the direction of regimental efficiency; and in another edition we hope such an essay may find a place.

This new 'Book of Martyrs' will give its author a very enviable position as a student who has done important work well; it will become an authority, and it adds another to the list of necessary books of reference for military students and for public libraries. The very few errors we have observed are trivial and not worth attention. It is excellently printed and thoroughly indexed.

CHRISTIANITY IN FORMOSA.

Missionary Success in Formosa. By the Rev. William Campbell. London: Trübner & Co.

It is an evidence of the looseness of the political organization of the Chinese empire that, until within the last two decades, China has done little to prove her ownership of Formosa. This beautiful and fertile island, so aptly named by the Portuguese, lies almost within sight of her main shores, and comprises an area of about fifteen thousand square miles, beneath and on the surface of which are bountiful resources. Yet the eastern half is unknown, unsubdued, and inhabited by independent tribes of savage aborigines. These warlike people defy the rule of the Son of Heaven, and look upon the Chinese only as creatures with heads to be taken to adorn their villages. Chinese skulls and hair-queues serve the same purposes in Formosan decorative art as the scalps of white people do in the adornment of the Indian belts and lodges in America. The passion for head-hunting among these Pacific islanders will be ineradicable until conquest or Christianity has greatly modified their ferocious traits.

On old Chinese maps, Formosa is hardly outlined, and even on those printed within a quarter of a century the eastern half of the island is not marked as Chinese territory. Besides the traditions binding together the Formosan, Loochooan, and Japanese (the custom of head-hunting being in primeval times the same), this island was in the seventeenth century the refuge of some thousands of natives of Nippon during the anti-Christian persecution, Formosa at that time having few Chinese inhabitants. Hence it was more than the transient political "capital" of a war-party which led the Japanese to make an armed descent on Formosa to chastise the Bu-tan savages. Their first purpose accomplished—after the Americans, for example, had ignominiously failed—they established a permanent camp, and refused to remove or apologize until the Government at Peking had bought them off with an indemnity. From that time dates the first serious attempt to make the island an integral part of China. Even yet the eastern coast is a menace to civilization, and the prospect of crews being shipwrecked and eaten is by no means an imaginary one. The Chinese pirates—as the recent attack on the American steamer *San Pablo* in the Formosan channel shows—are bad enough; but to have cannibals inhabiting with impunity a long coast of nearly two hundred miles in the very track of the world's commerce is a disgrace to China. True, the eastern side of Formosa is much less traversed than the western or Chinese side, yet it is an inexcusable shame that China has not yet subdued the tribes on the cannibal side of this beautiful island. Our own records of mercantile disaster on this coast, though few, are sufficiently horrible, while the death of our sailors and the loss of the gallant young officer Alexander Slidell Mackenzie, jr., are still fresh in

the minds of naval men of this generation. Whether wholly justifiable or not, the Japanese invasion of 1874 at least aroused the Chinese to action, and in a measure earned the gratitude of the civilized world.

Since 1865 the Presbyterian Church of England, and since 1872 the Presbyterian Church of Canada, have established flourishing Christian missions in the Chinese part of the island. One of the English missionaries, the Rev. William Campbell, has retold the interesting story of Dutch Christianity in Formosa, and modestly narrated that of his own work. Having recently discovered in Holland and reprinted Domine Gravius's translation of the Gospel of St. Matthew, he has followed up that publication by the present 'Missionary Success in Formosa.' The two comely duodecimo volumes from the press of Trübner & Co. contain fine portraits of two Dutch missionaries and of a famous Formosan chief, whose descendant is now pastor of a self-supporting church of over a hundred members. A plan of Tai-wan city and a good colored map of Formosa are added. The rare pamphlet published in London in 1650, descriptive "of the conversion of 5,900 East Indians in the Isle Formosa, neere China," etc., is here reprinted, with valuable appendices, in the form of extracts from Grothe's 'Archives for the History of Dutch Foreign Missions,' a work of great learning and research recently issued in Holland. This part of Mr. Campbell's work, treating of Dutch Christianity in Formosa, occupies 214 pages, and is full of thrilling episodes. The planting of commercial and missionary stations in America, Asia, and Africa, in which the minister and schoolmaster were almost invariably important persons in each colony, was one of the outlets to the fresh energy of the little Protestant republic. While the Spaniards secured the Philippine Islands, and the Portuguese Macao, the Dutch made their lodgment on the Pescadore Islands as a strategic point for the control of the northern Chinese and Japanese markets. The Chinese Government, however, objected to this high-handed measure, and induced the Dutch by bribes, rather than by force, to remove elsewhere and outside of China. Formosa was at that time unclaimed and practically unknown, so the Dutch were allowed to settle in this large and fertile land. They fortified Tai-wan, and began commercial and missionary operations on a large scale. From 1624 to 1662, no fewer than thirty-two ordained missionaries served at various times in the field, and the number of converts, members of churches, was in 1650 nearly 6,000. In the list of domines given, it is interesting to find the names of some who were in all probability relatives of Dutch clergymen contemporaneously in New Amsterdam. Among these was Rutger Tesschemaker, whose kinsman, Domine Petrus Tesschemaker (for whose ordination as pastor at Schenectady, the first ecclesiastical ordaining council in America was called), lost his life in the massacre. Candidus, the pioneer missionary and translator in Formosa — after whom Mr. Campbell in his explorations named a large lake, possibly the only important one in the island—recommended that the missionaries should come out single, and marry the native women; but this does not seem to have been done. Considerable numbers of the colonists from Holland were women. The Dutch language was taught to the most intelligent of the natives; but for most of them the Dutch liturgy and articles of the faith (Apostles' Creed) were done into the Sin-kang dialect. The standard of theology and instruction, the same as that taught in Holland in all the Dutch colonies, including that on Manhattan Island, was the Heidelberg Catechism.

Thus, with ships and trade, fort and garrison, homes, schools, churches, and a Christianized neighborhood, the Dutch settlement at Tai-wan was a scene of peace, prosperity, and promise until all was overwhelmed in ruin by Coxinga. The Manchiu Tâtars, descending out of the north like a flood, had overthrown the Ming dynasty, conquered China, enforced the wearing of the hair-tail or queue as a token of subjugation on the Chinese. In this period of disorder, Koku-sen-ya, as the Japanese call this son of one of their women by a Chinese father, whom foreigners call Coxinga, rose to mighty power as a buccaneer. Driven from the mainland and ports of China by the sure establishment of the Manchius in power, he turned his attention to the Dutch. Having seized certain parts of the island, he sent a flag of truce into the port at five P. M., May 24, 1662, demanding its surrender. He named himself Teybingh Kok-Seng (Tai-Ping Koku-Sen). With a courage that few readers of Dietrich Knickerbocker would suspect in Dutchmen, the Governor and Council refused to surrender. Then followed a siege with artillery. Despite the overwhelming odds, the garrison of Tai-wan held out, until, having seen the fleet sent to rescue them dispersed by tempests or stranded, and 1,600 of their number dead of disease or wounds, the remnant was forced to surrender. The most horrible barbarities, including crucifixion, were then perpetrated, the Dutch ladies being made concubines to the Chinese soldiers; though it was a particular amelioration to the lot of the latter to fall to the single men, and thus escape the life-long persecution of other wives and women. Dutch Christianity in Formosa, save as it survived in the wail of the hopeless captives, was utterly blotted out, and for 200 years the name of Jesus was forgotten in the island.

The story of modern missionary success occupies the last third of the first and all of the second volume of Mr. Campbell's fascinating work. His many journeys through known and unknown parts of the island, and especially among the cannibals and head-hunters; his personal adventures and dangers; the episode of the French bombardment; his visit to the Pescadore Islands, are told with clearness, modesty, and in sprightly style. The book is one of unusual value and interest, and will be read by many who do not habitually seek their literary pabulum in the writings of missionaries. Since Mr. E. H. House wrote of the Japanese expedition to Formosa, we have had no book which gives us so many glimpses of life on this, one of the fairest islands on earth.

HAWAIIAN LEGENDS.

The Legends and Myths of Hawaii. The Fables and Folk-Lore of a Strange People. By His Hawaiian Majesty Kalakaua. Edited, with an introduction, by Hon. R. M. Daggett, late United States Minister to the Hawaiian Islands. Charles L. Webster & Co.

THE volume before us has the unusual interest that its author is himself one of the race whose legends and myths he has recorded. Readers of the *Nation* will not need to be reminded that King Kalakaua is a writer of good and fluent English. He is quite competent, as far as literary handling is implied, to produce this interesting collection of Polynesian stories. But Mr. Daggett's collaboration has been of much service, and his full introduction gives a summary of the geography, the history, the leading usages, and the princely genealogies of the Hawaiian Islands from the earliest date.

The definite history of the group does not extend beyond the middle of the eighteenth century, when the reign of Kalaniopuu began. The remote ancestors of the Polynesians are supposed by some theorists to have moved from some point upon the Aryan plateau. However this may be, they were diffused through the central Pacific Ocean by the way of the Samoan and Society groups, reaching the Hawaiian group about the middle of the sixth century. Fornander thinks that the one point of dispersal was Samoa. During the tenth century a second immigration from these islands reached the coast of Hawaii, "continuing for more than a century and a half, and completely changing the political, and to some extent the social, condition of the people." Here tradition takes up the history of the group, and from the eleventh century to the present time a full conspectus is given of the ruling families as far as tradition has preserved them. Interesting portraits of the leading members of the present ruler's house are added, of the King and his Queen, of his elder sister, the heir apparent, and of the little Princess Kauilani, her own direct heir. Another list has been prepared with unusual care —that of the "elemental, industrial, and tutelar deities" of Hawaii. Of the former group Kane was the organizer, Ku the architect and builder, Lono the executor; while Kanaloa was the Lucifer or fallen angel—an odd suggestion of the personages in the popular religious system. The names of the volcanic deities have about them a certain wild native poetry; among them are: *Hiiaka-noho-lani*, the Heaven-dwelling Cloud-holder; *Hiiaka-kaalawamaka*, the Quick-glancing Cloud-holder; *Kapohoikahiola*, the God of Explosions in the Palace of Life.

A very intelligent sketch of the ancient government and social usages is given, in which one of the most interesting passages is the following: "In the royal families, to subserve purposes of state, father and daughter, brother and sister, uncle and niece frequently united as man and wife. The children of such unions were esteemed of the highest rank, and, strange to say, no mental or physical deterioration seemed to result from these incestuous relations." There seems to be no doubt of the accuracy of the facts here stated. The magnificent physical development, the clear and active minds, and the noble manners of the higher chiefs are matters well within the memory of the present writer and of other former residents of the group. How far these were due to breeding and how far to favoring conditions of life is not a simple question; and the inquiry is one for which sufficiently numerous and accurate data have hardly been gathered; in C. S. Stewart's 'Journal of a Residence in the Sandwich Islands,' 1830, p. 129, some particulars may be found. It is the usual function of foreign civilization to despise aboriginal usages and to destroy aboriginal culture wherever it is found; and it is much to be regretted that the most interesting of data—those which relate to the physical continuance of the species—have been in the main neglected in the record of the undoing of the Polynesian.

We note in this Introduction some inaccuracies, as, for instance, the view that the Hawaiian and other islands of the Pacific are the summits of a submerged continent. This theory, as Mr. Alfred Wallace has pointed out with clearness, is entirely at variance with our geological knowledge. On page 56 the mention is made of the "sea-bird the *mamo*," which supplies the precious yellow feathers of which the Hawaiian royal cloaks are made, and the

usual statement of travellers is repeated, that "a single yellow feather is found under each wing of the *mamo*." This is inaccurate. The *mamo* is the cloak; the bird is a mountain-bird named *uho*. We have shot it ourselves upon the mountains of Hawaii, and have found under each wing not a single feather only, but a small tuft of feathers of varying size, the largest being about an inch and a quarter in length. The king's bird-catchers took the *uho* with bird-lime made from the juice of the bread-fruit tree; from under each wing they plucked one or two of these largest feathers, and then liberated the bird uninjured for the smaller feathers to grow. It took scores of thousands of such feathers to make the royal cloaks which visitors to Honolulu, as late as the sixties, will remember seeing in the coral-built palaces of the last of the Kamehamehas, and of which but a few are now in existence; for the Hawaiians of the old time were capable of the splendid sacrifice of burying one of these priceless cloaks with the body of a king.

Turning now to the body of the work, we find twenty-one titles; they are partly pure legends and partly history intermingled. The author acknowledges especial indebtedness to Judge Fornander, whose account of the 'Polynesian Race' has heretofore been reviewed in these columns, and, though open to much objection upon the scientific side, has yet brought together a large amount of new record in the matter of traditions and history. We cannot outline these stories, which give a fair representation of the sentiment and the poetry, the warlike, the barbarous, and the kindly usages alike of this most interesting people. The alien wildness of the Polynesian imagination will not always hold the reader of our own race, for it takes him into regions too remote from his sympathies and training. Yet in it, frequently, there are touches which, though they are strange to our own imaginative genius, still have a wild beauty that we cannot fail to recognize. Such is the concluding story, that of Kaha, the Princess of Manoa. This beautiful creature is slain by a jealous lover named Kauhi, who fells her to the earth with a cone of *hala* nuts; and, after burying the girl's body, he starts down the valley toward Waikiki.

"He had scarcely left before a large owl—a god in that guise who was related to Kaha and had followed her—unearthed the body, rubbed his head against the bruised temple, and restored the girl to life. Overtaking Kauhi, Kaha sang behind him a lament at his unkindness. Turning in amazement, he observed the owl flying above her head, and recognized the power that had restored her to life.

"Again ordering Kaha to follow him, they ascended the ridge dividing the valleys of Manoa and Nuuanu. The way was beset with sharp rocks and tangled undergrowth, and when Kaha reached the summit her tender feet were bleeding and her *pau* [zone] was in tatters. Seating herself on a stone to regain her breath, with tears in her eyes she implored Kauhi to tell her whither he was leading her and why he had sought to kill her. His only reply was a blow with the *hala* cone, which again felled her dead to the earth. Burying the body as before, he resumed his way towards Waikiki.

"Again flying to the rescue of his beautiful and sinless relative, the owl-god scratched away the earth above her and restored her once more to life. Following Kauhi, she again chanted a song of lament behind him, and begged him to be merciful to one who had never wronged him, even in thought. Hearing her voice, he turned, and without answer conducted her across the valley of Nuuanu to the ridge of Waolani, where he killed and buried her as he had done twice before, and the owl-god a third time removed the earth from the body and gave it life."

It is only after the fifth immolation that the Princess of Manoa is delivered from her assailant and united to his rival; her parents, "the Wind and Rain of Manoa," approving the marriage.

In this we have a note distinctly alien to that of the northern imagination, one that reminds us strongly of the legends of the Mahābhārata; yet it is not so remote as to be lacking in charm. Another noticeable and beautiful story is that of the Sacred Spear-Point. The story of Kaiana, the last of the Hawaiian knights, was told years ago by the late James Jackson Jarves, the historian of the Islands, at greater length. Among other recitals, that of the "Destruction of the Temples" gives the history of the year 1819, when the Hawaiian gods were spontaneously abandoned by the natives themselves; so that when the first missionaries arrived, in 1820, they found that their claim, so to speak, was entirely cleared of theological underbrush.

King Kalakaua has long taken a praiseworthy interest in the history of his country, and his part in the execution of the present work is considerable and creditable. Much of these 'Legends and Myths' is new. The work is a real contribution to the growing literature of the subject.

Early Letters of Jane Welsh Carlyle, together with a few of later years, and some of Thomas Carlyle. All hitherto unpublished. Edited by David G. Ritchie, M.A. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1889.

THE domestic infelicities of the Carlyles have not occasioned a more entertaining book than this, in which Mr. Ritchie has collected the early letters of Jane Welsh to his grand-aunt, Miss Eliza Stodart, her cousin-confidante, to whom she wrote in the fulness of a heart of twenty years and many lovers, with liveliness equal to her levity, and an abandon in expression which saves the trivial interests and events of Haddington from becoming over-wearisome to the most tried reader. Entertainment at least we can promise him, and also some real illumination of the character of Mrs. Carlyle discoverable in the expansiveness, the sentiment and romance, the vexations and flirtations and tribulations of Jane Welsh. Slight as the material is of which this correspondence was made, it was enough to take and retain the stamp, "the form and living pressure," of a vivacious young girl who, when she dreamed of "marrying a genius," little thought what a world would peep over her shoulder by consequence.

Carlyle, we believe, denied that Jane Welsh was a flirt; his account of the matter was that every one fell in love with her because she was so attractive. Perhaps it was so; certainly we do not see her "setting her cap" at any one—she was too proud for that; but she as certainly had a long train of lovers, and she delighted, woman-like, in this tribute to her charms. She had thoughts bent on marriage, and the chances that time and circumstances threw in her way were an unfailing source of sarcasm or sentiment, as the case might be. She had her ideal, too, of both lover and husband out of Rousseau; she sighs for a Wolmar or a St.-Preux—"George Rennie! James Aitken! Robert Mac Turk! James Baird!!! Robby Angus!—O Lord, O Lord! Where is the St. Preux? Where is the Wolmar?"—and forthwith she declares she will "never marry." But Carlyle was already by her side, and she measuring him by the Rousseau standard: "He is something liker to St. Preux than George Craig is to Wolmar. He has *his* talents, *his* vast and cultivated mind, *his* vivid imagination, *his* independence of soul, and *his* high-souled principles of honor. But then—ah, these *buts!* St.-Preux never kicked the fire-irons, nor made puddings in his tea-cup. Want of elegance! Want of elegance, Rousseau says, is a defect which no woman can overlook," and so she concludes again for a nunnery.

Of all these lovers, George Rennie made the one impression on her heart. He had plainly enough given her reasons—struck adoring attitudes in adjusting her spurs, as she prettily remembers; sent letters, and something had some time happened in "the very room" much too trying in the recollection to be spoken of. But he had gone off without the last committal, light-hearted enough, to Rome and his sculpturing—to "ruin," says Miss Welsh; and she remains to be vexed at seeing how often she remembered him. In this case she delivers her heart up to us, much annoyed at the ungallant conduct of that "false, heartless" wretch; but in the other instances she delivers up her lovers most mercilessly bound:

"I told him among other things, in tolerably plain English, that he was given to lying (and good reason I had for saying so). In reply, he kissed my hand! This was obeying the Scriptures with a vengeance. If I had bid him get out at the door, I suppose he would have taken me in his arms. Drivelling, mean-spirited, 'thrice-doubled ass'! He is sunk immeasurable fathoms in my disdain! '*Mais, doucement, mademoiselle*'!"

So she dismisses poor, impudent "Dugald." Carlyle, meanwhile, kept on scratching the andirons "dreadfully," and sending autographs of Goethe and Byron, and "brilliant letters." The autograph of Byron occasioned a romantic burst, not unnatural to one who had written such lines upon his death as are here published from her girlish pen:

"This, then, was his handwriting! *his* whose image had haunted my imagination for years and years; whose wild, glorious spirit had tinctured all the poetry of my being! . . . All the sentiment in me was screwed up to the highest pitch; I could hardly help crying like a child or Dugald G——, and I kissed the seal with a fervor which would have graced the most passionate lover."

Such bits may serve to indicate the freshness, the natural gayety, sharp tongue, and careless candor that give to these early letters of a period not previously touched by biographers all the interest they have in themselves. They afford, moreover, much light upon the temperament, the inbred ways and views of the woman who, when her "wee existence" was behind her, still carried the old traits into new circumstances in Craigenputtock and London. The later letters give a far pleasanter impression of the life at Craigenputtock, in particular, than Froude has permitted us hitherto to have. She was happy there in work and companionship, and the little events of the day—more contented, she declares, than she had ever been in her life before—and the disagreeable is a small part in her account of it and is lightly borne. This is the principal gain, in the way of really important biography, and it is a correction that could not be so truly and surely made in any other way as it is by means of her own contemporary letters. The interest lessens in the few letters at the end, of London life; were it not for the reappearance of our old friend George Rennie on the scene, who (being married) when he is ill or blue calls upon her, they would be as dull as letters from her pen could be. The dozen letters from Carlyle are not especially notable.

The editing is excellent, but errs by excessive, not to say pedantic, conscientiousness. It is hardly necessary to put in a foot-note to tell us the source of "Angels and ministers of grace, defend us." Altogether we recommend the volume with more cheerfulness than most of the publications upon Carlyle, with the proviso

only that it must be read as if it belonged to the last century and had lost all personality by lapse of time.

Socialism in England. By Sidney Webb. [Publications of the American Economic Association.]

We have here a very lucid account of the origin and growth of the socialist movement in England, showing how widely ideas of socialism have penetrated into every class, and what changes those ideas have already brought about on legislation. Mr. Webb explains the differences between the many forms of socialistic organizations and their varying aims, gives a brief history of their leading men, and an indication of the character and influence of their publications, with some succinct form of programme for future legislation, still very remote from actual possibilities, but towards which he considers everything is tending.

Although as a conscious popular agitation the socialist movement has only had any definite existence in England since the last eight years, the progressive socialism in English politics began to show itself in the early days of this century. The survivors of the collapsed Chartist movement transmitted their enlightenment to their comrades, while French and German refugees diffused the ideas of Marx and Lassalle among the working classes. John Stuart Mill, Carlyle, John Ruskin, and the Positivists all helped to prepare the public mind for necessary changes. Mr. Webb considers that the immense circulation of Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty' "sounded the dominant" note of the English socialist party of to-day. The adherents of George's views developed into socialists. Mr. Gladstone's coercive measures against the Irish Land League alienated the earnest Radicals among his adherents; the Egyptian policy was a further demonstration that so-called "Liberalism" would countenance many political crimes. It was the utter neglect of English social questions that caused the formation of the first socialist organization, in 1881, under the name of Democratic Federation, by the efforts of Mr. N. M. Hyndmann, Mr. Herbert Burrows, and Miss Helen Taylor (stepdaughter of J. Stuart Mill), and others, among whom Mr. W. Morris, Mr. Champion, and Mr. Joseph Cowen were prominent.

Mr. William Morris's Socialist League was founded in 1883 with the development of important differences in its views from those of the Democratic Federation. While accepting the collectivist principle of public control over the instruments of wealth production, the Socialist League insists strongly upon the necessity of this control being exercised by free communal groups, only loosely and voluntarily associated in larger aggregates. On this ground it has often leanings towards the "Anarchist" section in resisting the tendency to an overcentralized administration to which collectivists are prone. The present writer demonstrates that Mr. Morris's repugnance to the political institutions of the day, which leads him to preach ideal socialism rather than the appliance of its principles in any practical way to current social evolution, makes his teachings more attractive to literary workers and students than to the working classes—the wage-workers to whom his lectures are chiefly addressed.

The Fabian Society, the Christian Socialist Society, the "Guild of St. Matthew," the Toynbee Hall Settlement, the English Anarchists, and many other ramifications meet with fair representation in this pamphlet; but Mr. Sidney Webb, who is himself a well-known and ardent socialist, thinks that the cause is very much helped along by those who are unconscious of their socialism, many of whom proclaim individualism, self-help, and laissez-faire as their creed. The socialist propaganda has been widely diffused through the mining and manufacturing districts of England, and has found response and active adherents in all the industrial centres of Scotland; but in Ireland its teachings fall on sterile ground, owing to the backward state of industrial development. Many Christian ministers of different denominations have strong tendencies to socialism: there is a long list of works by ministers in its favor which Mr. Webb gives us. He also points out how Oxford and Cambridge have been affected by socialism without themselves having had any direct influence on the movement.

It is in the general tone of political economy in our day that the most apparent change has taken place. To quote our author:

"The lesson of evolution, at first thought to be the apotheosis of anarchic individual competition, is now recognized to be quite the contrary. We have to learn, Prof. Huxley tells us, to substitute consciously adapted coördination for internecine competition, if the organism which will prove to be the 'Fittest to Survive' is to be also the best. Even the political economists are learning this lesson, and the fundamental idea of a social organism paramount over and prior to the individual of each generation is penetrating to their minds and appearing in their lectures, though it has not even yet affected to any great extent their more elaborate treatises."

As a significant fact, the author mentions that the editors of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' requiring an article for their ninth edition on the development and position of political economy, requested a Socialistic Positivist to write on the subject, who supplied a "lengthy survey of the steady convergence of all the tendencies towards a socialist state." Mr. Webb goes on to point out the collectivist character of modern reform, so completely at variance with the individualist principles lately dominant in thought. He quotes Herbert Spencer's words: "The numerous socialistic changes made by act of Parliament, joined with numerous others presently to be made, will by and by be all merged in State socialism—swallowed in the vast wave which they have little by little raised." He shows how the necessities of the time have forced the practical politician into a groove he would otherwise deprecate, remarking that English statesmen are more ready than American to "carry into actual legislative effect the proposals pressed upon them from below." While in America the cry is for good administration, in England it is for new laws.

It would require too much space to follow Mr. Webb through his chapter on "Socialism in Politics," or to quote "The Programme for London" from the *Star* which he considers fairly to represent the demands of the English Socialist party. We are bound to acknowledge the optimism of Mr. Sidney Webb's views, but we strongly recommend his pamphlet to those who desire to know what socialists are aiming at, and what the result of their efforts has been hitherto. It is impossible for any thoughtful person living in England not to perceive that a great class struggle is taking place around him. He would naturally wish to find out the manner in which it is helped along by those who have power to influence the public mind. Mr. Webb's account of the different denominations of socialists would serve this end.

The Tramp at Home. By Lee Meriwether. Harper & Bros. 1889.

Mr. Meriwether, as special agent of the United States Department of Labor, has had a pretty good opportunity of studying many branches of the labor question. He spent upwards of a year, he tells us, "in the kingdoms of the Old World" investigating the condition of the workingman. After submitting a report to the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Washington, he was appointed by the Secretary of the Interior a special agent to obtain similar information in America. His present volume, however, contains not the statistics collected, "but a few of the incidents—amusing and otherwise—that befell me in my intercourse with the working-classes of America, together with a brief account of a journey to the Sandwich Islands, undertaken in connection with an investigation into the condition of sailors."

The book is an entertaining one, and if Mr. Meriwether's statistics are as valuable as his account of his adventures is readable, he must have proved a helpful assistant to the Department. Among the best chapters in the book are those on California and the Sandwich Islands. His explanation of the anti-Chinese movement, so far as the wages question is concerned, is somewhat different from that promulgated by most labor-reformers. According to him, it is not true that Chinese labor is extraordinarily cheap. Chinese hands in fruit-canneries earn, he says, a dollar a day; a Chinese day-laborer on a farm earns $1.50; in San Francisco "a Chinese cook for a small family is paid as high as $35 a month." He does not give all the corresponding wages for white labor, but, while admitting them to be higher, he insists that they are by no means enough higher to account for the popular outcry. His idea is—and certainly there must be some truth in it—that much of the discontent of the California laborer arises from the fact that in comparatively recent times all wages in California were enormously high, $10 or $12 a day. The Chinese were the first laboring people to emigrate to California on a great scale. But had Irish, German, Italian, or negro laborers come instead of the Chinese, the effect would have been the same—that is, wages would have fallen. Of course this does not account for everything, for there is a fundamental race hatred, giving rise to that peculiar loathing which the California blackguard feels for the Mongolian—not unlike the old feeling of the Northern blackguard for the "nigger," but apparently stronger.

Of the Sandwich Islands and its $25,000 King, Mr. Meriwether gives a most amusing account. As the present is an era of corruption, it is interesting to know how "the thing is worked" in the Sandwich Islands. Here is the pathetic letter of Aki, a Chinaman, written for the purpose of getting a license to sell opium:

"O Lord of Heaven! here is a small offering, a small pig for breakfast. It would be a good thing if my royal master would be pleased to accept this. And here is something small which will be laid beside you, a few ten-cent pieces—$30,000—as your servant has remembered and sent it, and may you be so gracious and kind to me, etc., etc."

A few days later, Aki sent another pig, and a few more ten-cent pieces, this time $31,000. The King accepted the offer, took the two pigs and the ten-cent pieces, and then sold the license for $80,000 to another man. This was illegal, and produced much trouble, and finally the Supreme Court decided that the King must refund the money; but poor Aki had meantime died of a broken heart.

Mr. Meriwether has a theory about the so-called labor problem which should not be overlooked by the reader, because it necessarily colors what he has to say. This is, that the principal cause of the decline in wages is the taking up of public lands by "monopolists." He seems to think that, but for this, the laborer would get as wages what he could get out of the land—*i. e.*, a man, on being offered a dollar a day as a farm hand, would immediately say, "But I can get five dollars a day by merely taking up a quarter section close by, and working it myself." Under the present system he cannot do this, because the monopolists, "English syndicates," railroads, and other "land-grabbers," keep the land away from him. On this head Mr. Meriwether gives some rather startling statistics as to the way in which city and town sites and timber land and agricultural land are taken up in advance of population, and "held," so that they are of no use to anybody. How much of it all is within the author's own knowledge does not appear.

Of course there are many objections to this theory. We will mention one or two. In the first place, the principal monopolists—the railroads—only take their immense tracts of land from the Government for the purpose of selling again as fast as possible. Any one who desires to do so, can get all the land he needs from them at a very small cost. It is only necessary to look at the statistics in Poor's Manual to see that they are selling their lands all the time. In the second place, an ordinary laborer, who has no capital, cannot take up and cultivate land any more than he can buy railroad stock, or make any other investment. The great body of laborers are in no position to threaten to become farmers on their own account, no matter how much land there may be. A laborer cannot become a farmer before he has accumulated a fund sufficient to enable him to buy, first, the land; second, the implements; third, the seed-grain; and to have something to live on while he is raising the crop. In the third place, the enormous immigration of laborers is quite sufficient to account for a decline in wages, without resorting to any new and fanciful theory.

C. Plinii Caecilii Secundi Epistulae ad Traianum Imperatorem cum eiusdem Responsis. Edited, with Notes and Introductory Essays, by E. G. Hardy, M. A. Macmillan & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 251.

Mr. Hardy's hope, expressed in his preface, that "it is not to remain a law of the Medes and Persians that for school purposes Roman history should end with Augustus," is itself an indication how far the change that he desires has already come about. In the last generation classical students concerned themselves little about the Roman Empire. Even Tacitus and Juvenal were read rather as Latin authors than for any strong interest in the times which they described; and it occurred to few to regard the institutions of the Empire as an organic growth, developed directly out of those of the Republic. The civil wars put an end definitively to free institutions, and absolute monarchy took their place without an interval.

The present generation has learned to look at the Empire with different eyes, and to recognize in it a most interesting and instructive chapter in the growth of institutions. And in order to illustrate the change that has already taken place, and to advance still further our understanding of the period, Mr. Hardy could have done nothing better than place in our hands this exhaustive study of the correspondence between Trajan and Pliny. What is wanted is just such a concrete presentation of the subject. We have treatises upon the government of the Empire and the administration of the provinces; but here we have an emperor—the greatest between Augustus and Diocletian—and a governor—one of the most intelligent and cultivated men of his day—discussing in familiar letters the detail of the administration of a province. That the province is a petty and unimportant one perhaps increases the value of the materials; one can watch the working of machinery better in a small and simple engine than in a great and complicated establishment.

There is an Introduction, of seventy-five pages, containing such general discussions as are necessary. The most important of the subheads in this are "The Imperial Supervision of the Provinces" and "Pliny and the Christians." The hundred and twenty-one letters of the correspondence which follow are illustrated with a great wealth of scholarship—perhaps too much, leaving nothing to be done by the student. For example, it seems hardly necessary to give a lengthy paraphrase of every letter; students of the grade that would take up this book certainly need no such assistance. An appendix of five pages "On Pliny and the Christians" discusses Dr. Lightfoot's view of the persecution under Trajan, that "the events under Nero, Domitian, and Trajan were all persecutions of the Christians as an unlicensed religion." In the Preface (p. 63), he says of Trajan's edict: "That it actually was followed by a persecution there is not the smallest proof"; and he wholly rejects Dr. Lightfoot's view that it was "the most severe of all the persecutions of which we have any knowledge during the first and second centuries." He admits, however, "that the rescript of the Emperor inaugurated a new era. It was, it seems to me, merely the official interpretation, confirming Pliny's previous action, of the law against unlicensed collegia. So far as it went, however, it was an edict of proscription against Christianity, which by its very essence was an association, and therefore illegal; and if it could be proved that the rescript was intended to apply to the whole Empire, which I think was certainly not the case, it might fairly be described as the initiation of an anti-Christian policy" (p. 243).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, Prof. E. B. Institutes of Economics. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Baedeker's Conversation Dictionary, in Four Languages: English, French, German, Italian. B. Westermann & Co.
Boscovitch, A. Earthquakes. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.75.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. Whither? A Theological Question for the Times. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Browne, W. H. Archives of Maryland: Proceedings and Acts of the General Assembly of Maryland, Oct., 1678–Nov., 1683. Baltimore: Maryland Historical Society.
Colt, S. A Student's Manual of Ethical Philosophy. Adapted from the German of Prof. G. von Gizycki. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Corbett, J. Monk. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Daudet, A. Artists' Wives. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Edwards, Miss A. B. Untrodden Peaks and Unfrequented Valleys: A Midsummer Ramble in the Dolomites. 2d ed. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Ford, P. L. Franklin Bibliography. Brooklyn, N. Y., 97 Clark St.: The Author. $5.
George, A. J. Selections from Wordsworth, with Notes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.35.
Gould, A. The Faithful Achates: A Narrative. The Judge Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Gould—Tucker. Notes on the Revised Statutes of the United States and the Subsequent Legislation of Congress. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $10.
Harte, B. The Heritage of Dedlow Marsh, and Other Tales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hill, Rev. E. A Short Cut to the True Church. Notre Dame, Ind.: *Ave Maria* Office.
Jackson, A. V. W. A Hymn of Zoroaster, Yasna 31. Translated with comments. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Lockwood, I. Travels and Adventures of Little Baron Trump and his Wonderful Dog Bulger. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Morley, Prof. H. Early Prose Romances: Reynard the Fox, Friar Bacon, etc. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.
Nanteuil, Mme P. de. Captain. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2.
Optic, O. Within the Enemy's Lines. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Peck, Ellen O. Speaking Pieces for Little Scholars and Older Pupils. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Rolf and his Friends. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Sprague, H. B. Shakespeare's Tragedy of Macbeth. Chicago: S. R. Winchell & Co. 55 cents.
Stevenson, R. L. The Master of Ballantrae: A Winter's Tale. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Tales from *Blackwood*. Third Series. White & Allen. 40 cents.
Thomas, Annie. That Other Woman. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Tompkins, E. S. de G. An Honest Hypocrite. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, A. C. Foreign Missions: Their Place in the Pastorate, in Prayer, in Conferences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Tolstoi, Count L. N. War and Peace. From the Russian by N. H. Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. In 4 vols., $5; in 2 vols., $3.
Tomson, G. R. Selections from the Greek Anthology. London: Walter Scott.
Travel, Adventure, and Sport. From *Blackwood's Magazine*. No. III. White & Allen. 40 cents.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. Schuyler. Six Portraits: Della Robbia, Correggio, Blake, Corot, George Fuller, Winslow Homer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Venable, W. H. The Teacher's Dream, and Other Songs of School Days. Cincinnati: McDonald & Eick.
Zschokke, H. Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following Statement of its affairs on the 31st of December, 1888:

Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....	$3,865,166 38
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888.....	1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums.....	$5,253,404 39
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888.....	$3,867,269 52
Losses paid during the same period.....	$1,998,897 36
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	687,287 98

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks....	$7,501,315 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise..	2,469,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....	569,947 20
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....	1,374,912 12
Cash in Bank.....	252,812 02
Amount.....	$12,167,986 34

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1884 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending December 31, 1888, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the seventh of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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OCTOBER NUMBER,

COMMENCING A NEW VOLUME.

CONTENTS:

ON THE SOUTH COAST. A. C. Swinburne.
CHILDREN IN THEATRES. Mrs. Jeune.
CEYLON. Sir J. F. Dickson.
ENGLISH GIRLHOOD. Mrs. Molesworth.
WHITE AND SILENT NUNS. Henry W. Lucy.
PAMELA. Hon. Mrs. Anstruther.
EMBOSSING OF METALS. W. A. S. Benson.
A RONDEAU. Walter Crane.
A HOMELESS LOVE. Violet Fane
WAGNER AT BAYREUTH. G. Bernard Shaw.
THE RING OF AMASIS. Earl of Lytton.

THE ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE.

PROSPECTUS FOR THE YEAR 1889-90.

The publishers beg to say that from the October number onwards the *English Illustrated Magazine* will be printed in a new type which has been decided upon after much deliberation as being an improvement on that hitherto employed, and *the letterpress will be printed across the page, instead of in double column.* It is believed that the illustrations, to which the conductors of the Magazine attach the highest importance, will look better when introduced into the solid page, while the letterpress itself will be more legible. *At the same time, with a view to further improving the appearance of the Magazine, the thickness of the paper will be increased.*

Among the articles already arranged for, the editor has to mention a series of three Illustrated papers graciously contributed by

HER ROYAL HIGHNESS, PRINCESS CHRISTIAN, the titles of which will be the subject of future announcement.

Social questions of the day will be treated of from time to time, and among the articles on these topics which will appear during the year will be

CHILDREN IN THEATRES. By Mrs. Jeune.

NAIL AND CHAIN MAKING AT CRADLEY HEATH By the Rev. Harold Rylett (a principal witness before the House of Lords' Committee on the Sweating System). Illustrated to show the work done by women and children.

LONDON MATCH GIRLS. By Clementina Black. Illustrated to indicate the difference between Factory and Home Work.

A Series of Papers on various religious movements is contemplated, and the first of these will appear in the November number entitled

CHURCH SUNDAY-SCHOOLS. By the Hon. E. P. Thesiger, C.B.

Illustrated Sporting Articles, written by men who have played a prominent part in the Sporting World, will be produced from time to time, and yachtsmen on both sides of the Atlantic will read with interest

YACHT RACING. By the Right Hon. the Earl of Dunraven, K.T. Accompanied by illustrations of the yachts Valkyrie, Irex, Yarana, and the famous American seventy-footer Katrina.

No change will take place in the artistic character of the Magazine, which is generally admitted to have reached a high level. The Editor will continue to avail himself of the services of the high-skilled engravers on wood who have worked for the Magazine for the past six years, and he has been fortunate enough to receive promises of support from artists of the highest standing. Mr. WALTER CRANE will contribute a series of Drawings illustrating his recent journey through Greece; and articles illustrated by HAMILTON MACALLUM, HARRY FURNISS, HERBERT RAILTON, HUGH THOMSON, REGINALD BLOMFIELD and W. BISCOMBE GARDNER will appear during the year.

Special mention is due to the following articles:

TAPESTRY. By Alan S. Cole. Illustrated from Old Examples in the South Kensington Museum, and from New Examples woven by William Morris after designs by E. Burne Jones, A. R. A., and

THE EMBOSSING OF METALS. By W. A. S. Benson. Illustrated from Old Examples.

In view of the increased circulation of the magazine in the United States, special efforts will be made to interest American readers, and the editor has secured the coöperation of authors and artists whose works have already gained much popularity in this country.

Poetry will play a prominent part in the early numbers, and New Poems will be published from the pens of

ALGERNON CHARLES SWINBURNE.
WILLIAM MORRIS, AUSTIN DOBSON,
LEWIS MORRIS, VIOLET FANE.

Among the features of the Magazine during the next year will be a series of papers on "Girlhood in Different Countries." The Articles already arranged for include:

ENGLISH GIRLHOOD. By Mrs. Molesworth.
FRENCH GIRLHOOD. By Mme. Guizot De Witt.

In view of the growing demand for articles of a purely personal nature, the editor intends to introduce sketches from the lives of men and women whose position before the public fairly entitles them to rank as celebrities of the day.

The series of articles on "Old English Homes" has proved so popular that it is proposed to extend their scope to Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

A series of papers on The Public Schools of England, written and illustrated from the historical as well as the modern side, is likewise in contemplation. Already arranged are:

ETON. By H. C. Maxwell-Lyte, C.B., and the Hon. Alfred Lyttelton.
HARROW. By Percy M. Thornton and A. J. Webbe.
RUGBY. By his Honor Judge Hughes, Q.C., author of 'Tom Brown's School Days.'

The Editor is also making arrangements to give the readers of THE ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE a descriptive account of the great routes of travel in the different parts of the globe. The series will begin with an article on

THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY and the NEW OCEAN ROUTE to AUSTRALIA. By Sir George Baden Powell, M. P., K.C.M.G.

Sir Donald Makenzie Wallace, K.C.I.E., will contribute a description of his journey home from India through Persia.

Special care has been taken to secure the services of the leading writers in fiction, but only one Serial Novel will run through any considerable part of the year. In each issue, however, will appear a short story, varied so as to suit the interest of different readers,

In October will begin a New Story by the Right Hon. the EARL OF LYTTON, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., C.I.E., entitled

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Contributions of various kinds have been also promised by

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 3, 1889.

The Week.

THE platform which "Tom" Platt outlined in advance as the one which his New York Republican Convention would adopt went through without a change on Wednesday week. The platform reads almost in Platt's words by saying that "no step backward will be taken," and that the Platt Republicans in convention assembled, having divided among themselves all the Federal offices in the gift of the President, are in favor of the "purification and elevation of the civil service." The name of high license appears nowhere in the platform, but that is not a step backward from last year's platform, and Platt is strictly truthful on that point. There was no civil-service reform either in last year's platform, so on that point he is also truthful. If his declaration had read, however, that there "has been no step backward," with unrestricted application to the declarations of previous years, it would have been flagrantly untruthful, and that is the reason, doubtless, why the future tense was employed. It is difficult to see how a step any more backward than that of this year can be taken hereafter. If the temperance people object to the vagueness of the platform, Platt and Shook and the *Tribune* can point out to them that the head of the ticket is a genuine Prohibitionist, and can have no end of fun in chuckling over the wrath and perplexity which the Prohibition party will experience because of that fine stroke of politics. Then, too, the ticket is made up of entirely good men from top to bottom, is it not? Of course they have small chance of being elected, but that is all the more reason why they should all be good.

The deliverance of the Convention on the subject of the tariff was about as non-committal as possible, being a bare statement that the party is in favor of protection to American industry. This may mean the existing tariff, or a higher one, or a lower one, according to the notions of the individual voter. It certainly comes far short, in point of definiteness, of the national platform of the party, and this weakness and dubiety must have been intentional. The New Jersey Republicans were even more non-committal, since they did not mention the tariff in the platform at all. In this respect they are matched by the Maryland Democrats, who, under the lead of Senator Gorman, skipped that question altogether. They constitute the sole exception, in the Democratic ranks, to sturdy adherence to the principles of the national campaign, for although they endorsed the St. Louis platform of last year, they omitted to make special mention of tariff reform as the Democrats of Ohio and Pennsylvania did. The Republicans of Massachusetts gave their adhesion in a mild way to the views of Gov. Ames and the low-tariff iron-manufacturers. So we interpret this portion of their platform. It seems, therefore, as far as we can judge from such deliverances, that the Eastern Republicans are getting ready to repudiate the plank of the Chicago platform which demands the repeal of the whiskey tax rather than the sacrifice of "*any part* of our protective system."

We received at this office on Wednesday of last week, through the Associated Press, a despatch containing a very beautiful opening prayer which was to have been offered, or "lifted up," as President Harrison would say, at Platt's Republican Convention at Saratoga on the same day. We were just preparing with proper reverence to put it in type when we got another despatch asking us to "destroy it." The explanation was that the reverend gentleman who had written it out, and expected to "lift it up," was not chosen by the Convention. Somebody else prayed in his place. We have read it with care, and find that its most striking petition is a sort of enlargement of President Harrison's injunction to Tanner to be liberal to the boys. The prayer asks the Almighty, at some length, to incline the hearts of Congressmen to deal liberally with the veterans and their widows and orphans. It also calls attention to Sabbath observance, the liquor traffic, the labor problem, colleges, schools, culture, and a pleasing variety of other matters. In fact, it evidently caused the author a good deal of effort, and does him credit. He is mistaken, however, in supposing that a prayer once written out can be cancelled or withdrawn. In writing it he offered it up, and nothing that Platt or the Convention could do could really substitute another for it. It had passed far beyond Platt's reach, and indeed beyond his ken, when it was flashed to us over the wires.

Mr. Cabot Lodge has distinguished himself, in the drafting of the Massachusetts Republican platform, by the insertion of a plank on civil-service reform which we have never seen surpassed as a piece of mingled brass and simplicity:

> "We desire also to congratulate the President upon the practical wisdom and honest purpose with which he has dealt with the complicated and difficult matter of appointments. So far as our own State is concerned, we have only to ask that, in accordance with what we know to be the purpose and policy of the President in filling the leading Federal offices which are of a political nature, men may be chosen who are not only of the highest character and fitness, but who represent and are thoroughly acceptable to the great body of the party in the State.

The brass lies in the congratulation, and the simplicity in the request. Mr. Lodge's notion that he can get people to believe that there are Federal offices in Massachusetts, "of a political nature," which may be properly reserved for Republicans of "the highest character and fitness," is worthy of the most guileless "mollycoddle" among the reformers. "The scholar in politics" becomes more and more of a joke every day. There are no Federal offices in Massachusetts of "a political nature," a fact of which Mr. Lodge is, of course, perfectly aware.

The platform deserves hearty praise for one feature—the declaration to the Senators and Representatives of the State in Congress that "the Republicans of Massachusetts look to them to defend a sound currency *and resist an increase of the present silver coinage.*" This is the first voice which has anywhere been raised in favor of the true doctrine since that great Southern Republican leader, Mahone, had the Republican party of Virginia declare in its platform, a few weeks ago, for "the speedy restoration of silver to its full monetary functions by its full and unlimited coinage at the national mints." As compared with two years ago, the platform also shows progress in the right direction in dropping the outspoken declaration of 1887 that "we favor liberal appropriations for proper national aid to education," omitting this matter entirely from the list of those pressed upon the attention of the State's delegation in Congress, and adopting a non-committal resolution expressing the "hope that every reasonable and constitutional aid may be given to education by the powers of the nation and the States"—a plain admission of doubt as to whether Federal interference in the matter is reasonable or, if reasonable, constitutional.

The nomination of Lieut.-Gov. Brackett for Governor of Massachusetts is correctly described by that good Republican organ, the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, as "clearly a victory for practical politics," just as the dominance of Quay in the Republican party of Pennsylvania, and of Mahone in the Republican party of Virginia, represents the success of "practical politics" in those States. Not that Mr. Brackett is, either personally or politically, a man of so low a type as either Quay or Mahone, but that he stands in Massachusetts for the same demoralizing tendencies in the party which are seen at their worst in Pennsylvania and Virginia. Mr. Crapo, his rival for the nomination, is in every way far his superior, and is the type of man who used to be made the Republican candidate in the days of Abraham Lincoln and John A. Andrew. Mr. Brackett represents simply the machine element in the party, which, in Massachusetts as in every other State, is coming more boldly and openly to the front every year.

It is amusing to observe the Republican organs of the country, as one by one they fall into line behind the New York *Tribune* and commend the "creditable" action of the Mississippi Republican Convention in nominating that "typical Southern seat-snatcher," Gen. James R. Chalmers, for Governor. The Hartford *Evening Post* expresses the "hope that the Republicans will cordially sustain" this man whom a Republi-

can Congress sent back to Mississippi "thoroughly disgraced and despised." The Cleveland *Leader* has, perhaps, the hardest dose to swallow of any Republican paper in the country. Four years ago, when we pointed out that Chalmers had been trying to edge his way into the Republican party, the Cleveland paper was filled with indignation at the mere suggestion of such a thing. The *Leader* denounced him as "the unhung fiend who massacred Union prisoners," and declared in so many words that "*he cannot and would not be received into our party.*" It is a little hard for an editor to discover that the "unhung fiend" was, after all, really an angel of light; but the *Leader* will not long be staggered by any such difficulty.

Senator Sherman has written a letter to some Republicans in Alexandria, Va., in which he says that he "believes the election of Gen. Mahone will be a bright, auspicious event in the history of the country," especially because "it would do more than anything else to lift the politics of our country above the contentions and prejudices of the past," inasmuch as "the election of so distinguished a Confederate officer by the Republican party would show that we feel that the time has come when the memories of the war should be forgotten." This deliverance recalls the Senator's appearance in the same Dr. Jekyll rôle a little more than two years ago, and assures his early transformation into Mr. Hyde again. In March, 1887, Mr. Sherman went to Nashville, Tenn., and Dr. Jekyll ostentatiously blotted out "the memories of the war," of which he said, "Think not that I come here to reproach any man for the part that he took in that fight, or to revive in the heart of any one the triumph of victory or the pangs of defeat." On the first of June following, Mr. Sherman delivered a speech at Springfield, Ill., in which Mr. Hyde condemned all "rebels" as unfit to hold office under the Government, and declared, regarding the appointment of certain Southerners as ministers and consuls, that "every nation to which these gentlemen are accredited may fairly conclude that it was the rebel cause that triumphed and not the Union cause." The only question now is, how long it will be this time between the "conciliatory" deliverance to a Virginia audience and the bloody-shirt tirade on the Northern stump which is sure to follow it.

Private Dalzell and "Corp." Tanner are a noble pair of brawlers. They remind one of the cartoon in *Punch* where a patient in a dentist's chair opens his mouth to such an alarming extent that the dentist exclaims, "Not so wide as that! I can do it outside." Tanner wrote a letter to Dalzell giving himself away at a tremendous rate, and giving away President Harrison, Secretary Noble, and sundry other officials at Washington. He enjoined Dalzell to secrecy, and said that he hoped the Private would not cause him (Tanner) to regret having written the letter by showing it to anybody. But the Private never could keep a letter or a secret. It is his vocation in life to write to all sorts of public men in order to print their answers, and show that he (Dalzell) is in correspondence with great folks. So it has come about that Tanner's letter has got into the newspapers, and a nice letter it is, showing for the twentieth time, but more distinctly than ever before, that Tanner was grievously unfit to be Commissioner of Pensions or to hold any other place of responsibility.

Russell A. Alger sought the nomination for President of the United States from the Republican National Convention last year, but failed to secure it, his highest vote being 142 out of a total of 827. To-day, however, Russell A. Alger, rejected as candidate of the Republican National Convention, is actually President of the United States so far as concerns the administration of the Government in a bureau which controls the expenditure of $80,000,000 a year. Benjamin Harrison, the nominal Executive, by the confession of those Republican organs most friendly to him, does not dare to appoint any man as Commissioner of Pensions until he has "procured the endorsement of Gen. R. A. Alger, the Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic." The man who by the Constitution is "Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States" is really the subordinate of the man who is "the Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic." The situation is without precedent in our history.

The best-informed and most conservative Washington correspondents agree that the President has decided to appoint his old law partner, Attorney-General Miller, to the vacant place on the bench of the United States Supreme Court. There has never been any reason to doubt Mr. Harrison's desire to make this appointment, or to suppose that a President who gives offices to members of his own family without any compunctions of conscience, could comprehend the flagrant impropriety of bestowing the highest judicial honor in the land upon a commonplace lawyer whose sole claim is that of personal friendship. The only question all along has been as to whether the Republican press would criticise too severely such a shocking abuse of power. There have been some creditable protests from newspapers whose editors do not hold office, but so many of the chief organs of the party have been subsidized, and are ready to excuse and even commend anything done by the dispenser of patronage, that Mr. Harrison has concluded that there is no more reason for hesitancy in giving a judgeship to an old law partner than a marshalship to a brother.

The list of subsidized editors is growing. The Owego (N. Y.) *Times*, under the heading "A New Postmaster in Owego," modestly acknowledges receipt in the following terms:

"An Associated Press despatch from Washington, on Monday last, announced that President Harrison had appointed William Smyth, senior editor of the Owego *Times*, Postmaster of Owego, in place of Frederick O. Cable, removed."

The *Times* is an ultra-partisan newspaper, and the home organ of Mr. Thomas C. Platt. President Cleveland allowed the Republican incumbent of the Owego Post-office to serve out his full term, Mr. Cable not having been appointed until after the beginning of the third year of the Democratic Administration, viz., on April 1, 1887. On September 9, 1889, President Harrison removed Mr. Cable. The editor of the Rahway (N. J.) *Advocate* has just been made Postmaster of that town. The outgoing Postmaster, Mr. Lindsay, was not appointed until December 20 of last year, his Republican predecessor, Mr. Oliver, having been allowed practically to serve through the whole of the Cleveland Administration. His term did not expire till January of this year, but, having accepted the Republican nomination for County Clerk, he resigned his office in October, 1888. Not being elected, however, to the county office, he held on, and Mr. Lindsay was not appointed in his place until December. After only nine months of his term President Harrison removes Mr. Lindsay as he removed Mr. Cable, in the interest of the press-subsidy scheme, and in contempt of his own self-imposed and very moderate rule, that "We must do at least as well as Cleveland did."

The Indianapolis ministers refuse to comply with the request of the Civil-Service-Reform Association that they, in common with ministers in other places, should preach a sermon on civil-service reform. Their excuses are printed in the Indianapolis *Sentinel*, and they are as varied as those of the people bidden to the wedding in the New Testament. But we think it was discourteous to ask them. Such proposals bring before the world, very much like President Harrison's famous prayer, the exact nature of Indianapolis Christianity, which is not pleasant for those who are officially connected with it. It appears to be a strange creed, full of little hiding-places and recesses in which the weak and weary political humbugs can find rest and refreshment.

The resolutions adopted by the woollen-manufacturers at their recent meeting in Boston assert that the existing duties on woollen manufactures afford nearly 20 per cent. less protection than was deemed necessary for the development of the industry when the rates for 1887 were fixed (1887 being obviously, through a typographical error, printed for 1867, as there was no fixing of rates in the former year). It will be interesting, therefore, to look back and see what the woollen-manufacturers really deemed necessary in 1867, the time when the famous compact with the wool-growers was agreed upon, and subsequently ratified by Congress. The information will be found in the "Report of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Wool-Manufacturers," addressed to the United States Revenue Commission, and published in 1866. In this it was shown that the protective influence of the then existing customs duties was largely neutralized by certain other duties and taxes, for which com-

pensation had not been, but should be, given. Now, what were these neutralizing duties and taxes? The Committee made a full exhibit of them, and in a carefully prepared table showed their incidence on the leading articles of woollen fabrics. Thus, for example, on a running yard of cassimere, the average cost of which abroad was 93.70 cents, and the customs duties on such foreign cost, exclusive of charges — freights, interest, and commissions—was 51.47 cents, the protection of these duties, on a corresponding American fabric of wool, was neutralized to the extent of 1.40 cents per yard by the duties on drugs and dyestuffs, 10.12 cents per yard by reason of the internal-revenue taxes, and 16.33 cents by reason of advance of wages and expenses consequent upon the war; or a total of 27.91 cents. And so in respect to doeskins, broadcloths, and other specialties.

In making up the wool tariff of 1867, these neutralizing duties and taxes were accordingly taken into account as a matter of justice, and duties—not regarded as protective—on woollens were enacted to at least an exact equivalent; and, on the substructure thus created, protective duties, pure and simple, to the extent of 40 to 80, 90, or more per cent., were added. But these neutralizing taxes and duties, amounting, according to the Committee's tables, to an average of at least 25 per cent. on the cost of importing foreign woollens, have, in a great measure, ceased to neutralize, the internal-revenue taxes having been entirely removed, and the others, by legislation or change of conditions, greatly abated; and to just the extent that they have disappeared, to that same extent has the protection to the woollen-manufacturers been increased without any direct legislation, and without any general cognizance on the part of the American public. And yet we are now told by the Boston resolutions that the existing duties afford the woollen-manufacturer 20 per cent. less protection than what their representatives declared to be simple and satisfactory when the wool tariff of 1867 was enacted. The prophet Agur enumerated four things that were never satisfied; but if he had lived in our day, he would have certainly added a fifth—namely, a protected manufacturer.

The text of Judge Nelson's decision on the Minnesota Dressed-Beef Law does not differ materially from that of the State court at Duluth which pronounced the law unconstitutional and void. The grounds for the decision in each case were that the police power of the States cannot be employed to destroy or interfere with inter-State commerce, and that the courts will inquire in each case whether the exercise of the police power has been reasonable or not. In the present case it is shown to be both unreasonable and dishonest. There are no facts to show that the Dressed-Beef Law promotes public health or prevents disease. The public health is as good in New York, for example, where there is no such law, as in Minnesota. It is no better in Minnesota now than it was before the law was passed. The law was a measure of "protection to home industry" pure and simple. Every judge who has "got a whack at it" so far has pronounced it such and has declared it absolutely void. Notwithstanding this, the counsel of the local butchers declare that they intend to arrest Mr. Armour's agents every time they sell a joint of beef in Minnesota, "until a decision of the Supreme Court is reached." The St. Paul cattle-dealers, says the *Pioneer-Press*, "all agreed that if the Big Four of Chicago were permitted to come in here at the present time with their loins and ribs, it would be the death of all cattle-markets in Minnesota." There it is again! Not that it would impair the public health in any degree, but that it would "spoil our trade."

Among the resolutions adopted by the Bankers' Convention at Kansas City was one asking Congress to amend the National Banking Law so that the penalty for taking usurious interest shall be simply forfeiture of the excess above the legal rate. A better amendment would be to provide that contracts for the use of money shall be as valid as other contracts—that is, to abolish usury laws; and this would be as constitutional as the one proposed, for if the States may regulate the rate of interest, they may certainly fix the penalty for its violation, and fix it as many different ways as there are States and Territories. Probably Congress will not take so radical a step as that proposed by the Bankers' Convention, but it may, and we hope will, take some step towards uniformity in the penalties for what is called usury. Another resolution proposed to the Convention and referred to the Executive Council asks Congress to abolish the tax on circulation and establish one for the protection of depositors. This proposition is a very weighty one, and there is much to be said in favor of it, although much depends upon the details of the plan which may be devised to carry it into effect.

The proposal of Mr. W. P. St. John to the Bankers' Convention that the coinage of silver on Government account be increased to the maximum of $4,000,000 per month, and that a corresponding amount of greenbacks or national-bank notes be retired and cancelled monthly, and that gold and silver certificates be made legal tender, involves a very sweeping and radical change in our monetary system. It is not likely to be adopted, and we think ought not to be, but it is entitled to very respectful consideration, because it comes from one of the most thoughtful members of the banking fraternity. The first reason advanced by Mr. St. John in support of his plan is, "that the United States legal-tender notes ought to be retired." This is not a self-evident proposition, even if the field were clear. It is open to more serious question if the retirement of the legal-tender notes involves the substitution of silver, which in this case involves taxation to the extent of $356,000,000 for bullion alone, besides the cost of coinage. The public are not in favor of the retirement of the greenbacks; nor is there any good reason why they should be. The greenbacks stand for that portion of the circulating medium which experience shows will always and in all circumstances float at par if backed by a moderate redemption fund. They correspond to the uncovered issue of Bank of England notes, and there is no reason why the Government should not reap the benefit, that is, the annual interest on this portion of the currency. The only reason that has ever been advanced to the contrary is that the existence of $356,000,000 tempts to the issue of more. But this is not so objectionable as the coinage of more silver dollars. The supposition, if it is entertained, that the raising of the silver coinage to $4,000,000 per month will stop the mouths of the silver-men and make them desist from demanding free coinage, is altogether illusory. There is no way to bring them into convention or to make a contract with them. Nor would such a contract be desirable. Finally, Mr. St. John's proposition that the coinage of $4,000,000 per month would enhance the price of silver has nothing to support it, and his idea that such enhancement "would serve to wrest from England an advantage against us which she has now in trade with India, amounting to about 33 per cent. against the United States," ignores the fact that nations do not trade with each other for money, but for commodities, using money only to settle small balances. We judge that the Bankers' Convention will be in no haste to commit themselves to Mr. St. John's plan.

The representatives of the States known in monetary matters as the Latin Union—France, Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, and Greece—are now sitting in convention in Paris, to consider whether the Union ought to be continued or not after January 1, 1891. The Union is simply an agreement on the part of the countries named to restrict within certain limits their coinage of silver. It is, in fact, an attempt to do on a small scale what the bimetallists want the whole civilized world to do on a large scale—keep up the value of silver by coöperation. It is needless to say that the attempt has not been successful. The Unionists have a fine lot of silver coin on hand, but silver is no better off in relation to gold than ever. The Union has, however, got the wolf by the ears, and dares not let go. If the Union were dissolved, France would have to settle with Belgium for the silver she has coined for many years on French account, and which therefore France cannot rightfully send back for redemption, even if it were now known how much it is. Nor, on the other hand, could France redeem all this silver herself without drawing heavily on her sister members, Italy and Belgium, for gold. At the same time, there is a great quantity of Italian silver current in France, and if France were to present this for redemption in Italy, it would precipitate a monetary crisis there. So it would really seem that, although the Union has not fulfilled the object for which it was established, it will have to be kept going lest worse things should happen.

AGRICULTURE IN VERMONT.

THE State of Vermont possesses a good soil, a salubrious climate, abundance of water and timber, and all the advantages of a stable society, schools, colleges, churches, highways, and proximity to large markets. She is essentially an agricultural State, and has enjoyed the advantages of a high protective tariff during the past quarter of a century. Notwithstanding all these things, her public officials tell us that good farming land in Vermont is passing out of occupation. Rumors of this kind have been going the rounds of the press for some time back, but nothing very definite was known until the State Commissioner of Agricultural and Manufacturing Interests conceived the idea of attracting immigration by publishing circulars showing the places where unoccupied land of good quality could be had, and the prices at which it is now offered. The facts are even more remarkable than rumor had given them out, as the circular of September 9 shows.

For example: In the town of Reading, Windsor County, 4,000 acres of land, which are now, or have been in former times, good farms, are offered for sale. One-half of these, says the Commissioner, "are lands which formerly comprised good farms, but with buildings now gone and fast growing up to timber; some of this land is used for pasturage, and on other portions the fences are not kept up, leaving old cellar-holes and miles of stone walls to testify to former civilization. Such lands can be purchased from one dollar to two dollars per acre." In other words, agricultural land in Vermont can be bought at the price of Government land in Washington Territory, or perhaps cheaper, for the same circular alludes to a rumor of "one farm of 200 acres which can be bought for $100, with fair buildings and good soil"; this in the town of Chelsea, Orange County.

In the town of Vershire, Orange County, the case is rather worse, for here, we are told, "there are from thirty-five to forty farms, contiguous or nearly so, abandoned and unoccupied. Many of these farms have a fair set of buildings on them, and others could be made comfortable with a small outlay." There was an encouraging telegram in the papers a few days since saying that twelve or fifteen families of Swedish immigrants had been engaged to settle in Vershire. "All of this land," says the circular, "was once occupied by thrifty and prosperous farmers."

The next town reported upon is Jamaica, Windham County, and here we quote the paragraph entire:

"A gentleman in Jamaica, Windham County, has compiled a list and description of farms in that town, from which is taken the following examples: (1.) A farm of 200 acres, fair buildings, good sugar orchard, plenty of wood and timber, has been one of the best in town, listed at $810. (2.) A farm of 135 acres, good buildings, sugar orchard, fruit orchards, in a good state of cultivation, listed at $700. (3.) Another of 90 acres, with good buildings, vacant only one year; timber enough on this farm to pay for it. (4.) Twenty-two acres listed at $225, with good buildings, vacant one year. (5.) Ninety-seven acres, good buildings, sugar and fruit orchard, listed at $700—a good farm. (6.) Ninety acres listed at $765; this is a good farm in a high state of cultivation—must be sold. (7.) One hundred and fifty-five acres, the finest location in town—has got to be sold. For further particulars write to F. L. Sprague, Jamaica."

It would seem probable that the prices at which these farms are offered cannot be much if any in excess of the cost of the improvements alone, in which case the land is virtually offered for nothing. Here is a prime chance for the disciples of Henry George, and it must not be supposed that they are confined to the town of Jamaica, for the circular goes on to say that in Essex County there are six townships containing 89,491 acres of land "on which there are probably, all told, not more than fifteen or twenty families." These are described as "good lands, lands that will make good productive farms, well watered, and with timber sufficient for home consumption, wanting nothing but the energy, the bone and muscle, to clear them up." In Newark, Caledonia County, twenty-five farms, only three miles from a railroad, can be bought for $3 to $4 per acre.

This is only a partial report on the unoccupied and abandoned farming lands in the State. It is known to the Commissioner that there are 5,000 acres of such lands in the town of Wilmington, although he is not able at present to furnish particulars concerning them.

Taken for all in all, this might be called a startling exhibit but for the fact that it can be matched in the other New England States. The state of agriculture in New Hampshire is no better. The most cursory observation to those who knew the landscape forty years ago, shows that extensive tracts of land in that State that were once dotted with farmhouses are now covered with young forest trees and brambles, the former signs of habitation being visible only to the antiquary.

To what are we to ascribe this relapse of a once prosperous district into neglect and decay? The only explanation offered by the Vermont Commissioner's circular is, that, "of the people who once occupied these farms, some have died, others have gone West and to the cities, and none have come to fill their places." But this cannot be considered an explanation, for it does not tell us *why* none have come to fill their places. That all persons die sooner or later, and that enterprising or discontented ones move to places where they think that their conditions will be bettered, is easily understood, but why in such a struggling world none have come to fill their places is something of a mystery. It is not sufficient to say that the agriculture of the West has crushed the agriculture of the East, unless the fertility of these Eastern farms has been exhausted, and this does not appear to be the case generally, although it may be so in a few exceptional cases. The difference in fertility ought to be compensated by the nearness to market of these New England farms. One thing is certain, the tariff has not saved the New England farmer. The life-long labors of Senator Morrill have ended in the ruin of agriculture in his own State; or, if they have not caused this ruin, they have not prevented it. If any prophet, in the year 1861, had drawn the picture of farming in Vermont which the Commissioner of Agricultural and Manufacturing Interests now sends out, and had said that such would be the outcome of a quarter of a century of protection, he would have been set down as stark mad. We do not undertake to say that all this desolation has been produced by the tariff, but we do say that the tariff works to such ends, since it provides that the farmer shall buy in a restricted market and sell in a free one.

EUROPEAN OPINION ON THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS.

THE State Department has been in receipt, according to the Washington correspondent of the *Herald*, of many extracts from foreign newspapers referring to the coming Congress of the Americas. These extracts express a good deal of concern and even alarm over the dire results for European trade which may come from Mr. Blaine's intention to persuade the South Americans to become our commercial vassals. There has undoubtedly been a display of uneasiness by many foreign journals in view of the approaching gathering. This has arisen in part from ignorance of South American aims and aspirations, only less gross than that common among us, and in part from a desire to stimulate foreign governments to watch the proceedings of the Conference with proper interest, while at the same time these expressions have served as friendly reminders to the Spanish American States themselves that they ought not rashly to break in upon their great settled routes of commerce. All this may readily be granted without at all admitting that the best economical opinion of Europe expects anything very important to result from the debates at Washington.

The *Indépendance Belge* of September 12 devotes a leader to the subject, and comes to the following conclusion:

"The International Congress will give itself to the study of the great questions submitted to it, and will report some sort of solution to the governments interested. Then it will be necessary for these solutions to be examined by the governments themselves, and to be the subject of negotiation between cabinet and cabinet before it will be possible to arrive at a final agreement; and this agreement, finally, before it can be put into effect, will have to secure the approval of all the legislative bodies concerned. It is clear, then, that the dream cherished by the North Americans is still a long way from its realization."

This, it will be observed, goes on the supposition that all will be clear sailing in the Congress itself, which is far from being likely. But if it should prove to be, it is undeniable that the Brussels newspaper is entirely right in saying that years must pass before anything practical can be effected.

An opinion which is even more authoritative and well considered is to be found in the September number of the German technical journal, *Stahl und Eisen*. It is mainly with the project of an American Zollverein that the writer of the article referred to concerns himself, and he certainly discusses it with intelligence and vigor. After showing that this new desire of ours for foreign trade

is a sign that our fiscal policy has broken down of its own weight, and protesting against the absurdity of supposing that we can get over the bad effects of it and of our "stupidity" in foreign commerce as a whole, by such a shift as the proposed customs union, he argues that if it took the small German States, with their common language, similar economic conditions, and homogeneous interests, three generations to mature their Zollverein, such a project can be consummated among the American countries, with their vast territories, differing speech, and conflicting interests, only after the lapse of such a time that no one now living need trouble himself about it. Shrewdly, if somewhat contemptuously, does the writer add:

"It is a characteristic of North Americans to undertake everything on a colossal scale. The immense development of their economic life has brought all regard and sense for the small and limited into contempt, and, as the Yankee can think of a scheme only as realized in gigantic extent, even the political ideas of all of them have been adjusted only to the colossal, the universal. . . . On the very immensity of their conception, the project of a customs union for all the Americas is likely to go to wreck. Meanwhile, in Germany, while expressing our thanks for the compliment to our industrial methods implied in this project, we may serenely wait to see if Uncle Sam will succeed in making trees grow in the sky by simply wishing to."

The leading organ of Spanish American interests published in this country, *Las Novedades*, recently referred to the alleged European terror at the coming machinations of Mr. Blaine, and said that it was grotesque, if not partly feigned. "The principal obstacle to the success of the Conference, we are almost tired of repeating," says this paper, which aims faithfully to reflect the prevailing opinions of South Americans, "is that in fact the North Americans do not really wish to extend their commercial relations with Spanish America, nor do they, if one looks closely, with any country on earth. At least they do not wish to adopt the necessary means to extend such relations." Most truthfully does it add, "The present Administration stands for the continuance of a commercial policy which simply cannot coexist with the ends aimed at in the Washington Conference." As if this were not enough, it asks the Europeans to have more confidence in the wisdom and patriotism of the Spanish American delegates. Is it possible, it asks, that such skilled statesmen as they are going to be deceived and ensnared? With an appreciation of the situation which will be more common hereabouts after a while than it is now, it concludes as follows:

"The countries of Latin America are sending to the Conference a body of distinguished and capable men animated by the most patriotic interest for their respective nations; this country is sending a few millionaires who are hidebound protectionists, and who have scarcely the ability to rise to the height of the discussions which ought to take place in a gathering of such great importance. This being so, who is likely to be the party taken in?"

It is hardly possible, then, that the economists of Europe are lying awake nights in dread of the Washington Congress. They know that we can trade with South America when we admit their wool and sugar and copper free, and not till then; and they probably do not expect the Administration to do what it was elected not to do. They know that the Mexican delegates are coming to the Congress smarting under the petty custom-house war into which Mr. Windom has precipitated them. They know that Chili looks upon the whole scheme with suspicion, and has expressed beforehand her unwillingness to discuss any measure which will affect her public policy. They know that the Argentine Republic is going to ask us outright for free wool, and will never dream of doing anything to imperil her immense European interests, even if we grant her free wool, which we will not. Knowing all these things, and having still some confidence in the validity of the laws of trade, they will imitate the German writer we have quoted, and wait to see our trees growing in the sky before they believe in them.

MEXICO AND THE CONGRESS.

THE news which comes by telegraph from the City of Mexico—that the object of our Minister's rapid journey to Washington is in order orally to acquaint the State Department with the condition of mind into which the toleration by Secretary Windom, and his rerating Treasury *entourage*, of the urgency of a clique which demanded a customs tax to be levied, in violation of law, by Treasury order, on Mexican silver ore, has thrown President Diaz—was not unexpected by those seeing an inch or two before their noses and capable of making correct inferences from what they see. Our Minister to Mexico probably perceives that this Tichenor-Hepburn customs rerating will, unless stopped, like the Tanner pension rerating, play havoc with the coming American Congress in which Mexico, Brazil, Peru, and the Argentine Republic will have a very influential part.

The tax-ridden condition of the republic of Mexico and its twenty-seven States ought to satisfy, and probably does satisfy, the taxing ideals of the most pyramidal among the protectionists (including Mr. Bliss of this city) whom Harrison and Blaine have asked to be our delegates to the October conference of the Governments of the Three Americas. Mexico inherited, and never has rid herself of, the mediæval system of taxation which Spain put upon that country when a Spanish colony. It is based on the protectionist plea that a man can be enriched by delivering over to the Government a goodly portion of his property, in the form of taxes, either to maintain the Government, or for the benefit of privileged individuals who are tax-eaters and tariff-beneficiaries. Probably Harrison, Bliss, Studebaker, and Carnegie of the Harrison-Blaine delegates to the Congress believe the same thing. Mexicans are taxed right and left—taxed by the Republic and taxed again externally and internally by the State or province in which they live. The taxes are not only protective, but, as on certain articles of food, are prohibitory. If one looks back through the volumes of our "Foreign Relations," he finds never-ending spats between Washington and the City of Mexico about customs taxes. Taxing is an important industry in Mexico, as it is among us. A few years after our war with Mexico came to an end, that country found smuggling, depopulation, and decay so general on its border adjoining us, that she established a "free zone"—a happy Delos—where no customs taxes should be levied. It was a sort of outdoor bonded warehouse, where imports from us were untaxed if used in the free zone or if remaining there, but, if carried outside into any Mexican State, then the taxes began in earnest. In 1858 Tamaulipas established such a free zone, where Federal customs taxes could not be levied. At that date the Guthrie Democratic tariff of 1857 was in force in our country. Among the reasons assigned by the Governor of Tamaulipas for his decree establishing the free zone were these: "Whereas, The towns on our northern frontier are in a state of actual decadence, owing to the want of laws to protect their trade; and whereas, being situated in close proximity to a commercial nation *which enjoys free trade*, they need similar advantage in order to avoid losing their population, which is constantly emigrating to the neighboring country, now, therefore, desiring to arrest this serious evil by means of franchises which have so long been demanded by the frontier trade ——."

The ideas of free trade entertained by the Mexican Governor were rather confused, but subsequent protective tariffs of ours have so operated that the free zone has been extended to Coahuila, Chihuahua, Sonora, Lower California, and to a distance of twenty kilometres from the boundary line. Within that zone foreign merchandise can, as we have said, be received and kept, or consumed, without paying any customs tax. Thus in a part of Mexico there is perfect free trade, permitted and established to prevent decay in that portion of the country, and to prevent the population from departing to the United States, where, severe as our taxes are, the taxes are not so severe as in Mexico outside of the free zone. The application to such a condition of affairs of a customs union between ourselves, Mexico, all South and Central America, including Hayti, will require delicate work.

We have had a recent example of the spatting about taxes which goes on incessantly between the City of Mexico and Washington. Our Treasury stupidly started the new spat by listening, in a silly way, to those who wished a customs tax to be levied by Treasury order on silver ore. Mexico then retaliated by a discriminating tax on merchandise arriving in our vessels, and our Custom-house rejoined by an additional tax on what came in Mexican vessels. Our law is mandatory. It says (section 2502 R. S.) that "a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem in addition to the duties imposed by law shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise which shall be imported on vessels not of the United States; but this discriminating duty shall not apply to goods, wares, and merchandise which shall be imported in vessels not of the United States entitled by treaty, or by any act of Congress, to be entered in the ports of

the United States, on payment of the same duties as shall then be paid on goods, wares, and merchandise imported in vessels of the United States."

Secretary Windom has been so occupied with the "spoils" that he, poor man, has had no time to study the customs laws, and so in July last he signed a letter denying the existence of such a law. Col. Tichenor and Capt. Macgregor were probably absent. What in tariff matters would become of the Administration were anything serious to befall both the Colonel and the Captain? But all that will not be so serious a matter for our delegates in the Conference to deal with as will the refusal by our Congress so to legislate as to carry out the stipulations of the Grant-Trescot treaty with Mexico. Mr. Trescot is now said to be charged, among other matters, with supervision of preparations to receive and confer with the delegates to the approaching Congress. Ex-President Grant successfully used his great prestige and popularity in Mexico to get a treaty by which Mexico abandoned relatively a great deal more of her protective system than we did of our own. The treaty slipped through the Senate, but came to grief in the House, chiefly on account of what it did about sugar, the production of which was, of course, decaying in Mexico like the production of everything else under such a mediæval system of taxation outside of the free zone. What will Harrison and Blaine direct their delegates in the Conference to say of that episode? As Congress has thus far refused to execute that solemn treaty negotiated by ex-President Grant, what can we say when South and Central America ask questions about the ability and willingness of Congress to carry out arrangements touching customs taxes or silver coinage agreed to by our delegates in the Conference? The letter of instructions from Harrison and Blaine to our six Republican protectionist and our four Democratic protectionist delegates to the American Conference will be an interesting document. Of course, those delegates are not to be permitted by the President to speak and vote as they please, but as Mr. Blaine tells Mr. Trescot to insist. Congress intended that the President should keep perfect watch and control over the mouths of our ten delegates to the Conference. It is the Emperor of Brazil and the Presidents of the several republics who are conferring through their agents.

STATE AND FEDERAL JURISDICTION IN MARITIME LAW.

In a recent pamphlet, Mr. R. C. McMurtrie, a distinguished lawyer of Philadelphia, discusses "The Legislative Jurisdiction of the Maritime Law of the United States." The Constitution extends the judicial power of the Federal courts to "all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction." It also confers upon Congress the power "to define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations." But it nowhere expressly confers upon Congress the power to define or to create a code of maritime law for civil causes. The framers of the Constitution evidently intended to adopt the general maritime law, as known and accepted in this country, with modifications, at the time the Constitution went into effect; in that case it would be the duty of the Federal courts, and not of Congress, to ascertain and interpret the law. Yet it could not have been contemplated, say the Supreme Court, in the case of the *Lottawana*, 21 Wallace, 558, "that the law should remain for ever unalterable"; and, in recent cases, that Court has repeatedly intimated that Congress was the proper body to make any needed changes in the law. Congress, however, has confined its legislation upon this subject mainly within the limits of its power, conferred by the Constitution, to regulate commerce. But commercial regulations do not cover the whole field of maritime law, and the result is that, in the absence of Congressional legislation, State legislation has taken possession of the vacant ground.

In the pamphlet under discussion, Mr. McMurtrie criticises this state of things, and points out certain inconsistencies and even dangers of the present system. "Can there be anything," he asks, "more undesirable than to subject such property as ships to the ever-varying law or legislation of the separate States, as respects property, duties, and liabilities?" The case most severely criticised by Mr. McMurtrie is that of Crapo vs. Kelly, 16 Wallace, 610, where, in order to sustain the validity of an assignment, by operation of law in Massachusetts, of a ship on the high seas, the Supreme Court could find no better ground for their decision than the absurd, if not exploded, doctrine of the "territoriality of merchant ships." The ship, said Mr. Justice Hunt, is a portion of the territory of Massachusetts, and the laws of that State follow her upon the ocean, thus implying that the States individually may have their own maritime law. Such was, in fact, the interpretation of this decision by the New York courts in the subsequent case of McDonald vs. Mallory. It is not difficult to foresee the endless conflicts and confusion which would arise if this theory of maritime law were to prevail.

Again, the rule of the common law, as well as of the maritime law, is that personal actions for injuries do not survive the death of the person injured; but England and many of our States have by statutes given a right of action to certain surviving relatives of the deceased. And the question has arisen whether, when death is caused upon a ship on the high seas, these State statutes may be enforced in the admiralty courts by an action *in rem* against the ship. The Supreme Court refrained from deciding this point in its judgment in the case of the *Harrisburg*, 119 United States, 214. In the somewhat analogous case of State statutes which give to material-men a maritime lien for repairs and supplies on domestic vessels in their home ports, the admiralty courts, under the twelfth rule, regularly enforce these liens.

In many cases, such as the two last mentioned, for instance, it would be a comparatively simple matter, if thought advisable, for Congress to create a uniform rule. But we must recognize the difficulty of making any sweeping and absolute division of the legislative jurisdiction between Federal and State governments in the field of maritime law. Congress has advisedly left many things to State control which are undoubtedly maritime questions. The Supreme Court say, in 93 United States, 99, that, in giving Congress the power to regulate commerce, "it was never intended to cut the States off from legislation on all subjects relating to the health, life, and safety of their citizens, though the legislation might indirectly affect the commerce of the country." So in the case of ships, regarded as mere property, they must be to a considerable extent under the control of State laws, although they are also instruments of commerce.

Mr. McMurtrie contends, however, that the test of the right to legislate about matters concerning the high seas should not be the power to regulate commerce, but rather, as Chief-Justice Waite declared in 102 United States, 541, the fact that "navigation on the high seas is necessarily national in its character—a matter of external concern, affecting the nation as a nation in its external affairs. It must, therefore, be subject to the national Government." Mr. McMurtrie finds in article i., section 8, clause 18 of the Constitution a sufficient grant of power to Congress to warrant that body in making its jurisdiction exclusive over maritime law. That Congress has such power will hardly be disputed at the present day; but to what extent it should be exercised may still be a question about which opinions would differ. That there is need of some legislation by Congress is pretty evident, and Mr. McMurtrie's essay is a timely discussion of the subject.

THE PARIS MONETARY CONFERENCE.

The fourth International Monetary Conference opened its sessions in that city on the 11th of September and closed them on the 15th. Unlike the three previous ones of 1867, 1878, and 1881, governments had nothing to do with it. Like all of the others, however, this one came to nothing. It is, we observe, the common criticism of the English press upon the Conference that its discussions were of an academic character entirely—that it did not deal with the subject in a practical way. But, bless us, how can we deal with a subject in a practical way until we have settled the points academically? Once upon a time a Caliph of Bagdad, who was fond of story-telling, offered to give his daughter and the succession to the throne to anybody who would tell a story that should have no end; but if the contestants for the prize failed of the condition, they were to be put to death. After many applicants had tried and failed and been despatched, a candidate came and began to tell how a great king of a distant country, in order to avert a famine, built a granary as large as a mountain and filled it with corn, leaving a small hole on one side for ventilation, and how a flock of locusts that darkened the heavens found this aperture. "And then a locust," he

said, "carried away a grain of corn; and then another locust carried away another grain of corn; and then another locust carried away another grain of corn; and then——" "But what," asked the Caliph, "happened after the locusts carried away all the corn?" "Oh, we can't tell the end of the story till we get there," replied the narrator; "and then another locust carried away another grain of corn," and so on. It is related that after a couple of weeks' steady repetition of this sing-song the Caliph, fearing that he might go crazy, gave up the contest and his daughter. So, too, must we know exactly what the basis of bimetallism is, and what we have been striving for, more than ten years, and are still striving for, before we tell how to do it. Time and frequent international conferences are still necessary to determine precisely how bimetallism would work. This is to be ascertained by voting, and each nation having a separate government should be entitled to one vote.

The first thing that strikes us as noteworthy is, that France did not "show up" in this Conference on the side of bimetallism as she did in that of 1881. In the second day's proceedings M. Fournir d' Elaix, a journalist of repute, said that "while formerly France was earnestly desirous of the re-establishment of bimetallism, yet in the period which had intervened she had other interests which had grown up, and which had made her less anxious for such a consummation." This announcement was certainly sustained by the number and character of the French economists who addressed the Conference, Messrs. Gustave Du Puynode, Frédéric Passy, E. Levasseur, and Clément Juglar, all well known in other lands by their writings, appearing successively on the platform in opposition to bimetallism. On the other side the only French names of note were those of Cernuschi and Magnin, the latter President of the Bank of France, who, whatever else may be said of them, are not known to economists in other countries as masters of the science.

England sent two gentlemen in a quasi-representative capacity, Mr. Fremantle, Deputy Master of the Mint, and Mr. Murray, Secretary of the late Gold and Silver Commission, both being instructed not to commit their country to anything. And this instruction was followed to the letter, for their names scarcely appear in the published proceedings. Mr. Grenfell and Prof. Foxwell (of University College, London) appeared as volunteer representatives from England, and the latter made a speech, the value of which may be judged from the following extract:

> "Mill's treatment of bimetallism amounted to little short of a burlesque of the question; Jevons, whose admiration of the French economists was unbounded, first learned to understand bimetallism from Wolowsky, and he had completely superseded Mill in England. It was not without significance that all his disciples were bimetallists, at least so far as theory was concerned, though some of them might have doubts on political grounds or on the question of ratio."

The last thing that Jevons ever wrote on bimetallism was a letter to the American Social-Science Association, in which he advised strongly that this country should have nothing to do with silver except for subsidiary coins. The letter was distinctly opposed to the contentions of the bimetallists, and there is no reason to suppose that he ever differed from Mill in point of principle on this question. The differences of opinion as to "the question of ratio," which Prof. Foxwell alludes to as a trivial matter and a thing to be distinguished from "theory," is the rock upon which bimetallism is always splitting and always will split. The conferences of 1878 and 1881 would have split on it if they had not split before they reached it. The same may be said of the British Gold and Silver Commission. They, too, split just before they reached it, but the bimetallists on the Commission recognized its dangerous character by refusing to consider it.

Mr. Dana Horton held up the American end of the Conference, as creditably, no doubt, as any bimetallist could. Germany was represented by Herr Koch, who stands for international bimetallism in his own country in much the same way that Mr. Horton does here—that is, in a rather lonesome way. The Conference closed with an offer, on the part of M. Cernuschi, of a prize of $2,000 for the best essay in favor of international bimetallism, to which Mr. Meysey-Thompson, an Englishman, added $500. We hope that our friend Dana Horton may get this prize, for we feel sure that will be the only practical result of the meeting.

ANAHEIM, RIVERSIDE, SAN DIEGO.—II.

PORTLAND, Ore., September, 1889.

ALTHOUGH San Diego has no lack of hotels, most of the tourists cross the bay which separates the city from the thirteen-mile-long peninsula known as Coronado Beach, and take up their abode in the Coronado hotel, covering more than seven acres—the largest in Southern California, and second in size and elegance only to the Del Monte at Monterey. Porpoises sport about the ferryboat, almost within arm's reach, and excite the appetite for seafishing. On the peninsula a steam-dummy connects with the ferry and conveys those passengers for whom the coaches are too slow, to the hotel. Coronado affords an excellent instance of what can be done in this region with irrigation. A few years ago this whole peninsula was a desert, while now there are numerous villas and stores, and good roads, and avenues of young trees, which in a few years will afford welcome shade. The hotel is surrounded by flower-beds as monstrous in proportion as itself, crowded with enormous double stocks, petunias, large pansies, marguerites, etc., etc.; and another superb flower-garden takes up the interior court. Dining-room, parlors, and dance-hall are sufficiently spacious for all emergencies, and simply though tastefully decorated. It may seem a disadvantage that, owing to the position of the dance-hall, there are few rooms facing the ocean, but as it is always cool here, day and night, summer and winter, the site of rooms is not so important a matter as on the Atlantic Coast. No other part of California has so perfect a climate as Coronado and San Diego, the mean difference in temperature between summer and winter being only 12 3°, with an average of only 5 days a year when the thermometer rises above 85°, and, what is still more remarkable, only 12 days a year when it rises above 80°. As only 10 inches of rain fall in a year—just 100 inches less than at Sitka, the other extremity of our Pacific Coast—and clouds or fogs of more than a few hours' duration are rare, it may be inferred that the sun shines almost perpetually, even in winter. When an invalid who proposes to make the Coronado his home for awhile reads in the "rules and regulations" pasted upon his door that a single fire costs a dollar, he is relieved to be told that cold weather is as scarce as fuel, and that, according to official Government records, during the ten years from 1876 to 1885, there were only six days on which the temperature fell below 35°, two on which it fell to 32°, and none below that point! I had also read somewhere that mud is practically unknown, since the little rain that falls sinks into the soil immediately, so that it is safe to lie on the ground a few hours after a shower. I was therefore surprised, on picking up a local news paper, to see an editorial headed "Too Much Mud." But on examination it proved to be a political, not a meteorological article. On politics climate has no effect.

The Coronado beach is well adapted to bathing, which is indulged in all the year round, there being only about six degrees difference in the temperature of the water, winter and summer. When the ocean is too rough, or the tide unfavorable, the bay affords a safe bathing-ground, as at Fire Island. That the ocean is rough sometimes is evinced by the sad havoc it has made with the plank walks between the hotel and the water, and, as at Coney Island, it seems to be encroaching on the hotel premises, and will soon thunder against its very foundations. It is interesting to walk along the beach towards Point Loma, on which a lighthouse is picturesquely situated. Entertainment is afforded on the way by the waterfowl, which stand inside of the breakers waiting for a big foaming wave, into which they plunge headlong, emerging calmly swimming on the other side with a fish struggling in the beak. Twenty miles at sea, to the southwest, are the Coronado Islands, the haunt of seals, occasionally visited by yachting parties. There is always something that appeals to the imagination in the meeting of two countries, and the fact that these islands belong to Mexico makes them doubly interesting.

Twice a week or oftener opportunity is given the guests at the Coronado to put foot on Mexican soil. A steam dummy, with open cars, starts from the hotel, goes down the peninsula and up on the other side of the bay, as far as National City, and then branches off, first to the great Sweet Water Reservoir, and then to Tia Juana. It would be difficult to imagine a more delightful excursion than this seventy-mile round-trip in open cars. The cool, fragrant air is free from dust, and the country is so picturesque that one keeps on choosing one place after another as an ideal site for a cottage and an orange grove. On reaching the Sweet Water Reservoir, which covers 700 acres, it is difficult to believe that it is not a natural lake, so prettily and cosily does it rest at the foot of the surrounding hills. Yet here, where now the wild ducks disport themselves, stood several farm-houses a year ago, surrounded by green fields. The dam which created this lake is about 400 feet long at the top and 46 feet thick at the base, built of solid rock; and the reservoir holds six billion gallons, sufficient to supply National City and San Diego with water for consumption and irrigation for three years, though not another drop of rain should add to its volume. A flume seven miles in length carries the water to the two cities, which now, with abundant and cheap water, can correct their arid, treeless appearance, which at present is their least attractive feature.

After visiting Sweet Water Lake, the train faces about and turns towards old "Aunt Jane," or Tia Juana, in Mexico, passing through the town of Chula Vista, a characteristic Southern Californian enterprise. A tract of 5,000 acres has been subdivided by a land company into five-acre lots, with avenues and wide streets through which the steam motor passes, and ornamented with thousands of evergreen trees. These lots are sold only to purchasers who will agree to build on them houses costing not less than $2,000, within six months from date of purchase; and by way of providing models and starting the ball, the company itself has erected a number of cottages. Such an attempt to force a town by hot-house methods would fail anywhere else; here it will probably succeed. Every time the train stops, a handful of real-estate circulars is thrown into each car, setting forth the unique advantages of that particular locality; while the fine appearance of the residences, with their lovely gardens and orchards, contributes its share towards advertising the region. For the convenience of the scattered settlers, the train-boy throws the daily papers into the yards from the flying train. Near the boundary line are some yellow pools, in one of which a water-snake darted out its angry tongue at a whole carload of tourists and then dived out of sight. A few minutes more, and we were on Mexican soil, and although sufficient of the Mexican element lingers in Southern California to form a gradual transition, the change is distinctly perceptible. Characteristically enough, the first thing I saw after leaving the train was a young burro, with silky hair and no larger than a Newfoundland dog. In Spanish countries, where the railroad ceases the donkey begins. One side of Tia Juana is American, the other Mexican. The dividing-line, where the Estados Unidos meet Mexico, is occupied by a restaurant which bears the modest title of "Delmonico." Opposite is a cigar-store which has the suggestive sign of "The Last Chance." There are more saloons in Tia Juana than buildings. This may seem a paradoxical statement, but it is true, for some of the saloons are in tents, open in front, with a counter in the centre and empty beer-barrels for seats. The sight of the town is the Custom-house, with its polite but pistolled officials, and the rooms filled with rifles which parties crossing the line had to leave behind to await their return. There are also a few curiosity stores, conducted with a true Spanish lack of enterprise. Almost every tourist wants to buy a memento of his hour in Mexico, but there is nothing to be had except some very crude pottery and a few tiny hideous clay gods. Nor does the proprietor's knowledge of English go beyond the ability to say twenty cents or thirty cents.

Looking beyond Tia Juana, nothing is to be seen but lone, low mountains—not a house or hut anywhere—and we gladly return to civilization with the train. On the way back, the conductor pointed out to me the place where the famous Bonnie Brae lemons are grown. I had previously eaten some at San Diego, and found them large and juicy, with fewer seeds and a much less thick and coarse skin than other California lemons. This variety seems destined to retrieve the reputation of the California lemon, which is not equal to that of the orange, or of foreign lemons. But I doubt if any kind of lemon will have much of a future in this country. At San Francisco lemons are not valued nearly so highly as Mexican limes, which are gradually taking their place. The lime has a tougher skin than the lemon, and does not break so easily in the squeezer. In fact, it can be easily squeezed by hand; and besides, there is more juice in a small lime than in a lemon twice its size and twice or three times its cost. Its taste, after a few trials, is more agreeable and piquant than that of any lemon, and I believe that Eastern cities will soon follow the lead of San Francisco in this matter. The lemonade of the future will be made of limes.

HENRY T. FINCK.

THE ENGLISH ART CONGRESS — A WARNING TO AMERICANS.

LONDON, September 9, 1889.

NOT quite a year ago the first English Art Congress was held at Liverpool. Since then, many of the speeches made on that occasion have been carefully revised by the artists who delivered them, and collected together in a volume lately published, called 'Transactions of the Association for the Advancement of Art and its Application to Industry.' From it one realizes the drift of the Liverpool meeting far better than one did at the time from the more or less lengthy newspaper reports. As it is proposed to hold very much the same sort of annual Art Congress in the United States, it might be well to call the attention of Americans interested in the movement to this volume.* It will serve, however, less as a model to follow than as a model to avoid. It curiously illustrates the tendency of the Englishman to seek in art everything but art itself. The Congress, with as much truth, could have been called social or moral, religious or economic. Of course this does not apply to all the speeches; there were artists present who did not mistake themselves to be moralists or social reformers. Men like Sir Frederick Leighton and Mr. Alma-Tadema, if they said nothing specially original or contributed no very promising solution to the problem under discussion, at least understood that they had met together to talk about their own profession, and not to pronounce upon subjects usually confined to the pulpit or political platform. But the general tendency of the Congress was towards that establishment of art upon a moral and social foundation of which Mr. Ruskin is the prophet; and several of the speeches illustrate most admirably the absurdities and contradictions, the cant and mental blindness, to which advocacy of the morality, sanctity, and social and economic value of art seems inevitably to lead.

The Congress opened with a sermon by Archdeacon Farrar, which gives the keynote to the proceedings that followed. He intends to speak, he at once announces, "of the sacredness and the functions of art; of art which is no mere amusement for the idle or ostentatious, for the luxurious, but in past ages has been, and still is, a consummate teacher of mankind. And let me say at the outset that I look on all true and worthy art as a thing *essentially* sacred." One would have been more impressed by this profession of faith had he not given his reasons for it. "True art," he explains, "comes from the spirit of God. It is the outcome of an exquisite faculty which, like 'every good gift, and every perfect gift, cometh down from above, from that Father of Lights with whom is no variableness or shadow of turning.'" The same argument, however, could with equal force be used to prove the sacredness of agriculture or engineering, of medicine or chemistry. One need not question his premises, but his conclusion is only another way of saying that art, essentially, does not differ from all other outcomes of human faculties, since like them it is to be attributed to a divine source. It has just that degree of sanctity which the devout Christian attaches to all the works of God.

Art, however, according to the Archdeacon, is sacred not solely because of its origin, but because of its aim, because of its striving after the ideal. But how is sanctity expressed in the creations of the world's greatest painters and sculptors? What was the ideal of the men whose marbles fill the Vatican Gallery, of Titian when he painted his "Sacred and Profane Love," of Rembrandt when he conceived his "Night-Watch," of Velasquez when at work upon the portrait of Philip? When this talk about the ennobling ideal of the artist is confronted with the actual facts, its shallowness becomes so apparent that it is waste of time to stop to point it out. Still a third reason is found for the sanctity of art—"It is sacred also as the expression of human feeling." I wonder if the Archdeacon realized quite what he was saying. Would he call Swinburne's 'Laus Veneris' sacred because it was the expression of the poet's feeling? And yet how often has the very same feeling which inspired Swinburne been expressed in art. It is all very well to bring forward Fra Angelico as a shining light; but what about the Fra Lippos? And even though one admires "the radiant and love-compelling serenity of Raphael," can one forget that his mistress served over and over again for the Madonnas which were to enkindle the fervor of the faithful? And in the Uffizi was the Archdeacon conscious only of "the stern, sad spirit" of Michael Angelo? And has he never read the life of Turner, that it does not occur to him the Ruskin-made painter would have done better to look after his own conscience before attempting to educate that of the nation?

Such reasoning is so childish one would pass it over in silence, were it not for the influence it exerts on the many, and for the seriousness with which it is accepted by an association formed for the interests of art. These will be served far better when it is honestly admitted that art is without "intrinsic sacredness"; that while at times it has been made use of for religious and moral ends, it is not for that reason moral or religious in itself; and that a man, because he can paint, is not therefore necessarily holier or purer than other men, or above commercial considerations. I have not space to analyze in detail Archdeacon Farrar's illustrations of the noble and idealizing functions of art. In much of what he says he is but a weak echo of Ruskin, while he proves Mr. Hamerton's assertion that the Englishman cannot understand a pursuit which lies outside of morals. To what lengths the Ruskin-taught are carried is shown by his summing-up, which is curious enough when one remembers it comes from a minister of the church which was among the first to protest forcibly against what he calls Christian art:

"What the old Greek passion for Art lost by sensuousness, Christian Art gives back to us bathed in heaven; not only showing us the beauty, and the wonder, and the power, the shapes of things, their colors, lights and shades, changes, surprises—and God made it all—but revealing to us something of the grandeur of our own nature, and of that Eternal Home where He, for whose second coming we yearn, whose Incarnation we soon shall once more celebrate, has taken the Form of Man into the very midst of the great White Throne of God."

But while Archdeacon Farrar dwells upon the sanctifying mission of art, there are others who can consider it only in its economic and social relations, and of these William Morris and his eccentric satellite Walter Crane are the leaders. Very conscious of the present degeneracy of art in England, they are equally

* See the review in the *Nation*, No. 1261.

convinced of the means by which the evil is to be remedied. Walter Crane unhesitatingly declares that there can be no improvement until an economic change is brought about, and until the craftsman is given full credit for his work. But, with all his talents, Mr. Crane has not been blessed with that of graceful, simple speech, and he is too preoccupied in the making of similes to bother about the clearness of his economic arguments; while, as for the craftsman working the better because his name is known, one can but be a little sceptical when one remembers the artisans of the East, or the men who filled the niches and covered with beauty of leaf and flower the columns and capitals of many an English church. "Do not let us deceive ourselves," he concludes, "or expect to gather the grapes of artistic or industrial prosperity from economic thorns, or æsthetic figs from commercial thistles." But are these thorns and thistles wholly a latter-day product? "Unless your artist and craftsman has personal freedom, leisure, and cultivation, and continued access to the beauty of both art and nature, you will get neither vigorous design nor good craftsmanship." Unless the millennium come, art will perish for ever. But for how many ages have men waited for the millennium, and yet how much good work has been given to the world!

William Morris, who is a poet, and has, moreover, the gift of vigorous speech, can afford to say what he means without ornament or flowers of rhetoric. There is no mistaking what he believes ought to be done. This is no time for artists to think of art; the recasting of society is the work now appointed them. Let them realize the life of drudgery which is the lot of all but a few in our civilization, though, indeed, it is only possible to be realized by experience or strong imagination; let them rebel against the great intangible machine of commercial tyranny which oppresses the lives of all of us; let them strive towards the conscious reconstruction of society on a basis of equality; in a word, let them close their studios, and, exchanging the garb of slaves for a blue-flannel shirt, and waving the red flag of liberty, follow William Morris to Hyde Park, to talk red-hot anarchy to the hangers-on of the Hammersmith Socialist League. Or else—is there not a touch of humor in this alternative?—let them take an active interest in, and do all they can to contribute to, the prosperity of "the small and unpretentious society," called the Arts and Crafts, of which Mr. Morris is a conspicuous member.

The objection to the first course of action which at once presents itself is, that, in its greatest days, art adapted itself to social conditions, no matter how cruel they might be, instead of undertaking their reform. Mr. Morris, who is as prejudiced in his artistic as in his socialistic creed, teaches that good work began and ended in the fourteenth century, though a little is still produced to-day by a small saving remnant, of whom Morris & Company are the high priests. But men of broader faith believe that art was not born and did not perish with the craft guilds which he holds up as models, and that craftsmen, whether slaves of the pagan or the Christian world, of the East or West, did the work which was given them to do as well as they knew how, and did not throw the responsibility of their own artistic shortcomings upon the tyrants who ruled over them. Artists and craftsmen may be more comfortable under a society of equals, but social equality is not the first requisite for good art, and to the truth of this long ages bear testimony. As for the Arts and Crafts Society, it is little more than a year old, and has yet to justify the promises Mr. Morris makes in its name.

But more extraordinary than this preaching that an artist, to do good work, must first become an active Socialist, are the vain and egotistic utterances of Mr. T. G. Cobden-Sanderson. Mr. Sanderson is a socialistic book-binder, and the husband of a rich wife. I do not hesitate to be thus personal, because he is entirely so himself. He too, like Mr. Crane and Mr. Morris, looks only beyond art for the regeneration of the artist, whose true aim is "the making of the greatest work of art ever yet dreamed of by man, the creation of a world-wide human society, based upon industrialism, properly directed and properly shared, having for its sweet flowerage beauty, and endowed with all the moral and social energies requisite for its construction and for its maintenance." Two or three pages are filled with this socialistic rhapsodizing and fine writing. But it is the supreme egotism of the man and his sentimental conception of his trade which make his speech at the Congress noteworthy. With him book-binding is homage, the "tribute of the binder to the author; and if it has no meaning, if it say nothing new, original, or fresh, nothing straight from the mind of the binder to the author, the elaboration of the ornament is the measure of its failure. In these days there is elaboration only, and no meaning." The binding of the ordinary book-binder is not homage, because the wretched creature is a slave who toils ten hours a day for a weekly wage, who has not time to read the books he binds, and who works, not from his own inspiration, but always in obedience to orders. But look at me, exclaims Mr. Sanderson in his pride. I am not a slave. "I bind only such books as I think deserve to be bound, and only in such ways as my own judgment determines. . . . And if the public will not pay my price, they can go without my binding, which, sold or unsold, will live, the thing of use, and, peradventure, also the thing of beauty, that, in my striving for the writer's sake, I would fain have made it to be. To do the work is my main object, not to sell it." And why? Because, like so many English Socialists, Mr. Sanderson has plenty of money; because, as he puts it, he is not dependent upon his book-binding, but upon the labors of others. And he tells the unfortunate book-binder who has not married a rich wife: "In so far as I am free, it *is* well for me, and well for the public; and this fact is to be brought into prominence and contrasted with your own state of slavery—for slavery, and of the meanest kind, it is." And the funny part of it all is, that there are people who say that this free book-binder's books cannot be opened without the back giving away. This, however, is a mere detail, to be passed over so long as "homage" is rendered.

But, speaking seriously, if this is the way artists and craftsmen and art teachers talk, is it any wonder that the great British public is, as Sir Frederick Leighton affirms, inartistic? It may be thought that such nonsense is not worth even criticism, and that it would be wiser to dwell on the common-sense speeches of such men as Alfred Gilbert and Francis Bate, the latter of whom, surrounded by Royal Academicians, did not hesitate to speak many hard, plain truths about the Royal Academy. But common sense was the least conspicuous feature of a congress made up of faddists who seize every opportunity to flourish their fads, of successful speculators honored because of their picture-buying powers, of egotists, like Holman Hunt, who saw no better use for a meeting for the advancement of art than the airing of his personal grievances and his very easily understood hatred of French art and, in fact, of all art but his own. If an Art Congress is held at home, do let it prove itself what it professes to be—a meeting of artists, managed by artists, who have come together to talk about art, and not to bore an unoffending public with sentimental moralizing and impossible social theories. Or else let it be honest, and call itself a social, political, economic, or religious experience meeting, as free from the presence of leading artists as will be this year's second so-called English Art Congress, to be held in Edinburgh.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

VIII.—PICTURES EXHIBITED BY FOREIGN NATIONS.

PARIS, August 21, 1889.

THE influence of the French is very strongly marked in the foreign sections; and in all of the Continental schools, with few exceptions, the best painters are either those who live in Paris or those whose work bears the unmistakable stamp of French training. In the case of painters who have gone back to their own countries, carrying with them a more or less thorough training in the Paris studios, it is common to find that they have deteriorated from the Paris standard, and again that, receiving the influence of a new movement in Paris—like the impressionist, for example—it is exaggerated in their application of it, and the turn it has taken in some instances is curious enough.

It is only in Great Britain that I find a school of painting which has a distinct national individuality, and it should be said of this one that it can hardly be called a school of painting at all. Painting, as it is practised in Great Britain, is, in general, so far removed from what is meant by the word as we use it in speaking of the old masters, or of the modern French school and its imitators, that it will be necessary, when we come to consider British art, to look at it in quite another way if we are to find good in it. In Norway and Sweden I find a certain originality which springs from the commendable habit the Scandinavian painters have of finding their subjects in the life at home; and such originality, with a decided touch of individuality in technique, is noticeable in the section of the United States in some of the works sent here by the home artists.

Manner and method in painting are more closely allied to those of the French school by the Belgians than by any other painters. In passing from the French exhibition to the Belgian galleries, there is little to denote that we are looking at the art of another country. There is a falling off in the average excellence of the work, however, and most of it is little more than French painting done by less clever men than those who work in Paris. Wauters, the author of nearly a dozen portraits, comes forward out of the mass with a style and method that are not quite French, and that are very good in their way; Jan Verhas, with the "Review of the School-Children at Brussels," and two large figure pieces with backgrounds of Belgian sea-shore towns, strikes a local note; and, in the landscapes by Courtens and Verstraete, and the pictures of out-door life by Claus, there is distinctively national character. Some weird-looking pictures by Fernand Khnopff—young ladies in æsthetic gowns, "A Fosset," and an incomprehensible composition of a nude female figure, a great pillar and a crucifix, all placed in a wide expanse of gray-

ish-colored water, "A Beguiling"—betray the influence of a visit to London. The peculiar methods of Jan Van Beers are set forth in fourteen little canvases; and by Alfred Stevens, Parisian by talent and long residence, there are seventeen pictures. "The Visit," "The Lady Bird," and "Chez Soi" are the best of these. In "Before the Stormy Seas," "Lady Macbeth," "Madeleine," and others, I can see little more than the decadence of one of the cleverest of the painters of the day.

In the Italian section there is really very little to note except Boldini's portraits, which are charming. Unfortunately, there are none of those delightful little pictures we are accustomed to see from time to time in New York; and so one side, and the most interesting side, too, of the exquisite art of Boldini is unrepresented. There are some pretty little landscapes by Rossano, and four pictures by Segantini, including a "Virgin and Child," which are without doubt the most curious productions (technically considered) to be found in the entire Exhibition. Some colossal canvases signed by Correlli and Simoni show conclusively that there are *Salonniers* in Rome as well as in Paris; but it is scarcely possible to find anything in the French exhibition so devoid of serious qualities as these.

But it is among the Spanish painters in the Champ de Mars that we find the love for a big canvas and a grandiose subject most prevalent. There are some here that are at least thirty feet long, and, to tell the truth, not a square inch of good painting in any part of them. There is better work of the same kind, indeed a very good sort of Salon picture, in "The Bell of Huesca," by Casado del Alisal. It is a gloomy canvas, low in tone, and is filled with dead bodies and blood and men's heads. It is almost well enough painted to excuse the horrible subject. Another picture of the Salon order is "A Hospital Ward," by Luis Jiminez, resembling one in the French exhibition, "Doctor Péan," by Gervex, but not nearly so good. Domingo does not appear to advantage in the collection of his works here, and the same may be said of Escosura. Jiminez Aranda, whose subjects are akin to theirs, is much better. Madrazo is represented by eight portraits. They are not such as will add to his fame. Much the best things in the Spanish galleries are the pictures by Rico. There are seven of them, all characteristic and one especially interesting from the subject, "View of Paris from the Trocadéro," a sunlight effect painted with all of Rico's cleverness.

There are some excellent pictures in the galleries occupied by the Austro-Hungarian painters. There are four by Pettenkofen, pictures of horses, that are complete and well-painted, and seven by Othon de Thoren, one of which, "Work," a picture of a ploughman with his horses in a field, is remarkably good. Both of these artists have died within the year, De Thoren quite recently. There are some good landscapes by Jettel, and some clever decorative work and pastel portraits by Hynais. Charlemont, a well-known painter of considerable talent, who lives in Paris, has a larger number of works than any other painter in this section. Particularly worthy of notice is a "Portrait de Mlle. de M——," and a picture called "The Pages," which shows four pretty boys in an ante-chamber, and is agreeable in color and soundly painted. A monster canvas is by Matejko, in which the subject of "Kosciusko after the Battle of Raclawice" is made the excuse for a preposterous jumble of countless figures; and a large composition by Brozik represents the imperial councillors Martinitz and Slawata being thrown out of the window of the Château of Hradshine at Prague in 1618. The Count Thurn who ordered this act of violence, is the central figure in the composition, and it is a much better picture than Brozik has ever painted before. It is very much better than the "Columbus" in the Metropolitan Museum, for example. In the picture here there is fair drawing and something like ensemble, qualities which are wanting in the "Columbus." Finally, in the Austrian exhibition are the two pictures by Múnkacsy, "Christ before Pilate" and "Christ on Calvary," both of which are so well known in the United States as to require no description here. They do not look any better here than they did in New York, nor any worse, for that matter, but the works about them are not of such merit as to put them to much of a test.

An interesting exhibition of sixty-four pictures is made by a group of German artists. It does not represent German art so fully as that of some other countries is represented, but it is all that there is in the Champ de Mars. At the Exhibition of 1878 there was a very complete collection. I find here again some of the men who were most remarked then: Leibl is the most prominent of these. The pictures shown by him here are apparently of two periods, and are widely different in technical treatment. To one period belongs a study of two women in black costumes with red trimmings, called "Women of Dachau, Bavaria." It is rich and unctuous in color, hot in the shadows and harsh in the lights, and is broadly painted with a full brush. Of the other period the best picture here is the "Portrait of M. von P.," a man in hunting dress painted out of doors. Here the technique is careful to the point of being finicky, and though there is some excellent drawing and some very good painting in parts, the picture is without ensemble. Liebermann who is quite well known in France by the pictures he has exhibited in the Salon, has a half dozen works here. "The Garden of the Invalids at Amsterdam" and "The Garden of the Orphan Asylum at Amsterdam"—both effects of sunlight falling through the trees on figures, and both showing much truth of observation—are the best. They are disagreeably dry in handling, however—a fault that is found in all of Liebermann's work.

"The Last Supper," by Uhde, which has created considerable comment, I believe, I find disappointing. Some small works by Uhde, such as "The Sermon on the Mount," were so individual in the treatment of the subjects and so naïvely and charmingly painted that I expected to find something resembling them in "The Last Supper." It is only a group of ordinary looking men, in dingy raiment, painted in a very commonplace way. In the choice of his models the artist has apparently not taken the pains to get such as had something like distinctive character, and even with those he has used he has scarcely brought out that most essential requisite in painting such a picture as this. What it is possible to do in this painting of subjects taken from the life of Christ in contemporary surroundings can be seen in some of Veronese's works, or in those of the Dutch or Flemish masters. The rendering of character is the first and most important thing in the picture. In Quentin Matsys's triptych, "The Entombment," for instance, the people and the surroundings are not more incongruous than in Uhde's picture. Yet Uhde's work is only a fairly well painted interior, with some uninteresting looking men sitting at a table, while Quentin Matsys's triptych is one of the most admirable works of art in existence. While Uhde cannot for a moment be compared to Quentin Matsys as a painter, he might nevertheless have given to his picture some of the charm that lies in Matsys's beautiful work had he, like him, attempted seriously to render on his canvas the character, the simple humanity, of the people he took for his models. In Uhde's picture, too, there is more conventionalizing than is found in some of his other works, and the result is that "The Last Supper" is without even the novelty which might be interesting in itself in the treatment of such a subject.

In the Russian galleries there is but little that calls for mention. Here again are some gigantic canvases covered with paint and with very little painting worthy of the name. Indeed, when I have said that there are four pictures by Chelmonski, all of subjects taken from life in Poland, and that "Sunday in Poland" is an interesting and well-painted picture, and the best of the four, there is nothing to add. Some of the other contributors whose names are known in the art world are Harlamoff, Makowski, Pranishnikoff, Georges Lehmann, and Kowalewski.

Among the pictures by the Scandinavian painters which are hung in the galleries allotted to Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, the landscapes by Munthe, Petterssen, Ekström, and Skredsvig are noticeable. These painters have found in their native countries motives that have scarcely anything in common with the landscapes of which there are so many in the French and other sections. They are almost all studies from nature, and bear a look of truth, in spite of the fact that some of the effects are strange and unlike what we are accustomed to in more southerly latitudes. Wahlberg, the Swedish landscape-painter who lives in Paris, is more conventional, but his work exhibited here shows him to be a capable technician and a respectable colorist.

There are further some excellent portraits by Kröyer and Tuxen, some exaggerated effects in pastel, after the impressionist methods, by Zorn, and a large decorative triptych by Carl Larsson in which various groups of figures personify "The Renaissance," "The XVIIIth Century," and "Modern Art." It is a curious mixture of decorative painting following the modern methods of Cazin and Besnard, sculpture and framing. It is the largest work in the Scandinavian galleries, but it can hardly be called a successful one. This artist appears to much better advantage in a number of water-colors which are charmingly painted and are delicate and refined in color scheme.

A Finnish artist, Edelfelt, who lives in Paris, contributes the only works of importance in the small gallery occupied by the exhibition from his country, most notable being portraits of Pasteur and of the poet Topelius, and a very realistic candle-light effect on a seated figure of a young woman with a babe in her arms, called "Virgin and Child."

In the Swiss galleries are found the works of two well-known artists who belong to the Paris colony. Three portraits and the picture called "The Two Sisters," which is well known in New York, constitute the exhibit of Charles Giron, and by Mlle. Breslau are three portraits likewise, and a clever picture of two young women seated in a studio before a window, in which there is truth of observation in painting counter-lights and excellent handling.

In what is called the International Section, a gallery hung with works by artists whose native countries are not represented in the Exhibition, or by other artists who perhaps feel themselves *dépaysés*, there are two good pictures by H. Thompson, "Sheep-fold" and "Sheep," and some very interesting still life by Zakarian, a Turkish artist who lives in Paris and who has evidently been inspired by

Chardin. His pictures are not without originality, however, and are especially remarkable for beauty of tone.

We can pass by the other galleries that remain, those of Rumania, Servia, Greece, the South American republics, etc., as containing nothing particularly worthy of note, or at least useful for our purpose; and when I have spoken of some of the pictures in the Dutch section, we shall have only left for consideration the important exhibitions made by Great Britain and the United States. The painters of the Netherlands have been written about a good deal of late, and it has sometimes been said that in landscape certain of the Dutch painters have left their French contemporaries far behind. While it is plain that the present French landscape school is not what it was in the days of Corot and Daubigny, there is still much that is good in it, and its faults are such as a more artistic public sentiment will speedily correct. At the same time, too, there are among the French landscape painters of to-day a few men of exceptional merit, and in Cazin one who is without a rival. The Dutch painters are fully represented in the Champ de Mars, and there are in the galleries there five pictures by Mauve, five by Maris, and three by Mesdag. Those by Mauve are the best of these, but they are not at all remarkable; the Mesdags, seashore views or marines, are lacking in the essential of a good picture, in that they do not look truthful, and they are certainly not so able, technically considered, to make them worth noting on that account; while the landscapes by Maris are so heavy and clumsy in handling, so loaded down with meaningless lumps of paint, and so wanting in the observation of the subtle values the atmospheric conditions of the Netherlands produce, that they are hardly landscapes at all. Indeed, it is scarcely possible in the whole exhibition to find any pictures in which the most important qualities that are recognizable in all good landscape painting are so utterly wanting.

Of the figure-painters, the one who is best known outside of Holland, Israels, is the one who offends the most. His "Toilers of the Sea" is almost outside of the limits of criticism, and two interiors with figures, "Sleeping Child" and "Peasants at Table," are no better. Paint is piled on and dragged about in these canvases without meaning or sense, form and color do not exist, and of air there is none. Were it not for some water-colors by Mauve that are better than his oils, and the work of a few painters whose names are comparatively unknown, the Dutch exhibition would be a sorry one. In the figure subjects by Vos, Martens, and Josselin de Jong, in a landscape by Bastert, and in some charming oil sketches by the etcher Storm van s'Gravesande, there is happily enough to make it worth visiting, but by no means enough to make it rank along with other exhibitions, such as the creditable and interesting ones of Norway and Sweden, for example.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

THE WOMAN AND THE MACHINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of Professor Smith's article in the current *Forum*, the following is a concrete case of the work which will be done to obtain a Government position with its small pay and confining routine work. It is also interesting as showing that Congressman Dingley agrees with Professor Smith in the belief that machine appointments are necessary to party government.

The Post-office at Topsham, Maine, is a fourth-class office paying $400 a year, and requiring the presence of the Postmaster from six until twelve in the morning, and from one until eight in the evening every week day in the year. There are no holidays.

There are two candidates for the place, both Republicans—one a woman with experience in the service, the other a former member of the Republican Town Committee, whose chief qualification beyond that is (to quote the words of one of his supporters) that he is just lazy enough to fill the position.

Some time after the 4th of March, petitions were circulated in behalf of both parties and were sent to Congressman Dingley for his endorsement, the major number of signers being in favor of the woman. The petitions were returned with the order that only the names of Republican patrons of the office should be placed on the petition. Again the longer petition was in favor of the woman. Word came from Lewiston that there was still something wrong—that the petitioners should be confined strictly to Republican voters. The voting-lists were carefully scanned, and the revised petition was again sent to Lewiston, with the woman still in the majority, only to be returned with the dictum that the matter must be settled according to the wishes of the Republican Town Committee. Even here the vote failed to decide. Through some failure in the Machine the vote was a tie, but finally the announcement has been made that the professional politician has received the endorsement—a foregone conclusion from the rejection of the first petition. The account reads like a certain portion of the Book of Genesis, only working in a reciprocal manner. Evidently the highly honorable member from the Second Maine District has not forgotten the Congressional elections of 1890.

C. S. T.

CHICAGO, ILL., September 20, 1889.

THE PROTECTION OF SHODDY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the discussions on the effect of the tariff on wool, there is one point that I have not seen adverted to, though it bears directly on the quality of woollen cloth in America and accounts for part of the support the tariff receives. Woollen cloth in this country is not made entirely from new wool. There is a large and flourishing industry in various parts of the United States engaged in the manufacture of "wool extract" and shoddy. The first is made by treating rags of any fabric, partly wool and partly cotton, with sulphuric acid, which dissolves the cotton. The residue is carded and mixed with new wool and spun. The fibre is undoubtedly weakened by the process. "Shoddy" is made by tearing to pieces woollen rags and washing the material. The fibre is, of course, shortened by the process, and the yarn into which it enters is consequently weak, and the fabric, when woven, less firm and durable.

The manufacturers of these materials are, of course, strong tariff men, for by the duty on wool the price of their rotten stuff is enhanced. I cannot say how large a proportion of the raw material of our woollen mills is composed of "wool extract" and shoddy—I doubt if any one could ascertain, for no one likes to confess how much his wares are adulterated; certainly it will not be reported in the next census. But I am confident that it is larger than is supposed. I know that "all wool" sometimes means one-quarter "wool extract" and one-quarter shoddy, and one-half "undetermined residuum," as the chemists say.

The farmers are not the only ones to be considered when we talk about the duty on wool, for one of the most certain effects of a protective (?) tariff is the adulteration of the protected article, and the adulterators are invariably the strongest upholders of a tax on genuine material. It is provoking enough to be forced to pay more than we ought for clothing, but it is exasperating to find that the same political machinery which raises the price lowers the quality more than proportionately.

CHARLES F. JOHNSON.

HARTFORD, September 20, 1889.

POOR COMFORT FOR DEMOCRATS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A little group of prominent politicians with their families met in the corridor of the Deer Park Hotel during the past summer, and, in the course of conversation, one of the gentlemen ventured the assertion that "No Democrat should be permitted to hold office." His remark was promptly amended by his wife, who declared that "No Democrat ought to be allowed to live!" As many of these poor fellows, dependent upon their offices for their livelihood, have already been beheaded by the indefatigable Clarkson and his colaborers, and more are being prepared for execution, this maxim may be accepted as the keynote of the Administration; and, instead of a Government of the people, by the people, for the people, we shall have a Government of Republicans, by Republicans, for Republicans.—Very truly,

D. S. G.

BALTIMORE, September 28, 1889.

METAL CURRENCY AMONG BARBARIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for August on the money of Central Africa by Gerhard Rohlfs reminds one of a similar instance in antiquity. Tacitus, in his 'Germania,' mentions the fact that the Germans preferred Roman money of certain kinds in their mercantile transactions: "Pecuniam probant veterem et diu notam, serratos bigatosque. Argentum quoque magis aurum sequuntur, nulla affectione animi, sed quia numerus argenteorum facilior usui est promiscua ac vilia mercantibus." The serrated edges and the two-horse chariot stamped on the coins were, from all accounts, just as much a *condicio sine qua non* of its acceptance as the date 1780, and the certain number of points on the diadem and crown of the Empress, on the Mariatheresienthaler which the natives of Central Africa require before they will accept it as currency.

The demonetization of gold in both instances is a little remarkable. Certainly there could be no surer sign of barbarism, and no better proof of the utter stand-still that has hung over the Dark Continent during the lapse of all these ages. The Germans at least have learned better; they do not refuse gold now. Timbuctoo is sadly behind the times.

R. L. PRESTON.

CENTRAL UNIVERSITY, RICHMOND, KY., September 26, 1889.

Notes.

FROM the *Publishers' Weekly* for September 21 we glean the major part of the following titles of fall publications. *D. Appleton & Co.*:—'A Text-Book of Animal Physiology,' by Prof.

Wesley Mills of McGill University; third edition of Charles Darwin's 'Structure and Distribution of Coral Reefs,' with an appendix by Prof. T. G. Bonney; and 'The Town-Dweller,' by Dr. Milner Fothergill. *A. C. Armstrong & Son*:—'How to Catalogue a Library,' and 'The Threshold of Manhood,' by W. J. Dawson. *Cassell & Co.*:—'New Zealand after Fifty Years,' by Edward Wakefield, and a holiday illustrated edition of Tennyson's 'Song of the Brook.' *The Century Co.*:—'Daddy Jake, the Runaway,' stories by Joel Chandler Harris. *Robert Clarke & Co.*:—'History of the Girtys: A Life-Record of Three Renegades of the Revolution,' by C. W. Butterfield. *Dodd, Mead & Co.*:—'Etchings,' twenty-five examples by modern masters; a two-volume edition of the poems of Austin Dobson; a handsome four-volume edition of 'Consuelo'; 'The Letters of the Duke of Wellington to Miss J., 1834 1851'; and 'The Diary of Philip Hone, 1828-'45,' edited by Bayard Tuckerman. *Geo. H. Ellis*:—'Problems in American Society,' by Joseph Henry Crooker. *Fords, Howard & Hulbert*:—'Unto the Uttermost,' by James M. Campbell. *Gebbie & Co.*:—The Marquis de Belloy's 'Christopher Columbus and the Discovery of the New World'; 'Half a Century of Music in England,' by Franz Hueffer; Arsène Houssaye's 'Seven Years at the Comédie-Française,' with portraits of actors; and 'Indian Life, Religious and Social,' by John C. Oman. *Harper & Bros.*:—'Cathedrals and Abbeys in Great Britain,' the text by the Rev. Richard Wheatley; 'London: A Pilgrimage,' the text by Blanchard Jerrold and illustrations by Doré; 'The Quiet Life,' illustrated by Abbey and Parsons; and a 'Life of Martin Van Buren,' by George Bancroft. *The History Co.*:—'The History of Utah, 1540-1880,' by Hubert H. Bancroft. *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*:—'Origin and Growth of the English Constitution,' by Hannis Taylor; and the eighth and last volume of Winsor's 'Narrative and Critical History of America.' *Lee & Shepard*:—A Christmas gift-book, selected from the writings of Thomas Wentworth Higginson, with illustrations by Irene E. Jerome, 'In a Fair Country'; 'The Tartuffian Age,' by Paul Mantegazza; and 'The Future of Morals and Religion,' by Lawrence Gronlund. *J. B. Lippincott Co.*:—Illustrated editions of Guy de Maupassant's 'Pierre et Jean' ('The Two Brothers'), of 'Rab and His Friends,' of Lover's 'The Low-Backed Car,' and of Tennyson's 'The Miller's Daughter.' *Little, Brown & Co.*:—'A Book about Florida,' by Margaret Deland, illustrated, and 'Myth and Folk-Lore of Ireland,' by Jeremiah Curtin. *Longmans, Green & Co.*:—'A Life of Lord John Russell,' by Spencer Walpole; 'A Selection from the Despatches and Letters of the Right Hon. Sir George F. Bowen,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'Cardinal Lavigerie and Slavery in Africa,' a sort of autobiography; 'Clavers, the Despot's Champion,' a biography of Graham of Claverhouse; 'A Memoir of Rt. Rev. F. J. McDougall,' by C. J. Bunyan; 'Russia in Central Asia in 1888,' by the Hon. George Curzon; 'Swiss Travel and Swiss Guide-Books,' by W. A. B. Coolidge; and 'The Skipper in the Arctic Seas.' *D. Lothrop Co.*:—'Our Asiatic Cousins,' by Mrs. Leonowens, and 'Stories of New France,' by Mrs. A. M. Machar. *Macmillan & Co.*:—'Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmanship,' by Joseph Pennell, illustrated; 'The Development and Character of Gothic Architecture,' by Prof. Charles H. Moore of Harvard; 'The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood,' by W. Holman Hunt; 'Cults and Monuments of Ancient Athens,' by Miss Jane Harrison and Mrs. A. W. Verrall; 'Royal Edinburgh: Her Saints, Kings, and Scholars,' by Mrs. Oliphant; 'The Makers of Modern Italy: Mazzini, Cavour, Garibaldi,' by J. A. R. Marriott; 'History of the Later Roman Empire, from Arcadius to Irene, 395-800,' by John B. Bury; 'Problems of Greater Britain,' by Sir Charles Dilke; 'The Cradle of the Aryans,' by G. H. Rendall; 'Wild Beasts and their Ways in Asia, Africa, America, 1845–1888,' by Sir Samuel W. Baker; 'Letters of Keats,' edited by Sidney Colvin; 'Eminent Women of Our Times,' by Mrs. Fawcett; 'On Style, with Other Studies in Literature,' by Walter Pater; 'The Elements of Politics,' by Prof. Henry Sidgwick; a new volume of Essays by Prof. Huxley, and of Poems by Lord Tennyson; and a new edition of the 'Canterbury Tales,' edited by John Saunders, with the aid of Dr. Furnivall. *G. P. Putnam's Sons*:—'The Life and Work of Charles Darwin,' by Prof. Charles F. Holder, and 'American War Ballads.' *Rand, McNally & Co.*:—'Arctic Alaska and Siberia,' by S. Aldrich; 'Sweden and the Swedes,' by W. W. Thomas, jr., U. S. Minister to Sweden; 'Costa Rica,' by Mrs. Lily Tyner; and 'The Constitutional History of France,' by Col. Henry C. Lockwood. *Roberts Bros.*:—'Louisa M. Alcott: her Life, Letters, and Journal,' by Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney, and a new edition of the Rev. Robert Lowell's 'A New Priest of Conception Bay.' *Charles Scribner's Sons*:—'The Viking Age,' by Paul Du Chaillu; 'The American Railway,' the well-known series of articles from *Scribner's Magazine*, with an introduction by Judge Cooley; 'Among Cannibals,' by Carl Lumholtz, translated from the Norwegian by R. B. Anderson; 'Aspects of the Earth,' being Prof. Shaler's articles from *Scribner's;* 'The First Administration of Thomas Jefferson,' being part of Mr. Henry Adams's 'History of the United States'; 'English Lands, Letters, and Kings,' by Donald G. Mitchell; 'Strange True Stories of Louisiana,' by Geo. W. Cable; 'The Poetry of Tennyson,' by the Rev. Henry Van Dyke; and 'Literature and Poetry,' by Dr. Philip Schaff. *Fred. A. Stokes & Bro.*:—'Between Times,' verses by Walter Learned, a frequent contributor to the *Century*.

Mr. Samuel H. Scudder's 'Butterflies of the Eastern United States and Canada, with special reference to New England,' in three volumes with ninety-six plates, is ready for immediate delivery by the author (Cambridge, Mass.).

After sixteen years, Miss Amelia B. Edwards brings out a second edition of her 'Untrodden Peaks and Unfrequented Valleys: A Midsummer Ramble in the Dolomites,' or the south Tyrol (Routledge & Sons). The illustrations are retained, notes have been added by way of correction or addition, and there is an excellent map; an index would also have been welcome. The curious mountain forms of Titian's country, with their supposed origin in coral growth, appeal to the lover of the picturesque and to the climber. Miss Edwards's new edition may well turn thither American tourists (for she rededicates her book to Americans).

In 1876 there were still in the market two American editions of Samuel Warren's famous novel, 'Ten Thousand a Year,' one of them in three volumes, another (at Philadelphia) in one. A third edition was published in the same city in 1878. Such, however, is the vitality of a work originally contributed to *Blackwood*, and then in 1841 given to the world (quite literally, in view of the translations and the piracies of it), that Little, Brown & Co. of Boston have just reprinted it in the traditional three volumes, through the University Press, Cambridge, Mass. The author's portrait prefixed bears a certain resemblance to another popular novelist, Benjamin Disraeli.

Again we have a case of long life in the late Albany de Fonblanque's handbook of the Constitution, Government, laws, and power of the British Empire, 'How We Are Governed' (Frederick Warne & Co.). More than thirty years have elapsed since it was first composed, but it has been overhauled by a long line of editors till now, in its sixteenth edition, it has been wholly rewritten by Mr. W. J. Gordon, and only the *form* of the Letters—not the arrangement, even—has been preserved. In a measure, of course, the manual marks the changes that have occurred during the period that has elapsed, by incidental mention of the date of acts now in force, by expressions like "until recently," etc., but it would have been worth while to attempt by tabulation some sort of a parallel between the England of Fonblanque and the England of to-day.

Another part—the second instalment of the fourth volume—of Dr. G. Schlegel's Dutch-Chinese Lexicon has appeared from the press of E. J. Brill, Leyden.

A belated 'Intelligence Report of the Panama Canal,' by Lieut. Chas. C. Rogers, U. S. N., has just issued from the Government Printing-Office. Lieut. Rogers wrote on March 30, 1887, and, after a thorough inspection of the canal, could speak in terms of high respect of the engineers in charge and their achievement, but calculated that six or seven years must still elapse before completion. His report is admirably illustrated by process views from nature, by maps, etc., and is valuable for reference.

A careful and valuable study of "The Legal Status of the Indian" is lately printed by Robert Weil, A.M., Seligman Fellow in the School of Political Science, Columbia College. It shows good work, and will be found helpful by students of the Indian question. The writer appears to have overlooked two important cases, Elk vs. Wilkins (112 U. S.) and Callan vs. Wilson (127 U. S.).

The *American Journal of Mathematics* (Baltimore) has made a separate issue of an Index to its first ten volumes, both by authors and by subjects.

A new Boston venture is the *Transatlantic*, a fortnightly "mirror of European life and letters," which will contain, among other regular features, a translated serial European novel, a translated novelette, a piece of European music, and a large portrait of some contemporary European celebrity.

In the current number of the *New Review*, Mr. Archer answers Mr. James's taunt that the plays of to-day are not published like the plays of yesterday, by explaining that the dramatist keeps his piece in MS. now, the more effectually to guard against the pirate. A volume of the late Tom Taylor's plays was printed a few years ago; most of Mr. W. S. Gilbert's pieces are published; and so are a few of Mr. Bronson Howard's. It is now announced that the best of the comedies of the late T. W. Robertson are to appear this fall, with a biographic introduction by the dramatist's son. Mr. Robertson is best known as the inventor of "tea-cup comedy," but he also wrote "Caste," a little play of indisputable merit.

Prof. A. M. Elliott's studies on "Speech Mixture in Canada" are resumed in the *American Journal of Philology*, with an amount of philosophizing not out of place, perhaps, in that learned periodical, yet unfavorable to the progress of the lay reader who wishes to get at the examples. These, when reached, are curious enough. English has imposed upon the French the majority of law terms—a natural result of conquest; the French readily adopted in their own interest the commercial terms.

When nouns have been modified, the motive has been partly to provide for gender and partly to insure the pronunciation—as, *dame, swampe, campe, baute, strappe, poutine* (pudding), *sligne* (sling), *necqu'iouque* (neck-yoke), *jobbeur, shaveur, lofeur, switcheur, proposeur, secondeur*, etc.; partly by way of assimilation to French forms, as *grocerie, informalité*, etc. In a future article on the morphology and syntax of Canadian French we hope Prof. Elliott will trace the instinct by which genders are selected for the adopted words. Superadded meanings are illustrated by *appeler* (a meeting), *appointer* (to office), *charger* (the jury, or for goods sold), *cuisiner* (accounts, etc.), and many other usages.

The Governor of Pennsylvania will preside at the eighth annual meeting of the American Forestry Congress, and fourth annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Forestry Association, to be held in Philadelphia on October 15–18. Notices of intention to present papers or data should be sent to Mr. Herbert Welsh, 1305 Arch Street. The occasion promises to be one of great interest.

—The October *Atlantic* is occupied with topics familiar to its constant readers. Mr. Fiske writes of the Monmouth and Newport campaigns; the classical paper is by Mr. Lawton, consisting of verse translations from the closing book of the Iliad, together with much prose comment, touched by that spirit of scholarly enthusiasm which has made his former Greek studies attractive; the national question taken up in the number is the Court of Claims in connection with the general matter of the Government's obligation to its creditors. Perhaps the most agreeable reading is Miss Repplier's essay upon the didacticism in much of our fiction, in which she lightly and cleverly expresses her discontent with the moral in tales, and adds her own to the increasing number of voices raised in protest against the criticism which would substitute humanitarianism for art in works of imagination. The easy-going reader will meet with little to weary or to stimulate his mind, from cover to cover, unless he should devote himself to find out the excellence of some of the poems; but we bespeak his attention to some sonnets by Dr. Woolsey which are to be found in an appreciative notice of that eminent scholar's character and personal qualities.

—Mr. Austin Dobson's poem in *Harper's* is in the vein in which he works with most pleasure and always with entire success—the revival of Queen Anne forms, but with a transforming touch of modern sentiment. The verses and the illustrations, by Abbey, blend "like the voice and the instrument." The whole, taken together, is curiously perfect and old-fashioned, and illustrates capitally the literary law that in scholastic imitations of bygone tastes technique replaces nature, often without perceptible loss except in the essential point of feeling. An interesting forestry paper, dealing with the growths of the California Coast Range; a traveller's picture of the Nizhni-Novgorod Fair, from the inexhaustible portfolio of Theodore Child; and another of Hierapolis by Mr. Ellis; one of Prof. C. E. Norton's mediæval church-building studies devoted to St. Denis; observations upon the Dunker communities and the neighborhood of North Berwick—together with a bunch of stories—complete the number, with the exception of a specially noticeable account of "Recent Progress in Surgery." In this last paper the introduction of antiseptic surgery and its results are elaborately and clearly set forth, some of the latest and most remarkable operations, which require opening of the abdomen and the brain, are described, and optimistic views of further advance are held.

— *Scribner's* takes its readers to Africa by an article in which Masai-Land is described and illustrated, and it promises more papers of which the scene will be the same continent, under the pardonable impression, perhaps, that the Russian field has been effectually preëmpted by rival magazines. Two companion articles upon "Electricity in Land and Naval Warfare" describe one of the most interesting applications of science to practical affairs, which bears some signs of being revolutionary in its influence. Iceland is the topic of travel and Benvenuto Cellini of art. Prof. Shaler contributes the most immediately useful article in his account of the roads of America, his argument to show the immense importance of the subject to the growth in civilization of the country not under the predominating influence of the centres of traffic and their connecting railway routes, and his suggestions of reform. He calls for a Federal Commissioner of Roads in the Department of Agriculture, to prepare public documents on the condition of roads and on road construction, and similar State Commissioners, at the head of local Commissioners, to prepare maps, etc. The object of this suggestion does not appear to be administrative, but merely the gathering and spread of information, and the stimulation of public interest. Whatever may be thought of this plan, the subject is one to engage attention and its discussion is timely.

— The *Century* is distinguished by a brilliant article by M. Coquelin, sure to interest literary readers, upon Shakspere and Molière. It would not be possible within our limits to follow his admirably managed parallel between these two great masters of the stage of the rival Latin and English races, with their contrasts of mental and moral attitude, of passion, poetry, and thought on the one hand and of observation, intelligence, and real life upon the other, which yield to the author such tempting material for antithesis, definition, and all the phrases of an analytical criticism. He makes full use of his opportunities, and that reader is well grounded in his knowledge who will not gain from this friendly comparison a better understanding of the qualities and methods of the French dramatist, and a clearer appreciation of the distinctive race-power of Shakspere's genius. The biography of Lincoln takes up the subject of the Blair peace negotiations and the Thirteenth Amendment, and has sharp words for both Seward and Sumner. The close of the number is devoted to the subject of education, which is treated of in three articles severally illustrated from the workings of the New York College for the Training of Teachers, the Philadelphia Manual Training School, and the Workingman's School and Free Kindergarten in this city.

—The bibliography of so abstruse a subject as Geodesy, which is mainly a discussion (in terms of the higher mathematics) of problems relating to the geometrical form of the earth, appeals to a class of scholars and investigators who rarely have the time and pecuniary means to become bibliomaniacs. Provided the matter is accurately and clearly printed, they care little, as a rule, about the form in which a memoir is published. Hence it would have seemed hardly necessary for Prof. J. Howard Gore to apologize, as he does in his preface to his 'Bibliography of Geodesy,' because all the refinements of bibliographic science are not observed in his most valuable compilation of some three or four thousand titles. It would be a sad mistake, and one into which the ready facilities for publication now afforded have led some ambitious young writers, to suppose that such a compilation is merely a mechanical task, or one that requires no deep technical knowledge of the subject. The titles here contained are largely extracted from official publications and proceedings of scientific societies which have grown dusty in the unfrequented recesses of the various libraries of Europe and America, where they were unearthed by Prof. Gore and those whose assistance was so generously lent to him. Without considerable previous acquaintance with the literature of the subject, and a knowledge of the various organized and individual investigations that have been undertaken at various times for the purpose of determining some of the scientific elements which contribute towards the determination of the true form of the earth, Prof. Gore would hardly have been able to trace a large proportion of the titles here contained, and the Bibliography would have failed in the essential quality of exhaustiveness, which his personal experience in this class of work on the Geological and Coast Surveys leads us to assume that it possesses in a high degree. It is most appropriately published under the auspices of the Coast and Geodetic Survey in its usual quarto form, and, although forming an appendix (No. 16) to the Report for 1887, has only recently issued from that stronghold of the spoils system, the Government Printing-Office. It is arranged in a single alphabetical series, which includes authors, abbreviations, and subjects. The titles, as a rule, are very full, but, where not sufficiently explicit in themselves, are followed by brief abstracts or explanations. The name of the owner of the work from which the title was taken is given after each full title, but no attempt has been made to show what libraries do and what do not possess given works.

—The first number of a new dictionary of political economy has appeared in Germany under the title of "Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften" (Jena: Gustav Fischer; New York: F. W. Christern, G. E. Stechert). It is more restricted in scope than its title would imply, as the editors announce that they will confine themselves to topics directly related to political economy; but it is laid out on a very liberal scale, the prospectus promising thirty to thirty-five numbers, each consisting of 160 large octavo pages. When completed, which it is to be in three years, it will be an important and valuable work of reference, not merely by virtue of the fulness of treatment which its great size will permit, but as representing the views, on every branch of economic science, of the school which is now dominant in Germany and counts not a few disciples among our younger American economists. In its list of contributors are found all the leading German writers on political economy, with a sprinkling from other countries. The United States are represented by Professors Ely, Patten, and James. A useful feature is its full bibliography at the end of every article of any length. The longest article in the first number is the one on Joint-Stock Companies, which fills the last seventy-five pages and is not yet completed, while about forty-six pages are devoted to a number of articles relating to agriculture. There are also brief biographical notices, the present number containing one of Charles Francis Adams, jr., and one of Charles Kendall Adams, whose middle name is here printed as Kendell; but no mention is made of the two or three other Adamses who write on economic subjects. The mechanical execution of the work would

have been much improved if the publisher had adopted the Roman type instead of the Gothic, which is, at its best, literally an eyesore; but even if his patriotism or his respect for the prejudices of Bismarck forbade so radical a course, he could have rendered his page more readable if, instead of having it set solid, he had used smaller print and leaded it.

—Ever since the publication of "L'Immortel," M. Alphonse Daudet has been urged to dramatize it, or at least to take a play out of it. Hitherto he has refused, on the ground that this would be considered a new attack upon the Academy, and bring on him fresh odium of a sort of which he has already had enough. But he has written a play which appears to be a continuation of his novel, and read it on the 1st of September to M. Koning and the actors who are to interpret it. It is called "La Lutte pour la Vie," and is intended to answer the question: What became of the *ménage* of Paul Astier and the Duchess Padovani after the death of Astier *père*? The play will be brought out by M. Koning at the Gymnase in the course of the winter.

—The Welsh Archæological Association—or, rather, thirty members of it headed by Professor Rhys of Oxford—lately made a little pilgrimage through Brittany, visiting the chief shrines of their *cultus* in Morbihan, Finistère, and the Côtes-du-Nord. Before crossing the Channel on their return, they made a visit to M. Renan, to pay their respects to him as "un Breton assez grand pour représenter tout le peuple." Professor Rhys was naturally their spokesman, and M. Renan replied to his address in an allocution of inimitable grace and lightness of touch, which appears in full in the *Revue Bleue*. Our space is narrow for quotation, and it seems almost a pity to make quotations, or to attempt to "traduce" M. Renan's words into another tongue. However, here is one passage from his address:

"When I went to London a few years ago, I had the honor of meeting Lord Tennyson, who told me this curious story: When on a tour through Brittany like that you are making now, he spent a night at Lannion, whence you have just come. In the morning, when he asked for his bill at the inn, the hostess shook her head: 'Oh no, sir! Have you not sung our King Arthur?' This hostess was evidently a woman of reading; our people in general have few such literary remembrances. But when our sailors go to Cardiff, they can easily understand your countrymen, and find little difficulty in making themselves understood. Mr. Rhys has been talking with our good country-folk now for some days. He does not lose a word of all they say; and they, with some explanations, follow him very well. That is not surprising; for the people of this district, especially about Goëlo (*Golovia*) come from Cardigan. . . . I have often said to myself that if the storms which in this century sweep over our poor land of France should drive me to a refuge in England—it is not likely; I am an old man; and, besides, our country has strong life in her, and we need not be too much moved by passing storms—I should take advantage, were it but to remind the public pleasantly of its existence, of an old law of Edward the Confessor: *Qui de Britannia minori veniunt recipi debent tanquam probi cives regni hujus, quoniam exierunt quondam de corpore regni hujus.* In those days they paid some regard to history. After all, we have not changed much. We are an obstinate race, always a good deal behind our times. Even when we seem to be turning from black to white we are still essentially the same. Our good old saints were very headstrong, too. Those good old Breton saints, all of them of Welsh or Irish origin, are great objects of my devotion. I do not like the modern saints so well. I find them too intolerant."

—France has lost an eminent historian and scholar and teacher in M. Fustel de Coulanges, who died at Massy, near Paris, on the 13th of September. His death was not unexpected, for he had been in feeble health, worn out by overwork, for many months, and yet it is in some sort premature, since he was only in his fifty-ninth year. M. Fustel de Coulanges was far from a voluminous writer—in fact, he wrote but little—but each of his books was widely read, and deserved the praise it got both from the unlearned and from scholars. That he pleased the many as well as the few was probably due to his freshness and suggestiveness as a writer, his clearness of method, and his great precision and neatness of style. Many who would find Sir Sumner Maine's 'Ancient Law' hard reading might read the 'Cité Antique' easily and with pleasure. This and his 'Histoire des Institutions politiques de l'ancienne France' are his two chief works. The 'Cité Antique' has been translated into English and is well known. It is a minute study of the Ancient City in its laws and manners and customs and religious observances, and in its literary and artistic productions. But, the *Temps* says in announcing his death, it is not in his books that the great work and usefulness of M. Fustel de Coulanges are chiefly seen. First as a lecturer at the École Normale Supérieure, and afterwards as professor at the Sorbonne, he formed around him "une véritable pléiade de jeunes savants dont quelques-uns sont déjà presque célèbres." In his later years he went back to the École Normale as its director. His death leaves a vacancy in the Academy, to which he was elected in 1875, succeeding M. Guizot.

GRIMM'S RAPHAEL.

The Life of Raphael. By Herman Grimm. Translated by Sarah Holland Adams. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.

GRIMM constructs the Life of Raphael out of a careful criticism of the principal pictures, a minute observation of the studies and designs for each, and arrives at fixing the probable date of each work by this method. Of actual facts concerning Raphael's life there are very few, almost none, since even the date of his birth is questioned. Vasari's Life is continually shown to be extremely inaccurate. He wrote of Raphael thirty years after his death, making up his biography from the personal narrative of his pupils and of others who had known him; and what wonder that the memories of so brilliant a personality should have been already surrounded by the haze of romance and fiction? Those who care for vivid narrative will always read Vasari with delight; his lucid style and enthusiastic recognition, tempered with sensible criticism, win one's confidence. This the German writer allows, while often finding him at fault.

In a letter from the author to the translator, which serves as preface to this Life, we learn that Grimm, who has devoted himself during thirty years to the study of Raphael's works, and especially to those two frescoes in the Camera della Segnatura, known as "The Disputa" and "The School of Athens," has, for this American edition of his work, rewritten the chapter treating of these frescoes in order to present the result of his studies in a more concise, definite, and vigorous form. Miss Adams also acknowledges in a foot-note that she has omitted certain subtleties of analysis and historical research in order to bring her translation within desirable limits. The aim of the work, in the words of its author,

"has not been to supply with conjectures the lack of information concerning Raphael's actual career, nor merely to satisfy the curiosity of those who, in the knowledge of these outward experiences, imagine they possess the life of a man. The significance of my task seemed to me rather to lie in finding answers to the following questions: How did this artist, inspired with his sunny views of life, stand to the common world around him? How were the radiant pictures received which he gave to the world? Was he assisted in his work or was he hindered? How powerful was this help or this hindrance, and by whom exercised? These questions led me to consider the man as well as the ideas publicly agitated and discussed in Raphael's day to whose influence he must have been subjected."

With unflagging interest and patience, Grimm seeks to find out the meaning of the works of this master through their first designs and studies, thus following the leading theme to the final accomplishment of the picture differing in so many instances from its first conception. In order to make good use of the book, it is necessary to refer while reading it to photographs of the drawings and pictures mentioned in order to note the variations. Grimm's conclusion, "that Raphael's genius, under circumstances still more favorable, would have had still a nobler development," seems, to say the least, very questionable, as also what he says about Raphael's having been affected by the church-reform then agitating Europe. We will see later how Grimm has convinced himself on this point. In refutation of the former argument, we have only to remember that all the circumstances of Raphael's life were peculiarly fortunate for the development of his art. Himself the son of an artist of no inconsiderable merit, his genius was immediately recognized and cultivated by the best masters of his time. At the age of twenty he was already an accomplished painter, since "The Coronation of the Virgin" in the Vatican is proved to have been executed in 1503. From his earliest years to the day of his death he seems to have been successful in everything he attempted; and yet, though so highly gifted, he never allowed himself to fall into the snares which extreme facility and popular appreciation spread before the idol of the hour. His sketch-books, full of notes from nature and innumerable designs for each of his works, testify to his untiring industry and extreme conscientiousness. He had a happy, pleasure-loving nature, and was never hampered by monetary anxiety, since he always enjoyed the patronage of the greatest princes of his time, and orders were pouring in on all sides.

From the time Pope Julius II., at the recommendation of Bramante, invited him to Rome, Raphael lived the life of a prince at the Papal Court, and became intimate with all the learned and famous men of a time when culture and learning were at their highest. Rome was then the most favorable city for the study of antique art and learning. The immense amount of work left by Raphael on dying at the early age of thirty-seven, and its excellence, are evidence that he had put to good use his exceptional gifts and his time, and that the circumstances of his existence had helped his best development in an artistic sense. We cannot see that his work would have been the better for his falling more under the influence of the ideas of Luther, Erasmus, Hutten, and other reformers, whose teachings were known to the few during Julius II.'s Pontificate, and were common property during the years of Leo X.'s reign—the storm-and-stress period of the Reformation. We cannot believe that Raphael could have concerned himself about these things. It is generally supposed that he procured from Cardinal Bembo, Ariosto, or other learned men, the historic details for his frescoes, with the order of precedence in the arrangement of his figures; and his own wonderful power of composition, poetic fancy, and

unlimited invention supplied the rest. He was always ready and able to execute what was required of him in the spirit of the theme, whether the subject was from ancient myth, Holy Scripture, or phantasy. Indeed, his gifts in fantastic representations seem more wonderful to us than any; his winged creatures—flying figures, dragons, and such like—seem so right, so probable, if not possible.

Grimm acknowledges there is little proof of Raphael's having taken active part in the movement which was interesting those around him. He thinks the fact that the painter at intervals withdrew from the court festivities, applied himself to his books, and in his later years had great friendship and solicitude for an old philologist living in Rome in his little chamber, like a stoic, almost emulating Diogenes in his tub—a certain Fabius of Ravenna—proves that he had a serious, thoughtful side to his nature, which received an impulse to spiritual development in the fusion of political, religious, and literary interests. Another evidence of Raphael's having been influenced by the changes going on in the public mind, is the proof he saw that the ideal of Christ which served the Quattrocento artists no longer satisfied the Cinquecento. Grimm supposes that the reason why in his later years he painted no Last Supper, no Last Judgment, no Crucifixion, was because the ideal he would have wished to represent would not have been understood by the public. In the painting of the cartoons for the Tapestries, when he came to the Bearing of the Cross, he seems to have turned to Albert Dürer for the type of head he wished to paint, which, through his interpretation, became the ideal which Guido Reni used for his "Ecce Homo." In the "Transfiguration," his last work, he had a subject offered him which suited his convictions. The figure of Christ should represent matter becoming spirit, and, realistic treatment being out of the question, he resorted to the antique. "Raphael's Christ of the Transfiguration is the Christ of the united European nations, all of whom, in his day, when Luther's influence was just beginning to be felt, hoped, from the universal desire for reformation, to attain through this means to salvation for all." Our author goes on to say that in our day the representation of Christ has become impossible, the plastic arts having lost the living power they had in the Cinquecento. The development of the history of the images of Christ through the Quattrocento and the Cinquecento from the plain and humble man Christ of the democratic Florentines, varying so much in each of the Italian schools of painting, is full of subtle criticism and analysis. We regret that want of space prevents our enlarging on the theme.

Of the six chapters into which the book is divided, and which contain the history of all Raphael's principal works, with their preparatory studies and all the light shed by recently discovered historical documents and letters on their production, we will choose the one on the Camera della Segnatura for further notice, as the subject is especially one on which the great German critic has expended so much labor and thought. In the year 1507, according to Grimm, Raphael came to Rome, at the invitation of Pope Julius II., to take part in the decoration of the Vatican and St. Peter's. This was probably not his first visit to the Holy City, as some first sketches for the Camera della Segnatura exist which were made while his great picture of the "Entombment" was still in progress; in any case, his reputation as a great painter was well established already in Rome, for had not Michael Angelo himself, when first asked to paint the Sistine chapel, recommended that they should give the work to Raphael instead?

Pinturicchio had adorned with infinite originality and beauty a set of rooms for Alexander Borgia; the frescoes on the walls are full of delightful invention, surpassing any other work we have of this master. Julius II. shunned these splendid apartments as though they were plague-stricken; he chose a suite above them, and had already had some of them decorated by Perugino, Sodoma, and others. At first, only one room was assigned to Raphael, the ceiling of which was to have been painted by Sodoma, but, as the work progressed, Julius II. was so much delighted with Raphael that he ordered the frescoes by the other masters to be effaced, and desired him to paint the entire suite of three rooms and a hall. The Camera della Segnatura is in the centre, and is lighted by two high windows on either side. The painted panes of glass by William of Marseilles have long since disappeared from them, as also the rich inlaid wainscoting and seats by Barili which ran round the room about six feet from the ground. The floor alone retains its former splendor, the arms of the Roveres being executed in mosaic in the antique manner. The vaulted ceiling, drooping low at each corner, preserves its jewel-like brightness of color; the restorer's hand has not worked at its frescoes excepting here and there; their position prevented the dust from settling on them. The first impression of the frescoes on the walls is that they have suffered cruelly from heavy repainting and restoration; but when this has once been conceded, the painful impression gives way to intense admiration for the extreme beauty of the designs, their apparent facility of execution, the grace of line, the movement of certain figures, the dignity of others, and the pervading harmony of the whole.

On one side, the left as we enter, we have the "Disputa," covering the whole wall. The composition is divided into two parts; the lower represents an assemblage of illustrious persons grouped around an altar on which stands the Monstrance, the altar itself being on an elevation approached by broad steps. The most important personages of this group are sitting on antique stone benches. The cloud hanging low over the assembly divides it from the celestial beings round the Holy Trinity soaring immediately above the altar; genii at the feet of the Trinity are flying, with hands raised above their heads, carrying open gospels. The figures nearest the altar are alone supposed to see the glory revealed; not all even of these are looking upwards. The Christian Fathers are recognizable by the titles of their books or by their names written round their halos. Dante, Bramante, and others are easily known by their characteristic features; others may only be guessed at. Some are discussing, others are reading, others (on whom the light from above streams) have cast away their books. The heavenly semicircle of figures seated on the cloud above are treated in many different manners. Christ, Mary, and John are represented as transfigured. God the Father hovers above them. The saints, sitting around like cardinals at an ecclesiastical festival, are more realistic in painting: we see Peter, Paul, Adam, Moses, David, and others. Some of these are rather affected in their extreme grace of pose, not in keeping with the solemnity of the moment; Peter and Paul, closing the group on either side, look straight before them, attentive and grave. Upon the vaulted roof above this fresco Raphael has painted a female figure of great beauty, who seems to be gazing in wonder at what is happening below. Her fair head is crowned with olive leaves, and a veil falls in broken folds about her head. "Divinarum Rerum Notitia" (knowledge of things divine) is her inscription.

Vasari supposes the "Disputa" to signify the institution of the Mass. Ghisi's engraving, appearing the same year as Vasari's book, is inscribed "The Adoration of the Trinity." Besides these general interpretations, Grimm has found another, which especially connects the painting with the Pontificate of Julius II. Directly in the midst of the assembly, in the immediate foreground to the right, a massive piece of masonry is seen, requiring explanation. It is the base of one of the pillars to support the dome of the new building of St. Peter's, according to Bramante's design, and, to carry out this suggestion still further, we see in the landscape distance some men on a scaffolding working at a church. Julius II., in the face of the opposition of many of the cardinals, decided to tear down the ancient building of St. Peter's, which the settling of the pillars seemed to make necessary, and to erect in its place a church of superlative magnificence, for which Bramante had furnished the design. The heavens are opening to bless the work. The idea of glorifying the Pope's greatest undertaking evidently crept in gradually, while the composition of the "Disputa" was in progress. To make it still more clear, Pope Anacletus II., the original builder of St. Peter's, is seen leaning on the piece of masonry in the foreground, while Sixtus IV., the first of the Roveres, to whom Julius owed everything, in full pontifical robes, stands gazing aloft with upraised hands. This conjecture, which Grimm offered to the public some years ago, has by this time met with general acceptance as the true signification of this fresco.

We cannot say that his theories concerning the "School of Athens" on the opposite wall have been received with equal favor. In this work he wishes to persuade us that the two central figures of the composition are not Plato and Aristotle, as Vasari calls them, although Vasari proceeds to explain that Raphael meant to depict the union of heathen philosophy and Christian theology. Grimm believes that the inscription on Ghisi's plate furnishes the true explanation—that Paul's entrance among the Athenian philosophers is what Raphael intended; and he shows how the representation of Paul seems to have been continually present in the mind of Raphael, since he painted him so frequently during his career. He also indicates how characteristic is the pose of the figure in question, standing at the top of the flight of stairs with commandingly outstretched hand. In Scripture we read continually of Paul's stretching out his hand to speak; the action also accords with descriptions of Aristotle in Sidonius Apollinaris's letters, which Raphael knew and referred to for some of the characters in the "School of Athens"; and as the figure in question is holding a book inscribed "Etica" supported on his thigh, it seems more probable that it is Aristotle. We have already, some years ago, in the *Nation*, in a review of Grimm's 'Fifteen Essays,' followed the long line of argument on either side which is more condensed in this present work. We quote his conclusion to this important chapter, not having space for further investigation:

"According to the views of Raphael's age, the task of philosophy consisted in this, that it should prepare the way for the elimination of all doubts concerning the nature of the Divine which the material aspect of things awakens. But the solution itself could only be accomplished by religion. And as in the 'Disputa' the heavens open to reconcile dissenting opinions by a revelation of the Trinity, so, in the

'School of Athens,' Paul appears among the Pagan philosophers to declare what he brings is only the final deduction from their own teachings, the sum and substance of all that we to-day call the Renaissance."

Thus this great creative artist, by the influence of Bramante and the favor of Julius II., immediately took part in Rome in works embodying in symbols the high ideals of his time.

In "Four Centuries of Fame," the concluding chapter, we are given an account of Raphael's influence on art from the moment of his death till our own day, with careful analysis of the biographies which have appeared, and everything which relates to the treatment of his frescoes and pictures. The translation of Miss Adams must be a very faithful one. Unfortunately, she often retains the German construction of phrases, which makes the meaning less clear than is desirable. The book is not one that admits of hasty perusal.

THEOCRITUS IN ENGLISH.

Theocritus, Bion, and Moschus. Rendered into English Prose, with an Introductory Essay, by A. Lang, M.A. Macmillan & Co.

Theocritus. Translated into English Verse by C. S. Calverley. London: Bell & Daldy. 1869.

It was a fortunate thought to reprint in the "Golden Treasury" series Mr. Lang's translation, which appeared nine years ago in a less accessible form. Theocritus is an author little known or read in this country even by college-bred men; yet the reader of taste unacquainted with Greek, who is beguiled by this charming little volume, will feel, even through the medium of a foreign language, that "a new planet swims into his ken," that he has discovered a thing of beauty and a treasure for ever. If he is familiar with the literature of modern Europe, he will recognize here the original of many echoes and imitations, from the 'Aminta' to 'Hermann and Dorothea,' from Spenser's 'Shepherd's Calendar' to the 'Idyls of the King.' He will begin to see why, as Mr. Lowell puts it, "the bees of all climes still fetch honey from the tiny garden-plots of Theocritus."

Mr. Lang points out, in his useful and appreciative introduction, how it is that Theocritus so greatly surpassed the host of his successors and imitators. He partly met and partly created the taste of his age. The fashion of short epic pieces already prevailed, under the influence and example of Callimachus; yet to these he added touches of nature and scenery which were all his own. The pastoral life of Sicily was his exclusive discovery. "Sicily," says Mr. Lang, "showed him subjects which he imitated in truthful art. Unluckily, the later pastoral poets of northern lands have imitated *him*, and so have gone astray from northern nature." This remark is nearly as true of Bion and Moschus and Virgil as of later northern poets. Theocritus had the advantage of them all in that he saw with his own eyes, and rehearsed vividly what he saw. Notwithstanding the romantic air of his pastorals, he was what we now call a "realist." His shepherds are as genuine as Mr. Howells's factory girls, and are far more entertaining companions. They were of that lively Sicilian stock which was never at a loss for a jest, and whose love for poetry was so great that, as Thucydides and Mr. Browning have told us, they were literally ready to sell their captives for a song. They lived in the chosen home of the improvisatori, in a country where the professional story-tellers flourish still; they made music and verses because it was their nature and the ordinary diversion of their lives. The pipes they played upon were not stage properties of pasteboard; they themselves were neither the court porcelain of Virgil and Tasso, nor the rather common clay of Spenser's Hobbinol and Colin Clout, and Allan Ramsay's Gentle Shepherd, nor yet the once fashionable bric-à-brac of the Arcadians, and Fontenelle, and Ambrose Philips. The life of this gay, and graceful, and passionate people, their loves, and quarrels, and musical contests, their smiling landscapes, where Proserpine herself picked flowers, arranged themselves into a series of idyls, that is, little pictures, which captivated the pedants and courtiers of Alexandria, and displayed, we may fairly say, the one touch of genius in an effete and artificial age. It is interesting to observe how often since then these masterpieces in their kind have haunted the fancy of poets far greater than Theocritus could pretend to be. They have the quality which characterizes the best Greek art and literature—a freshness and vigor that is "always young enough to bear children."

This last, indeed, is a special reason that should commend Theocritus to lovers of English literature. Most of our pastoral poetry is already stuff for the antiquarian; but the student who examines Mr. Lang's version of the "Song of Thyrsis" (Idyl i.) and the "Lament for Bion" will notice how curiously these dirges have caught the ear of four poets so diverse in gifts and genius as Spenser, Milton, Shelley, and the late Matthew Arnold. The "Lament for Dido," certainly the most important and melodious poem of the 'Shepherd's Calendar,' follows closely the outlines of Idyl i.; the 'Lycidas' imitates with curious exactness the modulations, the phrases, and even the refrain of Thyrsis; Mr. Arnold's beautiful elegy assumes and alludes to the same poem and the elegy of Moschus; while the splendid pageantry and long-drawn subtle music of the 'Adonais' constitute a series of variations on these simple themes. If Burns never read these Idyls in English, it is hard to guess how he happened upon so striking a parallelism of thought as occurs in his elegy on Captain Henderson. Tennyson, too, has not merely borrowed metaphors here and there from Theocritus, but his 'Idyls of the King' may be considered as modelled on the type of the shorter epics, like the "Dioscuri" and "Hercules the Lion Slayer"; while such sketches as "Dora," "Sea-Dreams," and the "Northern Cobbler" bear a remote but definite kinship to the "Syracusan Ladies" and the "Two Fishermen."

Mr. Lang's version is, as might be expected, graceful and idiomatic, as well as scholarly—how exact and felicitous can only be understood by one who compares it line for line with the original. There are occasional mannerisms which border on affectation, and passages where we should disagree with his interpretation; but this is hardly the place for minute criticism, and the state of the text often leaves several choices open. We believe it would be nearer the Greek in Idyl i., p. 8, as well as more consistent with line 139, to translate "smiling in secret but making a show of heavy anger." In Idyl xxiv., p. 127 ("Arise, ye serving-men stout of heart, 'tis the master calls"), it seems inconsistent with Greek usage to suppose that Amphitryon should speak of himself in the third person as the master (αὐτός), and, on the other hand, very natural that the words should be an echo put in the mouth of a handmaiden. On the next page occurs an awkward sentence in the address of Alcmena to Teiresias: "And how that mortals may not escape the doom that Fate speeds from her spindle, O soothsayer Euerides, I am teaching thee that thyself knowest it right well." The text, though doubtful, is not responsible for this tangle of conjunctions and relatives. One reading gives, "Do I teach *thee*, soothsayer as thou art, and very wise?" We are not sure that the pastorals gain anything by a quaintness of style which belongs to no particular period in our language, and corresponds exactly to nothing in the original. The Doric dialect is not suggested by such an expedient—indeed, this is a crux which none of the translators hitherto have attempted to solve. Professor Blackie asserts that there are "whole idyls which would sound ridiculous in any other language than that of Tam O'Shanter"; but 'Tam O'Shanter' is, we venture to say, much harder and stranger to most Englishmen than the Doric of Theocritus was to an Alexandrian Greek.

If we seek for the complement in verse of Mr. Lang's rendering, we shall find ourselves in some perplexity. Theocritus, who was honored by such imitators as Milton and Shelley, has never fallen into the hands of an English poet to translate. Creech (1684) makes the damsel Cynisca blush

> "That you might light a candle from her nose."

Fawkes (1767), who scorns and ridicules Creech, is himself destitute of a spark of inspiration, though he has caught the swing and fluency of an age of Popery, in lines like

> "Say, sacred Phœbe, whence arose my flame?"

or,

> "A vest her limbs, her locks a caul confines."

Chapman (1820) is learned and appreciative, but his verses are worked out painfully with the conscientious awkwardness of a fifth-form boy. It would be unjust to class with any of these such work as that of Mr. Calverley, pronounced by Mr. Lang the best that has yet appeared. It is certainly spirited and vigorous, perhaps a trifle too epigrammatic, and often most successful where Theocritus is inferior to himself. It is least successful in the pastorals, where he essayed the perilous simplicity of blank verse; and Mr. Calverley's blank verse, it must be confessed, is a failure. It has not the capital fault of Sir Edwin Arnold, who leads us to inquire how passages of the Mahābhārata came to be written in the style of Lord Tennyson; but its numbers are somewhat halting and mathematical. It falls far short of the melodious cadences of the song of Thyrsis, and the "Harvest Home," or the passionate rapidity of the monologue of the betrayed Sicilian sorceress.

There remains still, in our opinion, an opportunity for some one to accomplish for this bit of Sicilian life what Fitzgerald does in his "Saláman and Absál" for Oriental manners and scenery; to give some true impression of warmth and tone, without which the beauty of a poem is betrayed and undone in a foreign language; to reproduce, not this or that particular tree or cloud or rock, but the color and atmosphere and enchantment of that delightful pastoral landscape which Mr. Lang has photographed with so much merit and dexterity.

HOWARD'S DEVELOPMENT OF THE TOWNSHIP.

An Introduction to the Local Constitutional History of the United States. By George E. Howard, Professor of History in the University of Nebraska. Vol. I. Development of the Township, Hundred and Shire. Baltimore: Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University. 1889. 8vo, pp. 526.

Prof. Howard had a most interesting sub-

ject in the development of our municipal system, and we heartily regret that we cannot express ourselves as satisfied with the result. To trace the formation of those primitive communities which collectively form the State and the nation, is an instructive task, not heretofore accomplished by any one, and yet entirely practicable, since the materials are ample and easily accessible. Especially useful will it be to explain the difference between the New England town and the Southern county, since both systems have contended for preference in the great West, and will continue to influence the construction of States in the future.

We will first examine Mr. Howard's work upon the New England system, as the evidences in this case are most ample, and thousands of competent critics can judge of the correctness of his conclusions. Although Mr. Howard abounds in citations and has used the latest publications, he does not seem to give proper force to certain undeniable facts. In a word, he starts with a theory, and that is one unfortunately contrary to the opinion of all New England writers. His theory is thus stated on p. 51:

"In the transplanting of English local organisms to American soil two remarkable phenomena attract attention. On the one hand, there is so much that is new in constitutional names and functions, so much of original expedient and experimentation, as to render New England town government almost unique, while at the same time its continuity in general outline with that of the mother country can be plainly discerned. On the other hand occurs a most interesting example of institutional retrogression. Many features of the primitive village community are revived. The colonists go back a thousand years and begin again; or, to speak with greater accuracy, new life is infused into customs which, though passing into decay, are yet not wholly extinct in the old English home."

Mr. Howard finds this prototype in the "Mark," a division concerning which little can be known, and therefore a safe exemplar. He brings together, with unnecessary detail and with a mild surprise, the powers, duties, and officers of a New England town, unable, even with the aid of his "Mark," to see why they sprang into existence. In all this he ignores the patent causes which any New Englander would tell him explained the whole system. He has not a word to say of the influence of the Puritan clergy in the early legislation, and hence he fails to understand what is simple and easy. He thinks that the "jealous watchfulness of the community" to control its membership and the disposal of communal rights was "an interesting feature of primitive Teutonic life reproduced in the New World." Every one else is aware that this jealousy in New England was entirely a matter of religious polity. The settlement was made for members of the same faith and church, and all heretics were excluded. But if of the faith, whether English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, French, or even Indian, they were welcome.

"Finally," Mr. Howard says, "the archaic type of New England society is revealed by its astonishing publicity. The majority in town-meeting assembled, or through their representatives in the general court, exercised a supervision over personal conduct and many of the transactions of private business, almost painfully minute; witness the marvellous subdivision of public duties and the incredible number of local functionaries."

Here Mr. Howard's wonder would be lessened if he were to study Mr. Dexter's books, for example, and see what a Puritan church was. The ruling idea of such a church was, that every member was bound, within certain limitations, to submit his soul, his conscience, and his conduct to the control of his fellow-members. What confession is to the Roman Church, the admission to membership is to the Puritan Church. Any one who reads the confessions made preparatory to admission, will understand that thereafter there was nothing to be concealed. History confirms the statement that, even to the present day, this open brotherhood of souls is the theory of this church, maintained in practice as far as outside influences will allow. It is no revival of Teutonic ideas, but the result of seventeenth-century thought, applied to the theories of the Old Testament, and wrought out by modern logic to utterly absurd conclusions.

When the first code of laws for Massachusetts was proposed, Rev. John Cotton was prepared with a scheme taken entirely from Moses. It was rejected, but the Body of Liberties was prepared and accepted; and this code, though drawn by a minister, was based expressly on the common law of England. This fact is beyond dispute, and should save Mr. Howard from a needless digression backwards for ten centuries. The Rev. Nathaniel Ward of Ipswich drew the code, the citizens examined and perhaps revised it, and five years later, in 1646, the authorities are cited in defence thereof.

So, again, in regard to the number of local officers, Mr. Howard is unnecessarily surprised. The number was great because the pay was small and the duties arduous. Hence a light burden was laid upon many by assigning a few duties to each. The emigrants were men of character and means. They came to an entire wilderness, bringing with them the necessity of reproducing what forms were essential to civilization, or of reverting to barbarism. They did not go back ten centuries, but they simply repeated in substance what was familiar to them. They had no hierarchy, but their church system was no novelty; no armies of the Crown, but they knew enough to proceed from train-bands to regiments, and to appoint the necessary superior officers. They had no squires on the bench, no constables, no custom-house officials, no guilds or merchant companies, but they knew that law must be enforced, that trade must be regulated, fraud prevented or punished; their numerous officers were a necessity merely to carry out these requirements. In fact, there is nothing more certain than that the Puritans invented little or nothing, that they were neither wiser nor more notional than their kindred in England, and that, above all, they intended to live by English laws and customs as closely as possible. This is, indeed, a well-known peculiarity of the English race. Satirists never tire of representing John Bull as demanding "bif-steeks" in Paris, Cross & Blackwell's pickles in Cairo, and Bass's ale in Calcutta. And in more essential matters he is equally prejudiced, immovable, and persistent.

That the New England town as a political factor is well worthy of study is true, but not during the period covered by Mr. Howard's labors. To our mind, the interesting study would be to trace therein the progress of the English nature, after six centuries of development in restricted England, through two centuries of involuntary expansion in free America. When and how the hereditary respect for rank and position was lost; when and how our present conditions obtained; above all, what is to be the probable issue—these are the questions which provoke and baffle inquiry.

Despite Mr. Howard's theory, we should say that the New England township was an accidental grouping of as many church-members as could reside within reach of one meeting-house. Of necessity it received, later on, citizens who were not church-members, but never enough to change the control. This community was governed largely by the theory of that church of the brotherhood of the members, tempered by the sense of educated men, and the effects of the common law of England. Such they were and such they still remain, and a town-meeting, certainly up to the last generation, was a meeting of friends and relatives, ordering for the common good such things as individuals cannot do. The church, the school, and the roads are the main topics, and these are emphatically matters requiring combined action.

As to our political system, it is true that the Legislature in Massachusetts was not a very close imitation of the House of Commons, but its representative feature was evidently taken from the English practice. If the basis of the power of suffrage was widened, it was merely because the electors were exceptionally alike. In England centuries of evolution had arranged a cumbrous and artificial system, but most of the emigrants to New England were of the class that voted for members of Parliament. Hence there was no novelty in the idea of a representative assembly, after the number of freemen and the expanse of settlement prevented a mass-meeting. We must, therefore, consider this portion of Mr. Howard's book as unsound and misleading, and we especially regret that students should be thus encouraged to waste time in tracing fanciful analogies to forgotten Teutonic customs, when they ought to be reading the very words of the founders in Winthrop and Bradford, studying the noble ideas contained in the Body of Liberties, and tracing the course of existing laws through the various codes of the past two centuries. There is ample space for historic search if the student starts no earlier in the past than the English Reformation.

We find also much misapplied ingenuity and reading in Mr. Howard's theories about the counties or shires in New England. History and common sense show that the county is an accident of the representative system. For example, a town can build and take care of a road within its limits; but to secure a proper continuity of roads, and especially to make lines of travel from one point to a remote one, the towns must be aggregated and act in concert. Courts in the same way are graded from the local or municipal court to the Supreme Court, and convenience requires several centres of districts not unwieldy. Hence come the familiar groupings of counties, utterly lacking in symmetry, but convenient in practice. It is a waste of time to compare them with English shires, which served a different purpose and had a different origin. Why force a parallel between a Roman legion and a sewing-circle in Oldtown? Both are assemblies of persons, and Macedon and Monmouth were once pressed into a similar comparison. As to the Southern plan of settlement, making the hundred or county or other division the unit, Mr. Howard tells us less than we expected. So far as we can judge it is now, especially at the West, merely the township diluted, with more territory, fewer inhabitants, and smaller duties.

We are impressed with a feeling that the writer has more industry than assimilative power, and that his materials have mastered him. We find many interesting facts collected, and yet we are at a loss to see the reason of their selection.

Whither? A Theological Question for the Times. By Charles Augustus Briggs, D.D., Davenport Professor of Hebrew and the Cognate Languages in the Union Theological

Seminary. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889. Pp. xi, 303.

PRESIDENT HARRISON the other day took occasion to speak of the Presbyterians of this country as constituting "a rock of truth against the sword of error." That commonplace finds a startling commentary in this book of a distinguished Presbyterian teacher—a book which will not fail to be dubbed a "miserable interrogatory" by many of his coreligionists—wherein he undertakes to show that the Presbyterian rock is disintegrating into shifting sand. Bringing the most reputable theologians of his denomination face to face with the creed of their church, he asserts (and we must say proves) that they have stiffened some of its doctrines (Dr. L. W. Bacon may find here proof of his favorite contention that unregenerate human nature likes its theology "tough"), have entirely forgotten others, and have departed far from still others. It is not for us, of course, to interfere in what bids fair to be a family quarrel; but Dr. Briggs takes up many more important matters than loyalty to a particular creed. He says of the state of religion in Great Britain and America, that it is in "a very unsatisfactory condition. There is a widespread dissatisfaction with the Old Theology. . . . The ministers are not preaching the distinctive features of the Old Theology, or the peculiar features of their own denominations, because the people are tired of them and will not have them. The ministers do not care to preach to empty pews, and besides not a few of the ministers sympathize with their people in these matters. The ministers are in a feverish condition." This unrest and drifting suggest the question of the book, and the answer the author gives to it is found in his closing chapter, where he advocates untrammelled discussion and investigation, the removal of bondage to creeds, Christian union or alliances at least, and allegiance to the truth alone.

Dr. Briggs, in addition to great distinction in his own specialties, has won recognition as perhaps the first authority on the history of the Westminster Assembly. Some of the pages in this book are echoes from controversial writings of his which appeared in the *Presbyterian Review* and elsewhere, and in which he flung such masses of extracts from original Westminster sources at the heads of his antagonists that they could only gasp out with President Patton: "It does not tend in the slightest degree to reconcile us to these opinions to say that the reformers held them." It bespeaks a great deal of far-seeing strategy on the part of one much of whose own teaching has brought the angry charge of "innovator" against him, thus to have equipped himself so masterfully as to extort the confession of innovation from his very adversaries.

Even rarer than his great learning is Dr. Briggs's boldness, as displayed in this book and on many occasions. Probably a layman cannot at all estimate the audacity required in a Presbyterian professor to lead him to put forth this book, to assert that "it is the theology of the elder and younger Hodge that has in fact usurped the place of the Westminster theology in the minds of a large proportion of the ministry of the Presbyterian churches, and now stands in the way of progress in theology and of true Christian orthodoxy"; to invent the term, "orthodoxism," which "assumes to know the truth and is unwilling to learn; it is haughty and arrogant, assuming the divine prerogatives of infallibility and inerrancy; it hates all truth that is unfamiliar to it, and persecutes it to the uttermost." A few Presbyterian ministers may think as Dr. Briggs does, but who else would have dared to say, as he does, of "not a few theologians":

"They have assumed an unfriendly attitude to science, philosophy, and history, and even the scientific study of the Scriptures. They have refused to taste the fruits of modern methods and modern learning. They have appropriated with marvellous caprice whatever seemed to suit their purpose. They have delighted in any little flaws and mistakes of scholars. They have stoutly resisted everything that was antagonistic to their traditional system. They have been impatient of new truths, and branded them as novelties. They have made Christian theology the enemy of human learning so far as they have been able to exert an influence. They have been the true successors of the Pharisees. They have zealously contended to do what the Roman Catholic hierarchy failed in doing. They have not succeeded in retarding human learning, but they have alienated a large proportion of the scholars of the world from the Christian Church."

Yet some abatement must be made from our praise even of such high courage. One gets here and there in the book an unpleasant impression of mental reserves; it does not seem as if the author were frankly speaking out his full mind on the subjects he is touching. This is notably the case in his allusions to the vexed questions of eschatology now troubling the churches. The explanation of this attitude is given by Dr. Briggs himself: "There is a freer theological atmosphere in England and Scotland, but in Ireland and America orthodoxism and traditionalism are still predominant, and thinkers are obliged to work cautiously." "Cautiously," the only inference is, lest the thinker should all at once find himself put out of the synagogue. This is a painful note in the book upon which we do not care to dwell. As a whole, it is a remarkable work, and is sure to receive the attention which it challenges.

Life of Sir Robert Peel. By F. C. Montague. [International Statesmen Series. Edited by Lloyd C. Sanders.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

MR. MONTAGUE'S Life of Sir Robert Peel is an excellent little biography. It gives within a small compass a complete résumé of the events of his career, and such a picture of the times in which he lived as enables us to understand them. This is accompanied by a few extracts from his speeches, as illustrations of his method in debate, together with estimates of him by his contemporaries, his own justification of the leading events of his life, a few characteristic anecdotes, and finally a critical summing up by the author. The small, compact volume represents a very serious amount of work, for the sources of information with regard to Sir Robert Peel, leaving his own speeches aside, are voluminous, and it is difficult if not impossible to say anything very new of him. The object of alternate laudation and obloquy, while he lived, his character has been examined, criticised, extolled, abused, weighed and measured, until the most that can be done is to give a good summary—and this is just what the reader of Mr. Montague's life finds.

The period in which Peel did his work is one of extraordinary interest. It embraces all the great reform movements which brought about the modern English political system—Catholic and Jewish emancipation, the reformed representation, fiscal and poor-law reform, and the establishment of freedom of trade. Sir Robert Peel, strict Conservative as he was by instinct and training, was one of the chief agents by which these reforms were introduced, and he therefore occupies the singular position of a Conservative Prime Minister who is chiefly memorable for the defeats inflicted on his party at his own hand. For this he suffered while living, and his reputation suffers now; but we presume that most people have long since made up their minds that his position was conscientiously taken, and that Disraeli's diatribe upon him as a burglar of other men's ideas was without foundation in fact. The most that can be said to his discredit is that he consented once or twice to take office to pass the measures of his opponents, whereas he might better have let his opponents do their own work. But that Peel did this for the mere sake of power and position, that he was a traitor to his party for base or selfish reasons, is an accusation to which his whole career gives the lie. His case was one of those rare ones in which a highly conscientious and intelligent man is called upon to pass upon measures as to which his conscience continually calls him in one direction and his party allegiance in another. Whatever he does, he is sure to be blamed; and it is the best proof of Peel's consistency and honor that the further we get from the party rancor and hatreds of the time, the dimmer and dimmer become the echoes of the accusations against him, and the more unanimous the verdict as to his disinterestedness. Compare him, for instance, with his successor, Disraeli, extolled to the skies as he was for his party loyalty. How can the real services of the two men to their country be compared? Party loyalty is undoubtedly the sort of service which brings in most immediate returns, and apparent disloyalty to party is the one vice which politicians most execrate. But to accomplish great and needed public objects against the wishes and inclinations of one's party, to make use of the loyalty of party followers for the benefit of the country at large rather than for that of the party—these are services which command more and more respect as time goes on.

Peel can hardly be said to have had an original mind, except in the matters of finance and Parliamentary business, in both of which he was readily acknowledged as eminent. But men of original minds are not usually party leaders, and, with great popular reforms, the more we investigate, the more difficult we usually find it to ascertain from whose brain they first actually sprang. To conscientious conservatives who try to preserve what we already have, and only yield to change when it becomes unavoidable, the sanity and balance of what we know as English civilization certainly owes much, and to none more than to Peel, a man in whom we always feel the presence of a character peculiarly English, as well in its faults as in its virtues.

Calendar of Wills Proved and Enrolled in the Court of Husting, London, A. D. 1258—A. D. 1688. Edited by Reginald R. Sharpe. Part I., A. D. 1258—A. D. 1358. London: 1889. 8vo, pp. xlviii, 834.

THIS work, printed by order of the Corporation of the City of London, is of great value both to the historian and genealogist. "It may fairly claim to possess more than ordinary interest, for the reason that it presents to the reader a *précis* of early wills which, in point of number and antiquity, are unequalled by any others within the United Kingdom." The Introduction gives a detailed account of the history and constitution of the Court of Husting. There is also an appendix containing the only complete lists of Aldermen recorded in the city's archives during the period embraced by this

volume. The work will be completed in a second volume.

The book is ably edited by Dr. Sharpe, the Records Clerk of the City of London, and the Introduction displays much careful research. The earliest reference to the Court of Husting given by the editor (p. i) is taken from the Laws of Edward the Confessor. A more reliable and earlier reference is to be found in Kemble's 'Codex Diplomaticus,' iv, 304, where we learn that Ethelgyfu bequeathed to the monks of Ramsey "duos cyphos argenteos de xii. marcis ad pondus Hustingiæ Londoniensis." This passage shows that the Court of Husting was in existence before the Norman conquest. The editor illustrates the close relationship and interdependence existing between London and other municipalities by an interesting charter granted to Oxford by Henry III. Dr. Sharpe is evidently not aware that a similar charter was received by Oxford from Henry II. It is printed in the later editions of Stubbs's 'Select Charters.' In the archives of London (Letter-Books and Rolls of Pleas) there are other valuable documents illustrating this dependence of Oxford upon London, to which the editor should have called attention.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Appeal to Pharaoh: The Negro Problem, and its Radical Solution. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. Handbook of Psychology: Senses and Intellect. Henry Holt & Co.
Blavatsky, Mme. H. P. The Key to Theosophy. New York: W. Q. Judge. $1.50.
Buswell, H. F. The Statute of Limitations and Adverse Possession. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Carlton, W. City Legends. Harper & Bros.
Collis, Mrs. General C. H. T. A Woman's War Record, 1861–1865. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Croswell, S. G. The Law Relating to Executors and Administrators. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
De Vere, Prof. S. Molière's Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme. With Notes. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Duruy, V. History of France, abridged by Mrs. M. Carey. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Fothergill, Caroline. Diana Wentworth: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 45 cents.
Gibson, L. H. Convenient Houses, with Fifty Plans for the Housekeeper. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Greek Anthology. W. J. Gage & Co. 40 cents.
Hall, Mary L. Our World Reader No. 1. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Hawthorne, N. The Gray Champion, and Other Stories and Sketches. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Heilprin, Prof. A. The Bermuda Islands. Philadelphia (Academy of Natural Sciences): The Author.
King, W. F. H. Classical and Foreign Quotations. 2d ed. Thomas Whittaker.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 10, 1889.

The Week.

THE two days' meeting of the Civil-Service-Reform League last week in Philadelphia was from every point of view a striking evidence of the growing interest in the subject. The strangest peculiarity of the occasion was the extraordinary amount of ammunition in possession of the League taken from the spoilsmen. Mr. Curtis's arraignment of the Administration, which was in parts almost blasting in its severity, owed a large part of this severity to the quotations he was able to make from Gen. Harrison's pledges and the pledges of the party platform. And we must be allowed to add that the picture he was able to draw of the tergiversations, both of the President and of the party, was considerably darkened by the recollection present to every mind of the professions of piety made both by the President himself and his Postmaster-General, Mr. John Wanamaker. The nails which Mr. Curtis inserted into the consciences of these two worthies were, without any formal mention of them, driven home and clinched on the other side by an admirable paper read by Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte of Baltimore on "Civil-Service Reform as a Moral Question." Nothing more trenchant—indeed, we may say, nothing so trenchant—on this aspect of the question has, we think, been written by any one. We are glad to say it will be printed by the League for distribution, and a copy of it ought to be placed in the hands of every clergyman in the Union.

It says, with a force and vigor which is seldom found in sermons, what every minister in the country ought to have been saying occasionally for the last twenty years. That the use of a public office for any purpose but the efficient service of the taxpayer is a breach of trust; that the payment of your own private debts with it is theft or embezzlement; that lying about the way you will use the public service, or about the way you have used it, is the ordinary lying denounced in Scripture and by all moralists of all ages as one of the worst of vices; that the duty of the citizen towards fraud and falsehood in the conduct of the Government is precisely the same as the duty of the citizen towards fraud and falsehood in the conduct of private business—such were the theses which Mr. Bonaparte maintained and elucidated with remarkable vigor. Mr. Swift of Indiana, too, gave point to the whole by his emphatic and pregnant remark, that "the spoils system could not survive the publication of the facts"—that is, that it contains so many of the villanies which disgrace human nature, so much of the fraud, the falsehood, the cruelty and injustice, that if the facts could be properly laid before the American people, they would kill it as they killed slavery, and as they are trying to kill forgery, embezzlement, and violence.

Mr. Blaine's speech to the Pan-American Conference was a sonorous evasion of the chief ostensible object for which the Conference was drawn together, viz.: "to encourage such reciprocal commercial relations as will be beneficial to all, and secure more extensive markets for the products of each of said countries." Not one word is to be found in Mr. Blaine's speech on this subject, although he had much to say about the beauties of peace and good-will among men, and that sort of thing. Such talk always sounds well, whether in Sunday-school or on the rostrum of a graduating class. There is nothing to be said against it; but it would have had more point and force if we were in the habit of quarrelling with our neighbors of South and Central America. It is true that they do quarrel among themselves sometimes, and that in one instance we came near "mixing ourselves in." That time was when Mr. Blaine was Secretary of State. So far as we may take his speech as a promise not to do so any more, it is appropriate, and should be thankfully received. In other respects it comes far short of public expectation. There was, indeed, an allusion to steamship subsidies, but none to the "reciprocal commercial relations" which are indicated in the first section of the Conference Act as one of the special objects of the Conference. On the contrary, he said that we would "not seek to form any selfish alliances against the older nations, from which we are proud to claim inheritance," thus quieting the fears lately expressed abroad lest this Conference might adopt tariffs to our advantage and to their detriment. The inference to be drawn from this passage in the speech is, that no commercial advantages are sought or expected, since the phrase "selfish alliances" has no other than a commercial signification.

The reason why no allusion was made to this subject is, that reciprocity involves the admission of wool, copper, and sugar from those countries to our markets free of duty. These are the only exports of magnitude from South American countries that are not already on our free list. Coffee, india-rubber, Peruvian bark, hides, and raw dye-stuffs are now admitted free. We have no trading capital for the admission of our manufactures to those countries on better terms than those of Europe, unless wool, copper, and sugar are used as such. But this will not be allowed by the wool-growers, the copper syndicate, or the Sugar Trust, if they can prevent it. Nor will the subject be introduced at all if Mr. Blaine's Arcadian programme of peace and good-will, accompanied by steamship subsidies, is carried out. We shall have a deal of platitudes about the ill consequences and heavy cost of standing armies and great navies, and about the beauties of arbitration as a means of settling disputes—all very proper, but very useless in a case where disputes are rare and where consequently armies and navies are not wanted—but we shall not have the embarrassing topic of reciprocal commercial relations to deal with, although this was the ostensible object of the Conference. The South American delegates will be as much relieved as our own to have this troublesome question shelved, because they would be very reluctant to impose differential duties against European goods.

Gov. Hill has lost no time in assuming full responsibility for the ticket which he had his party nominate at Syracuse. He made a speech at Kingston on Thursday in which he defended the candidates for Comptroller and Attorney-General from the attacks which have been made upon them in connection with the ceiling scandal, declared officially that the platform which he himself wrote for the Convention to adopt "is impregnable," and pronounced the chief acts of himself as Governor to be fully deserving of all the praise that he himself gave them in his platform. The speech was defensive in character throughout, and in this respect it is a true keynote for the Democratic campaign. In losing no time in defending his candidates for Comptroller and Attorney-General for their conduct in the ceiling matter, the Governor is doing no more than his duty in the premises. They were simply carrying out his orders and protecting his interests in the course they followed. He is the man who is primarily responsible for all the Democratic share in the scandal, and it is only just that he should assume the burden of its defence.

We have been requested by several of our readers for "pointers" upon the relative merits of the two New York State tickets to be voted for in November. It is a somewhat difficult task to say which of the two tickets it is most desirable to support. In point of personnel, the Republican ticket is unquestionably superior to the Democratic, taking both as wholes. When the candidates are considered individually, we are not able to see that the Democratic nominees for Secretary of State and for State Engineer are inferior to the Republican nominees for the same offices; but it seems to be incontestable that the Democratic nominees for Comptroller, Attorney-General, State Treasurer, and Judge of the Court of Appeals are inferior in many respects to the Republican nominees for those offices. If a voter wishes to support either ticket entire, we should say without hesitation that he will vote for the largest number of fit candidates by depositing a Republican ballot. There are no smirched candidates upon that ballot, and if the Convention which had nominated it had not been a subservient Platt body, and if support of it did not imply approval of

the course of the Harrison Administration in breaking its most solemn pledges in regard to the distribution of spoils and the appointments to office, and of its pension and tariff profligacy, it would be easy to advise everybody who wished to put good men in office to vote for it.

Nothing more remarkable has been accomplished by President Harrison than his transformation of the despised "Tom" Platt of a few years ago into the respected and powerful Thomas C. Platt of the present day. It is only about eight years since Platt left the United States Senate, after having won by his servile course there the universal title of Conkling's "Me Too." His reputation was poor enough then, but it fell to far lower depths after the revelations were made at Albany which forced him to withdraw his name from the Legislature as a candidate for reëlection. During the years which followed that ignominious retirement from public office and public sight, he did nothing which commanded attention except to organize his rag-disinfecting ring in the Quarantine service. He was still an insignificant and despised politician, so far as the public knew much of his operations, when President Harrison surprised the country by leaving Warner Miller prostrate "outside the breastworks," and turning over to Platt all the Federal patronage of the State of New York. In the twinkling of an eye, all the Republican organs stopped speaking of him as "Tom," and began to mention him as Mr. Platt, or more often as ex-Senator and the Hon. Thomas C. Platt. The *Tribune*, which for years could find no terms too contemptuous to apply to him, prefers now the form of ex-Senator, though that recalls more than any other the title of "Me Too." Since his demonstration of "power" at the recent Republican Convention, Platt has risen to great heights in Republican estimation. We find many such tributes as the following in the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, which, alluding to a remark that Platt is the greatest party organizer and manager that New York has seen since Martin Van Buren, says: "Considering that Thurlow Weed, Roscoe Conkling, Samuel J. Tilden, and Daniel Manning have appeared upon the scene in the interval, this is high praise in its way; but there are thousands of persons in this country, Democrats as well as Republicans, who think the estimate not at all extravagant."

The elections in the new States in the Northwest appear to have resulted as had been expected, the Republicans carrying all of the four except Montana, where the Democrats elected Governor and Legislature, and the Republicans the Congressman. The Republicans will thus increase their strength in the Senate by six votes against an increase of two for the Democrats—a net Republican gain of four. South Dakota will have two Representatives in the House, and each of the other States one, all of the five being Republicans. This will increase the membership of the lower branch of Congress from 325 to 330, and require 166 to make a quorum. The Republicans had 164 Representatives before last Tuesday's elections, and are now assured of 169. At the very best, however, they can have at the start only three above a quorum. They hope to increase the size of their majority by turning out Southern Democrats whose claims to their seats are disputed; but any display of outrageous partisanship will be rendered extremely difficult by the fact that the Democrats can at any time refuse to vote, after the example set by the Republicans in the past, and leave the Republicans helpless for lack of a quorum, unless they have their whole strength in the hall, which it is always difficult, and often impossible, to secure. The choice of Republican Senators from North Dakota, South Dakota, and Washington assures that party 45 of the 84 members of the upper branch.

Monday's election in Connecticut was rendered noteworthy by the first trial of the new secret-ballot law which was passed by the last Legislature. This has sometimes been referred to in the press as the Australian system, but only through gross ignorance of its features. It really has only a few of the cardinal features of that system, including the provision of booths where the voters prepare their ballots free from inspection, and the prohibition against the presence of outsiders in the vicinity of the polls. These are great gains over the old system of allowing the briber or bulldozer to follow his victim to the box and see that he deposits the ballot which he has been paid or forced to cast, and the advantages of the change are promptly and generally recognized. The ultimate effect must inevitably be to arouse public sentiment in favor of carrying the reform still further, and securing the further advantages which can be gained only through the provision of ballots by the State. The defeat of Prohibition at this election was the most overwhelming yet encountered in any State, the vote being nearly three to one against the proposed amendment.

The new ballot law for Tennessee, passed by the last Legislature of that State, has been declared unconstitutional by the Chancery Court of Knoxville because it fails to provide for voting by illiterates, and thereby really prescribes an educational qualification. The case will be appealed to the Supreme Court, but the decision is likely to be sustained. The advocates of the measure are much disappointed by this reverse, as they hoped to have their next elections held under the new system, but they have only themselves to blame. They were warned by the promoters of ballot-reform in the North who saw their law when it was before the Legislature, that precisely this fate would befall it if they did not make provision for illiterates, but they refused to profit by the advice. The Kentucky law for Louisville has met a similar fate for the same reason, though the other provisions of it have been held to be constitutional by the Court. Both laws are in other respects excellent adaptations of the Australian system, and the adverse decisions in no way affect the important principles of that method of voting.

The Massachusetts Democrats may not achieve success in the pending campaign, but they have at least deserved it. William E. Russell, their candidate for Governor, is a young and progressive man, who has made an excellent reputation as an executive by his service in the Mayoralty of Cambridge, and is admirably qualified for the higher office. The platform is uncommonly clear and forcible upon all the live issues of the day. It declares for free raw materials, lower duties upon the necessaries of life, and closer commercial relations with Canada and Mexico; opposes the scheme of a national election law, as "an unjustifiable extension of the functions of the General Government, opposed to the spirit of the Constitution, and dangerous to the liberties of the several States"; expresses sound views regarding the civil service; and contains a pension plank so free from the regulation clap-trap, and so full of the proper spirit toward the question, that it may well serve as a model.

The proceedings going on before the "referee" in the Giblin case are of the most extraordinary character. Giblin shot a man in his own store, on whom he had tried to pass a counterfeit bill. He was tried with all the tedious elaboration of our procedure in such cases, convicted, and sentenced to death. He went to the Court of Appeals with the usual number of exceptions, but failed, was resentenced, and the day appointed for his execution. He got a reprieve from the Governor on the ground that he could produce fresh testimony, and an inquiry was ordered before a young and inexperienced lawyer, who is figuring as the "referee." Far from confining himself to an examination of the fresh evidence, however, the referee is actually trying the whole case over again in the usual way, examining all the witnesses, and hearing counsel on both sides. One of the results is, that the chief witnesses for the prosecution are now contradicting their former testimony, either because they have been "got at" or because they feel sorry for Giblin. A more absurd caricature on criminal justice was never seen, and it comes comically close on our severe criticism of English procedure in the Maybrick case. We all, or most of us, felt sorry for the English in that case because they had no "Court of Criminal Appeal." We have one, but we find it will not do, and have set up besides a burlesque of the Home Secretary in the person of a youthful "referee," who is apparently competent to set aside the verdict of the jury, not only on the law, but on the facts.

The burning question at the annual conference of the friends of the Indian at Lake Mohonk last week was the attitude of the Government towards what are known as "contract schools" on the reservations in the West. There are seventy-one such schools under the control of various Protestant de-

nominations and of the Roman Catholics, where buildings, outfit, and teachers are provided by these religious bodies, while the Government contracts to pay annually a certain amount per capita for the board and clothing of pupils and towards the salaries of teachers. Besides these seventy-one "contract schools," there are 159 Government boarding-schools, all of both classes giving some industrial training. Of late years, chiefly, as it would seem, through the greater earnestness of the body at large, aided somewhat by the superior energy of their agent in Washington, the Catholics have been securing control of a larger and larger proportion of the "contract schools," until last year they received about three-fourths of the public money thus apportioned. Some timid Protestants have become alarmed at this activity, and they seem to have infected Commissioner Morgan of the Indian Bureau with their apprehension, for he has announced it to be his policy to allow the starting of no more "contract schools," and to withdraw gradually from those now existing the aid which they receive from the Government. This policy is strongly opposed by such leading Protestants and friends of the Indian as Gen. S. C. Armstrong of the Hampton (Va.) Institute—the son, by the way, of one of the first missionaries to the Sandwich Islands; Gen. Francis A. Walker, formerly Commissioner of Indian Affairs; the Rev. Dr. Strieby, President of the American Missionary Association; and Mr. Herbert Welsh of Philadelphia. They take the ground that every offer of assistance in Indian education should be welcomed; that it is infinitely better to have schools with Roman Catholic teachers than no schools at all; and that the thing for Protestants to do is not to refuse to have "contract schools" for fear the Roman Catholics will get more than their share of them, but to beat the Roman Catholics in this competition of benevolence. This certainly seems the common sense view to take of the question, and it will be adopted by the general public, as it was by the great majority of the participants in the Lake Mohonk Conference.

Pythagoras Hall, that famous home of Labor in which District Assembly 49 formerly held its meetings, and more recently its fights, was sold under mortgage foreclosure some months ago. After the mortgage was paid, there remained about $17,000, which was placed in the hands of a receiver. Since that time, claims have been handed in pretty regularly until they amount at present to about $13,000, chiefly for lawyers' and referees' fees, in the litigation which grew out of the quarrels of the Quinn and anti-Quinn factions for control of the Assembly's finances. It is the intention of the receiver to pay all these claims soon and divide up the remaining $4,000 among the members of the successful faction. When this shall have been done, District Assembly 49, the most active strike agency Labor has had here in recent years, will disappear for ever, and with it the Quinns and other Walking Delegates who got such a good living out of the contributions which real but misguided workingmen were induced to put into it.

Columbia College has at last provided itself with a new President in the person of one of its own graduates, Mr. Seth Low of Brooklyn. His reputation is rather that of an administrator than of a scholar; but as regards this, the choice has probably been governed by considerations which have great and just weight in nearly all our growing universities. Their wealth is increasing rapidly, and so is the machinery of instruction, in the shape of libraries, and laboratories, and museums. The working force of professors and tutors, too, is becoming so large that the head needs a great deal of capacity in the way of tact and judgment which is not to be got from books, and which Mr. Low undoubtedly possesses. He has, too, the merit of being still young for a college president, and has given marked proofs already of his ability to grow up to any responsibilities which may be placed on him and which he may be willing to assume. The danger which besets a successful administrator when placed at the head of a university in our time and in this country, is the danger of getting out of touch with learning, and losing sympathy with those who cultivate it for its own sake; but Mr. Low has been and is enough of a scholar himself to avoid it. And we cannot help hoping that he will be able to do something to make Columbia College still more of a social influence in the city than it has ever been; more of a hindrance to that absorption in the pursuit and worship of wealth for which New York is so remarkable.

We do not like to speak of Mr. Low's politics in connection with his appointment, and yet he has made himself so conspicuous in politics by his independence that it is difficult to avoid it. Nothing that he has said or written contained so much promise of intellectual vigor and power of expression as his address at the Cooper Institute in the last canvass, in which he bid farewell to his old party. And it is worthy of note, by those who care for the signs of the times, that now that he has taken the Presidency of Columbia College, every leading university in the country, we believe without exception, is in the hands of men who believe in tariff reform and civil-service reform, or, in other words, who are opposed to government by corruption, no matter by what fine name it disguises itself. This means that the mind and culture of the country are rapidly drifting away from the Republican party as they drifted away from the Democratic party thirty years ago. The party leaders console themselves with the fact that they still retain the old men who can draw the large checks; but they will find, as their progenitors have found in every age, that the great to-morrow always belongs to youth and hope and free thought and free speech. The young men who are passing through the colleges of the country are like the small yearly battalions which the Prussians drilled after Jena, and which their French conqueror thought he could despise, but which finally made up a mighty host which chased him from his throne. The Boston *Journal* reminded President Eliot of Harvard the other day, when he said that he approved of the tariff principles of the Democratic party in Massachusetts, and should vote its ticket, that

> "had a President of Harvard College given utterance to these sentiments forty years ago, the treasury of Harvard College would not have been the recipient of funds from the wealthy benefactors of the College who, under the protective system, were not only able to give employment to large numbers of workingmen to build up towns and cities in New England, but from their surplus to endow Harvard and other colleges."

This argument might, of course, be used to prevent a college president from denouncing gambling-houses, because certainly the keepers would gladly contribute to college funds to secure the silence or approval of the Faculty. We do not mean to compare manufacturers to gamblers, but assuredly it matters little from what source contributions to a college come, if their object is to bribe the professors to teach doctrines which put money in the donors' pockets.

The recent appointment of Count Thun-Hohenstein as Governor of Bohemia was hailed with great satisfaction by the Germans of the Empire, as he was supposed to be hostile to the Young Czech party, whose increasing strength in Bohemia had filled them with alarm. Their consternation and rage may be imagined when the new Governor took occasion to declare that he was in favor of reëstablishing the ancient kingdom of Bohemia—as an integral part of the Empire, of course—and of the crowning of Francis Joseph at Prague. Partly at this declaration itself, and more at the common belief that the imperial Government favors the project, since it is argued that Count Thun-Hohenstein would never have dared to broach the matter without the private backing of Count Taafe, the German press both in Vienna and Berlin has been greatly exercised. The Government newspapers are rather guarded in their references to the matter, though they admit that the scheme has been thought of as a means of satisfying the Young Czechs and inducing them to leave off agitation. They add, however, that the subject is one requiring mature consideration. Meanwhile the Young Czechs have received the announcement of their new Governor with the greatest joy, but already make it clear that the concession would only whet their appetites, and that they would soon press for bringing back Moravia and Silesia into their old places in the Bohemian kingdom. The Germans point out this intention, and say that if Bohemia is made a kingdom, Croatia will soon be urging her claims to a similar distinction; that Hungary will go on to make her relation to the Empire merely that of owning a common ruler, and that, in fact, no limit to the dismemberment of the Empire can be foreseen. What it all witnesses to is the great predominance of the Young Czechs and their ideas in Bohemia. So desperate have the German representatives grown that they have resorted to the extreme measure of abstaining from all part in the Government.

MR. BLAINE'S OPPORTUNITY.

Mr. Blaine has now an opening for useful service, and to acquire honorable fame for his party and himself, such as has rarely been so distinctly presented to one in the Department of State. So far as his speech at the opening of the Pan-American Conference may be taken as a foretaste of his intentions, he will not improve the opportunity, but will throw it aside. It is not the opportunity presented to Franklin which he had the sagacity and courage so to use as to bring a new nation into being, but it is much the same in importance as that which came to Marcy in 1854, and another which came to Fish in 1870, wherein both of those eminent New Yorkers, Blaine's predecessors in the Department of State, proved themselves adequate for the requirements of the great occasion with which each found himself face to face. What Marcy did and what Fish did for the promotion and enlargement of commercial intercourse between ourselves and British North America, an unappreciative Congress subsequently threw away, so that the problem before Pierce and Marcy for solution in 1854 is, thirty-five years afterwards, in front of Harrison and Blaine. The work which Grant and Fish did in 1870-'71 must be done again in 1889, so far as the Northeastern fisheries are concerned. Everything now favors Mr. Blaine and stimulates his ambition. He needs to obliterate the Chilian-Landreau scandal. His immediate predecessor attempted the Canadian negotiation and failed, but out of that failure has come, even from the New England which so worried and thwarted Bayard, a present demand for closer commercial relations with Canada, which opens wider the field for Blaine. A national wish for the establishment of more intimate and better intercourse with the two Americas at the south of us culminated in a law of the last Congress which was intended, no doubt, by Democrats in the House for the benefit of themselves and Cleveland, but which, by the then unexpected Democratic defeat last November, has placed the character of our future relations with South America, Central America, and Mexico in the hands of Mr. Blaine and of the Republican party, which holds both houses of Congress and the treaty-making power, as Cleveland and the Democracy did not.

The State Department is putting about translations from Vienna newspapers to create the impression that the American conference is an executive contrivance by Blaine. Mr. Trescot should stop such silliness. The conference is the work of the Democratic Foreign Affairs Committee of the last House, promoted in the Senate by Senator Sherman. Marcy had, in 1854, both houses of Congress in party sympathy with him (which even the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was not permitted to rupture), and so had Fish in 1870.

The law of the last Congress requiring the President to make an approach, a drawing nearer, to the Spanish-speaking peoples to the south of us has a comprehensiveness not yet fully appreciated. It declares for a customs-union — a most generic and sweeping demand for free trade with South and Central America. No Congress of nations has been called in our day to consider objects and purposes of more transcendent importance than are the eight specifications set forth by the law which Harrison has to execute concerning some twenty independent States. In a word, Mr. Blaine has now delivered into his hands, and those of the Republican party, by the fortunate possession of power in both houses of Congress, the occasion, the opening, the opportune moment to do for free trade over all this hemisphere that which our Federal Constitution did for the forty-odd States and Territories which it now embraces. What Bolivar, Clay, and Adams attempted, but failed to realize, because they struck on the rock of African slavery—the establishment of close, cordial, and reciprocal commercial relations between Spanish America and the United States of North America—Blaine and his party may now accomplish. The Congress of Panama was not planned by Bolivar, and accepted by Monroe, Clay, and Adams, merely to secure the union of Spanish America against Spain, but also to secure union with the great republic at the north. Our relations with Spanish America—thanks to the destruction of slave-labor and the suspicion of our motives which slave-labor always excited in our neighbors—were never better than in 1870, under Grant, despite his San Domingo escapade. Between then and 1885 those good relations were weakened, and notably by the Landreau business. A special message by Grant to Congress in 1870 concerning the Spanish-American republics transmits an elaborate report thereon by Mr. Fish, which has recently been published in the 'International Law Digest' (vol. i., p. 289). It deserves, and will repay, even at the end of nearly twenty years, a most attentive reading.

No President and no head of the Department of State have ever had such an opportunity to unite the whole of our hemisphere in the beneficent bonds of free trade as is now spread before Harrison and Blaine. Could Marcy, one of the greatest men who have conducted the foreign affairs of the country, have had it, what, with slave-labor out of the way, might he not have accomplished? Blaine has a law of Congress at his back, covering the Spanish-American republics and the empire of Brazil, and New England opinion is loudly clamoring for reciprocity with Canada. At the North and in the West are no party-opposing State governments to vex, hamper, and thwart him. Almost every Northern Governor is a Republican; or, wherever the Democrats have a Governor, as in New York, the Legislature is Republican. Can Mr. Blaine rise to the occasion? Can his party colleagues in the Administration of Harrison, and his party associates in the Senate and Congress, lead the movement for free trade over all our hemisphere? The country will, within a short time, see the test applied. Now is the hour for Blaine to show, if he possesses it, real "magnetism" in real diplomacy. If Harrison, Blaine, and the Republican party in Congress can give the country a customs-union and reciprocal free trade with British North America, Mexico, Central America, South America, as well as the British and Spanish West Indies, their hold on the Government at Washington may be prolonged indefinitely, if that hold be not paralyzed by bondage to the spoils system and to the *Tannerism* of the Grand Army of the Republic.

OUR SHIPPING LAWS AND THE AMERICAN CONFERENCE.

It is to be regretted that no Democratic State Convention, dealing in its platform of resolutions with Federal topics, makes nowadays any mention of a Democratic purpose, or even a Democratic desire, to repeal that ancient legislation of 1792 which forbids a foreign-built but American-owned vessel to be registered, enrolled, or licensed as an American vessel.

That is noteworthy at this moment because, if conversations were actually had which are reported in the daily press, or have been correctly given, our present guests from countries south of the isthmus have come hither to the Conference, either persuaded or told by somebody—who is it?—that the Government at Washington will be willing to levy taxes, or otherwise legislate, to diminish rates of freight by vessels from our own ports to the east and west ports of South America. Communication by steam between those ports (especially those on the west coast) and ours is not all that is wished, yet exports thence to us very largely exceed our exports to South America. The balance of trade between ourselves and all the countries south of us is against us by over $100,000,000 a year. During the last decade of our protective taxes our exports to those countries have diminished in value. Since 1883 they have fallen off over 12 per cent., while imports from thence have increased. There are vessels enough for imports to us in excess of exports from us. Why is that? It is the result of our clumsy and stupid tax laws.

If the delegates now flying over our land in swift railway trains will carefully observe the means and the cost of transportation in our cities—such as New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Memphis, and New Orleans—they will probably find them quite as bad and inadequate as is communication from our ports to South American ports. The streets of our great cities are a disgrace to American civilization, and to any real civilization. The hackney carriages and horses are slow, rickety, and expensive. Were the accomplished delegate from Bolivia to take a cab at his banker's in Wall Street and drive to the Union League Club, he would be required to pay $1.50 or $2, or even more, for a wretchedly bad service. The city tariff rate (six, eight, or twelve English shillings) is enough to pay for a hansom over a large part of London or a fiacre over much of Paris. Were it not for a constitutional impediment, there would be more present justification for taxes by Congress to improve the pavements, the streets, and the transportation in our large cities than to provide transportation by sea to and from South American ports.

But if we would, in return for something South America will give to us, increase the number of vessels between those ports and our own, the best and surest way is to remove the exclusion which now prevents a foreign-built and American-owned vessel from getting an American register. The executive department of the Federal Government, perceiving how unjust and absurd such exclusion is, has done all it can to limit the exclusion. It has decided that our citizens can and may buy foreign vessels, own them, navigate them, and wear on them the American flag. It has declared that, on the ocean, our national flag imparts a verity, and that the nationality of the ship corresponds to that of the flag. It has said (as in the case of the *Virginius*) that a foreign government cannot by us be permitted to inquire into the validity of the papers of a vessel wearing our flag, so far as her conduct on the high seas is concerned. It has repeatedly announced that the Government will, up to a certain point, protect a vessel owned entirely by our citizens, even although built abroad, just as it will protect, up to a certain point, an alien (who has acquired an American domicile), so far as concerns foreign governments. No law forbids an American to buy, own, and use, in a certain way, a foreign-built vessel. He can put the flag on it as on his house. Jefferson and Hamilton in 1793, Buchanan in 1853, Marcy in 1856, Seward in 1868, Fish in 1875, Evarts in 1879, and Bayard in 1885 spoke the same voice. When Russian subjects attached a vessel in the North Pacific owned by an American, but built in a foreign shipyard, and even commanded by a German, the State Department demanded reparation by Russia. Our State Department issues sea letters to vessels which, under our absurd laws, cannot be registered, enrolled, or licensed.

And yet our mediæval law of 1792 does declare that a foreign-built vessel cannot be technically a vessel of the United States, because only registered or enrolled vessels can be such, and those built abroad can neither be registered nor enrolled. The Federal courts, not following the Secretaries of State, deny that a vessel, neither registered nor enrolled, under the law of 1792, can be protected as American. A foreign-built vessel owned by American citizens, but not lawfully documented as American, is certainly liable to forfeiture by our law if she brings merchandise from abroad to one of our custom-houses. She cannot, as every one knows, engage in our coastwise trade. She is subjected to all sorts of disabilities, like one having a New York domicile and residence who happens to be an alien. The exclusion of 1792 should be repealed, and Democrats should agitate therefor. If we wish quickly to have steamers, entitled to American registry, which will promote commercial intercourse with South America, our merchants must be permitted to buy them in whatever market they can find what they wish and at suitable prices. Individuals have not the money to indulge, as our Navy Department does, in the luxury of building ocean steamers in American ship-yards. Probably nothing can be expected from Harrison, or Blaine, or the next Congress, in aid of repealing the law of 1792. They will insist that only American-built vessels shall have registry and enrolment. And yet Blaine and the State Department, as well as Harrison, use foreign-made goose-quills, and foreign-made writing paper, and foreign-made envelopes in conducting the public business and the foreign affairs of our Government. Probably Blaine's speech to the Conference the other day was written on British-made paper which paid no custom-house tax. Why may not our merchants have a register or an enrolment for a foreign-built vessel owned by them? Who will risk his reputation as a political economist, as an American and a man of sense, by detailing and vindicating the present reasons?

SOUTH AMERICAN CORRESPONDENCE.

One of the preparations we ought to make for the Exposition in honor of the discovery of America is the production of something which we can offer to the world as the American view of the nature, advantages, and disadvantages of foreign trade. We must, in other words, get ready some answers to the questions: Is foreign trade a good thing or not? Is it desirable to cultivate it or not? If it is, how is it to be carried on, and on what conditions is it dependent for success? The need of this is impressed on us already by the arrival of the Spanish-American delegates. Nobody is as yet apparently prepared to say what we think about foreign trade, or how we would carry it on if we were to engage in it. All that has been said about it thus far on our side touches simply the question of correspondence through the mails. What we need most of all is, it is said, the means of sending mails directly to South America in American and not in English ships. Our merchants must be able to write freely to South American merchants, and, if necessary, our Government must hire ships to carry the letters.

So far so good. But what are the letters to contain? What is the New York trader to say to the trader of Brazil, or the Argentine Republic, or of Chili, or Peru? The correspondence, we take it, will be strictly of a business nature. The American merchant or manufacturer, when preparing his South American mail, will not send descriptions of scenery, or biographical sketches of leading citizens, or reflections on education, or stories of Mr. Depew's visits to England, or of Russell Harrison's reception by the Queen. He will give some good solid business reason for writing at all. He will not say that he must write a few lines because we have a regularly subsidized line of steamers, or because business is slack and he has nothing better to do, or because his daughter has been learning Spanish and wishes to try her hand at correspondence. He will almost certainly propose some business transaction. What kind of transaction will it be? Will it be a proposal to lend money, or borrow money, or invest money, or sell something or buy something, or all of these things together?

It will in all probability be a proposal to sell something to the South Americans. The letters will say that, hearing that the South Americans make large purchases of cotton, or woollen goods, or machinery, we the North Americans should like to get their custom, and some reasons must be given showing that it will be for the advantage of the South Americans to give us their custom. It will not do to say that they must buy of us because we now have a subsidized steamer to carry our letters, or because we and the South Americans live on the same continent. That argument would hardly hold water, because we do not live up to it ourselves. Macy & Co. do not get the custom of the inhabitants of Fourteenth Street simply because the Post-office is efficient or their store is on Fourteenth Street, nor do Park & Tilford rely on propinquity for the sale of their groceries. We may possibly get a hint in the matter from observing the practice of our domestic traders. What they do to get custom is, to offer their goods at lower prices for the same quality than their rivals in business. Their drummers are not allowed to put sentimental considerations in the foreground. They do not ask us to buy of them in honor of auld lang syne, or because their firm is composed of good-looking men, or because their heart is in the right place. They try to sell the goods by representing them as cheap in all senses of the word—that is, because their price is lower than that of similar goods elsewhere. Is this method applicable to foreign trade?

Then there is the important question whether the South American States can afford to buy our goods at any price. They have, like the rest of the world, but little ready cash. They are enabled to deal with England because England takes payment in goods for what she sells them, and this is the custom of all the other nations of the world. They carry on international trade by exchanging commodities. Are we prepared to adopt this old-world system? Are we prepared, in other words, to allow foreign nations to sell in our markets as well as buy in them? This question will have to be settled almost at the outset. The South Americans will want to know whether we insist on hard cash for our exports, because, if so, they will ask incontinently, where are they to get the coin? They keep only enough now for the use of domestic trade and the settlement of their small yearly balances with foreigners. If we ask them to buy largely from us for "spot cash," or even on thirty or ninety-days bills, they will inevitably ask whether we really mean them to "send all the gold out of the country" and produce a terrible financial panic.

It will be readily seen from all this how much will remain to be settled after we have got our subsidized mail communication. The difficulty of sending the letters promptly will be nothing compared with the difficulty of putting the right things into the letters. If our letters do not contain attractive business proposals, of course the mail matter will rapidly decline in bulk, because the South Americans will cease to answer, and there will, in fact, soon be nothing to write about. Our politics influence them but

slenderly or we might send them accounts of our conventions and the progress of harmony in our parties, and the working of our system of "rotation in office"; but this last is one of the features of our system which does not seem to take abroad. In fact, it is often given as one of the reasons why Canada is reluctant to come into the Union, and the South Americans are said to feel in exactly the same way about it. For business men in any country it has no attractions at all. Even Platt does not introduce it into his express company here. On the whole, we doubt if Mr. Blaine could do a more useful thing than to make a draft of a letter to South America as a model for the use of our merchants.

A "SPOT-CASH" PARTY.

POLITICAL parties have been organized in civilized countries during the last five hundred years for a great variety of objects—to effect a change in the religion of the State, in the form of the government, or in the descent of the crown; to bring about a war or secure peace; to extend or restrict the suffrage, to abolish or impose certain taxes or modes of taxation, to procure changes in the currency or the financial system, to drive obnoxious ministers from power, to abolish slavery, and so on. But history down to our day may be searched in vain for a political party which was formed for the express purpose of getting from the Government a definite sum in cash for each member of it. Such a party, however, we have now "in our midst," and, comically enough, it calls itself the "Grand Army of the Republic."

That it is a genuine political party there is no question. It has a definite policy, namely, the procuring of a certain sum for each member in cash from the Treasury. This policy it promotes by the usual party machinery. It holds meetings at which it hears addresses from leading exponents of the "spot-cash" idea. It has organs in the press which defend its claims on the grounds both of expediency and justice. It uses the usual threat of defeat at the polls in case its demands are not complied with. It proclaims boldly, just as the anti-slavery party did and the tariff party is now doing, its intention to subordinate all other questions of public policy to the question it has adopted as its own special question. It tells the President that it does not care what his action may be touching the tariff, or the currency, or the civil service, or our foreign relations; that it will wage war on him with all the political weapons within his reach if he does not see that each member receives from the United States Treasury a certain sum in "spot cash," and more in monthly instalments. This is, we repeat, an absolutely unprecedented phenomenon in politics. Parties have before now made pecuniary gain their object, as the tariff party now does; but it was always to come to them in indirect ways, and in indefinite amounts, through some real or expected increase in the general prosperity of the community or of some large class of the community. Never before has each voter of a party said openly that what he was voting for was so many dollars and so many cents for his private use and behoof, and that he would overthrow, if he could, any government which refused to pay it.

As we have remarked already, one of the oddest and newest things about this party is its name—"Grand Army" of the Republic. Hitherto one of the greatest boasts of republican armies has been that they did not fight for hire, but for love of country, or for fame, or for the "radiant and adored deceit" called honor. If any one had gone to a trooper in Cromwell's "New Model Army," and told him that he knew what he was fighting for, viz., a round sum in cash, or for the chance of pillage, he would undoubtedly have been seized, and, after having been prayed for, and having listened to an appropriate psalm, would have been soundly cudgelled. A fate somewhat similar, barring the religious exercises, would probably have overtaken the person offering a similar insult to any of the veterans of the "Grand Army" which Napoleon led into Russia. There has never been a time when the term "mercenary," or hireling, was not considered an insult to a soldier, or one in which a soldier who, when the war was over, tried to extort money for his services from his own government, was not put in the category of condottieri or Prætorians. The Prætorian Guard at Rome was, in fact, the last organized military body which acted on the principle which our Grand Army is now laying down—that the Government belongs to those who have served it on the battlefield. It was on this very theory that they used to put the Empire up to auction, and more than once sold it to the highest bidder; but then they did not do this in a free State—they did it under a despotism, after the public liberties had been destroyed.

This theory, too, makes a military strike on the battlefield, of which *Puck* furnished us such an amusing sketch the other day, a perfectly serious and rational thing. If men bear arms and serve in the wars solely for what they think they can make out of it in cash in case they survive, it is but reasonable that they should have the rights and privileges of all other kinds of hired labor. One of these rights is the right of striking at the time most inconvenient to the employer, and therefore most likely to bring him to terms. Compositors strike just as the newspaper is going to press; bricklayers just as the builder has concluded a contract under heavy time penalties; railroad servants when traffic is heaviest; telegraph operators when most people are away from home. Why not soldiers in the presence of the enemy, if it is likely to extort an increase of pay or a promise of large pensions? The sole question, of course, for cash soldiers is, what are their services worth to their country? The answer undoubtedly is, whatever the country is willing to pay to escape foreign conquest or dismemberment. Soldiering conducted on this basis, too, would be the most lucrative business in the world, because there is hardly any sum which a government will not pay sooner than open its territory to an enemy. On this basis, if the French Army had been victorious in 1870, it would have been entitled to the amount in cash which the Germans, when they were victorious, exacted as an indemnity; and by parity of reasoning it would seem as if the German Government ought to have divided among its own troops the sum it actually made the French pay. The acceptance of the system, too, would undoubtedly lead to the adoption in all armies of a regular military tariff, somewhat of this kind:

For outpost duty with the privilege of sleeping on picket, per hour	c.
For do. with wakefulness, per hour	c.
For skirmishing in a wooded country, per hour	c.
For skirmishing in the open, per hour	c.
For charging an enemy's works, each charge	c.
For remaining steady under musketry fire, per hour	c.
For do. under artillery fire, per hour	c.
For retreating in good order, per mile	c.
For ditto in disorder, per mile	c.
For obeying orders without discussion, each order	c.
For obeying orders after discussion, each order	c.
For general soldierlike conduct in the presence of the enemy, per day	c.
For service, exclusive of actions and skirmishes and outpost duty, and with the privilege of plunder, per day	c.

THE NEW ELECTORAL COLLEGE.

THE recent elections in the four new States of the Northwest indicate that ten of their thirteen electoral votes are likely to be cast for the Republican Presidential candidates in 1892, and that the other three, those of Montana, may be cast for either party, with slight odds in favor of their going to the Democrats. The change in the complexion of the Electoral College is obviously, therefore, a gain for the Republicans, and some of their newspapers and politicians are already counting upon it as being of sufficient importance to enable them to carry the country at the next national election without the vote of New York State. In order to get a basis for examining the merits of this claim, let us start with the electoral vote as it was cast in the last election:

HARRISON'S VOTE.

California	8	Nevada	3
Colorado	3	New Hampshire	4
Illinois	22	New York	36
Indiana	15	Ohio	23
Iowa	13	Oregon	3
Kansas	9	Pennsylvania	30
Maine	6	Rhode Island	4
Massachusetts	14	Vermont	4
Michigan	13	Wisconsin	11
Minnesota	7		
Nebraska	5		233

CLEVELAND'S VOTE.

Alabama	10	Missouri	16
Arkansas	7	New Jersey	9
Connecticut	6	North Carolina	11
Delaware	3	South Carolina	9
Florida	4	Tennessee	12
Georgia	12	Texas	13
Kentucky	13	Virginia	12
Louisiana	8	West Virginia	6
Maryland	8		
Mississippi	9		168

The Electoral College at that time numbered 401 votes, and 201 were necessary for an election. The College in 1892, unless there shall be a new apportionment in the meantime, which is improbable, will number 414, and 208 will be necessary for an election. There are certain States in both the Harrison and Cleveland lists given above which are by unanimous consent set down as doubtful in all elections. These are Connecticut, Indiana, and New York, and to them will have to be added, in considering the present outlook, California, Montana, Rhode Island, and West Virginia, making the total as follows:

DOUBTFUL STATES.

California	8	Rhode Island	4
Connecticut	6	West Virginia	6
Indiana	15		
Montana	3		78
New York	36		

Of these doubtful States, California, Indiana, New York, and Rhode Island gave their votes, 63 in all, to Harrison; and two, Connecticut and West Virginia, gave their votes, 12 in all, to Cleveland. Taking these 63 doubtful votes from the Republican column reduces its total to 170, or 38 short of a majority. Taking the 12 doubtful votes from the Democratic column reduces its total to 156, or 52 short of a majority. Here is a great apparent advantage in favor of the Republicans, viewing each of these reduced totals as representing the electoral votes which each party can count upon as certain for its candidates in the next election. This advantage is increased by the addition of the new States, for the certain column of the Republicans will be increased by the ten votes of Washington and North and South Dakota, raising it to 180, or only 28 short of a majority, while the Democratic column remains unchanged at 52 short of a majority. Put in tabular form, this calculation, which is the one to give great encouragement to the Republicans, stands as follows:

Surely Republican votes	180
Surely Democratic votes	156
Doubtful	78
Votes necessary for Republican success	28
Votes necessary for Democratic success	52

It will be seen that the Republicans could lose all the doubtful States except New York and win, with eight votes to spare; or they could lose New York and Rhode Island and win with the votes of California, Indiana, and West Virginia, and have one vote to spare; or, again, they could lose New York, Rhode Island, and West Virginia, and win with California and Connecticut and Indiana, and have one vote to spare. Here are the three combinations:

Surely Republican votes	180	Surely Republican votes	180
New York	36	California	8
		Connecticut	6
Total	216	Indiana	15
Surely Republican votes	180	Total	209
California	8		
Indiana	15		
West Virginia	6		
Total	209		

The key of all these combinations is Indiana. The Republicans cannot win, and lose both Indiana and New York. That is the most formidable fact in all their calculations, for it is undeniable that while Indiana is always classed as a doubtful State, it is nevertheless naturally a Democratic State; and the same thing is true of New York. Furthermore, in 1892 the election in Indiana will be held under the new Secret-Ballot Law, a most comprehensive and thorough application of the Australian system, and the "blocks of five" and other devices for carrying it which were used in 1888, will be of no service to the Republicans or to anybody else. The State will have an honest and unbought ballot for almost the first time in its history, and the result of it will inevitably be less favorable to the Republicans than it was in the last campaign. In this view of the case—namely, that the Republican hopes of success without New York depend absolutely upon gaining Indiana—their prospects are not so bright as the first glance at the figures above given would lead one to suppose.

Turning to the Democratic side, it is to be noted, first, that while the total of votes regarded as certain is much smaller than the Republican, the States which represent the great bulk of the votes in the doubtful column, New York and Indiana, are more likely to be carried by the Democrats than by the Republicans. There is no denial in any unprejudiced quarter that the State of New York would have been carried by the Democrats in 1888 if Gov. Hill had not been a candidate and there had been a straight issue between the two national parties, without "deals" or treachery of any kind. With the fifty-one votes of New York and Indiana combined, the Democrats would be only one vote short of their desired majority. They have a good chance to gain this either in Rhode Island, which will vote with a greatly enlarged suffrage in 1892, or in West Virginia or Connecticut, which were Democratic last year, or in Montana, which they carried in the recent election. Here are possible combinations in favor of Democratic success, both with and without Indiana:

Surely Democratic votes	156	Surely Democratic votes	156
New York	36	New York	36
Indiana	15	Indiana	15
Conn. or West Va.	6	Rhode Island	4
Total	213	Total	211
Surely Democratic votes	156	Surely Democratic votes	156
New York	36	New York	36
West Virginia	6	Connecticut	6
Connecticut	6	California	8
Rhode Island	4	Montana	3
Total	208	Total	209

It will be seen that in all these combinations New York is as essential to Democratic success as Indiana is to Republican success. Neither party can claim that it has an easy fight before it, nor is it apparent that Republican prospects have been materially brightened by the additional electoral votes in the Northwest.

GENERAL ROCHECHOUART'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, September 19.

THE inedited memoirs of General Comte de Rochechouart have just been published. His father, colonel of a regiment, was married in 1775 to Mlle. de Morsan and had five children. She was an intimate friend of the Duchesse de Polignac, and was admitted to the little circle of Marie Antoinette at Trianon. She made great efforts during the Revolution in order to obtain the liberation of the Queen. She was obliged to hide herself at Passy, and she afterwards fled to Caen, with two of her children. Leaving them there, she went to England and afterwards to Switzerland. After many sufferings, the young Victor and his brother were taken to Fribourg, in Switzerland, and educated there in the Jesuit school. Their mother had returned to England, where she was more occupied with political intrigues than with her little family. When the French troops entered Switzerland in 1798, she sent for the boys, and, in her letter to the curate of Fribourg, put a draft for 2,000 francs, which was to cover all their expenses for two years and the expenses of the journey. The good curate did not complain of the paucity of the sum. The boys left Fribourg in tears, and by way of Berne and Bâle went to Paris, where their mother had just been allowed to return. She laughed much at the rusticity of their dress and their manners, had them dressed by a Parisian tailor, and took them for a while to England, where they made the acquaintance of many members of their own family. Mme. de Rochechouart quarrelled with the Duke of Portland and his secretary, Mr. Wickham, and was obliged to leave England for Hamburg. She settled at Altona, wrote pamphlets against the English Cabinet, spent all her money in printing them, and was obliged to make ladies reticules, little boxes, straw hats. Her children went from house to house, selling these small objects. The Comtesse de Rochechouart had received a dowry of a million, she had lived in the most refined court in the world; she was now in a state of penury. She preserved, however, all her spirit; she was full of life and courage. She continued to see the best company at Altona.

Victor, the author of the Memoirs, heard of the departure of the Comte de Gand for Spain, where he was to serve in a Bourbon regiment; he offered to accompany him. M. de Gand consented to this, but he was himself very short of funds. Mme. de Rochechouart allowed her son to leave her. He started on the 1st of August, 1800, with twenty louis, which had been borrowed from M. de Septeuil. A great storm obliged the ship in which M. de Gand and young Rochechouart had taken passage to put into Falmouth Harbor, and the ship had to be repaired. The travellers were soon in debt, and found themselves in great difficulties. The Comte d'Artois sent some money to M. de Gand, and M. de Rochechouart found a providential friend in the person of a priest who had been placed as a tutor in an English family by his relative, the Duc de Mortemart. Such was the life of the French émigré: he was a wanderer on the face of the earth. The case of young Rochechouart was particularly interesting, as he was only twelve years old when he enlisted in Lisbon in one of the three regiments of French emigrants who had kept the white cockade and were in the pay of England. He spent his first night in the barracks on the 20th of December, 1800. His regiment had for its colonel the Marquis of Mortemart. After a short time our young private became sub-lieutenant, buying his commission with 70 louis which were given to him by the colonel, who said he was "enchanted to render this little service to a cousin of the elder branch of his family."

The three French regiments, Castries, Mortemart, La Châtre (named after their colonels), made the short and bloodless campaign of the Alentejo. Soon afterwards the peace of Amiens was signed, and the French regiments were disbanded at Portsmouth. Rochechouart received on leaving £260. He went directly to France. His father was dead, his grandmother was living in retirement in Rouergue, his mother and his brother Louis were at Odessa, in Russia. He did not feel very safe in Paris. The assassination of the Duc d'Enghien, the conspiracy of Cadoudal, the tragical end of Gen. Pichegru, the trial of Gen. Moreau, had produced a sort of new terror; every man had to be provided with a *carte de sûreté*. Rochechouart wrote to his mother, asking her for advice. After a few weeks he received a letter from his brother Louis, who was an officer at Odessa, and who had been appointed aide-de-camp of the Duc de Richelieu. His mother was in Poland with the Duchesse de Nassau, and insisted upon his coming to join her. Passports were necessary in those times (they are sometimes necessary now), and passports for Russia were no longer obtainable in Paris; Rochechouart took one for Trieste.

He left Paris on the 14th of September, 1804, being just sixteen years old.

The story of his journey reads like the adventures of Gil Blas. There was a most singular contrast between the poverty of the traveller and the quality of the persons he came in contact with. At Lemberg his mother sent him a carriage of the Prince of Nassau's, which took him to the castle where she resided with the Princess, the last descendant of the illustrious family of Sobieski. The Princess, wishing to show her interest in Mme. de Rochechouart, confided to her the administration of two villages which she owned in the Crimea. In the spring, mother and son started together for Odessa; she left for the Crimea at once; he remained at Odessa, waiting for M. de Richelieu.

Richelieu was the grandson of the famous marshal, the friend of Voltaire and Mme. de Pompadour. His grandfather once gave him forty louis, when he was only eight years old. A fortnight afterwards, he entered his room. "Armand," said he, "I must give you some money; your purse must be empty." "No, grandpapa, I still have the forty louis which you gave me." The Marshal opened the window, and, seeing a beggar in the street, threw him the purse. "Here, my good man, are forty louis which my grandson has not been able to spend in a fortnight." Armand de Richelieu, fortunately for him, received other and better lessons. In 1790 he obtained permission to serve as volunteer in the Russian army, and with the Prince de Ligne he took part in the memorable assault on Ismail, as the Duc de Fronsac (he had assumed this title after his grandfather's death). The Emperor Paul made him colonel of a regiment and he became a friend of the Tsesarevitch Alexander. In 1803, Alexander having become Emperor, gave to the Duc de Richelieu (such was now his name) the government of the colony of New Russia, a province as large as France, which had Odessa for its capital, and which extended over three governments, Kherson, Ekaterinoslav, and Crimea. Richelieu made himself beloved and respected in his government, and his name is even now a popular name at Odessa.

Mme. de Rochechouart did not govern her villages as well. She became ill, and left for Kherson, in order to consult an Italian doctor. Her son found her there, dead, in a miserable inn, where she had expired among strangers. She was only forty-eight years old. "My affliction was profound," says the candid Rochechouart, "though I had spent but little time with her." The Duc de Richelieu fixed young Rochechouart near him and almost adopted him as a son. To do justice to Rochechouart, he conceived the greatest gratitude for his benefactor, and became his *adlatus* in the creation of Odessa, in his expeditions to Circassia, in the inspection of the troops and of the colonies. He directed his household, as his secretary, his relative, and his friend; he received and he deserved his fullest confidence.

At the end of 1812, however, Rochechouart was separated from the Duc de Richelieu for eighteen months, during which time he was attached to the person of the Emperor Alexander as aide-de-camp. In that capacity he participated in all the events which followed the crossing of the Beresina, and which ended in the entrance of the allies into Paris. The account of the crossing of the Beresina by the French Army is heartrending. "It is impossible to imagine a more terrific spectacle—the two bridges broken, the peasants, the Cossacks hovering round the dead bodies. . . . I saw on the bridge a poor woman sitting; her legs were hanging outside, frozen in the ice; she had against her breast a child which had been frozen for twenty-four hours. She begged me to save the child, not knowing it was dead. She could not die herself. A Cossack rendered her the service of shooting her to put an end to this distressing agony." On all sides were expiring Frenchmen, asking to be made prisoners and to be saved. "They screamed: 'Sir, have pity on me. I am a cook; I am a valet; I am a tailor; for the love of God give me a piece of bread.' Unfortunately, we could do but little for them."

The Russian vanguard was following closely the retreating French army, and there was a sort of tacit *modus vivendi* between the two staffs for the lodgings. All the houses were burned on the retreat, except those reserved for the *état-majors*.

"For Count Langeron was reserved the chamber occupied by Napoleon; the aides-de-camp and the officers of the *état-major* took the others. We found generally written in chalk on the doors the names of the officers of the Emperor. My comrades showed me the name of the Baron de Mortemart on a door. It was evidently Casimir, Duc de Mortemart. The Emperor only recognized the titles which he had himself given, and had made him baron. This chamber was given to me, so it was occupied first by a Rochechouart, aide-de-camp of the Emperor of the French, and afterwards by a Rochechouart, aide-de camp of the Emperor of Russia. This singular coincidence lasted as far as Smorgoni."

Langeron, who commanded the Russian vanguard, was a French émigré; so was also the Comte de Lambert, who commanded a Russian corps. No country had been as hospitable to the victims of the Revolution as Russia. Richelieu, during these terrible events, was in his government at Odessa; he could not leave it, as the plague was making thousands of victims, and he gave an example of devotion and fortitude in remaining among a terrified population.

We pass over the accounts of the battles of Lützen and Bautzen, which belong to general history. After these great struggles an armistice had been signed, and Metternich drew up articles of peace; but Napoleon would not give back Trieste to Austria, nor give Dantzic to Prussia. He refused to acknowledge that he could not struggle for ever against a coalition of Russia, Prussia, and Sweden—a coalition which Austria was all ready to join. The alliance was concluded, and a new campaign began. Rochechouart made the acquaintance of Gen. Moreau and of General Jomini, who both had offered their services to the Emperor Alexander. He took part in the battle of Dresden, in the retreat to Bohemia, in the battles of Kulm and Leipzig. After Kulm, he received a mission to Bernadotte. The future King, now Prince Royal of Sweden, had inflicted a severe defeat on Marshal Ney, at Dennewitz, but afterwards had remained inactive. The allied sovereigns wished to know the secret cause of his inactivity, and sent him their orders by the hand of Rochechouart, who, as a Frenchman, could better converse with Bernadotte. The interview was very cordial. "Who would have said, twenty years ago, to the poor sergeant, Bernadotte, You will be treated as 'Monsieur mon frère et ami' by the Emperor of Russia, the Emperor of Austria, and the King of Prussia?" Then he said that his position required much prudence; he felt a very natural repugnance to spilling French blood; his fate depended on a single battle; if he lost it, Europe would not give him an "écu de six francs." If there were only Napoleon, it would be very well. Napoleon is a "coquin," he must be killed. As long as he lives, he will be the scourge of the world. The French want a King; but the Bourbons are an exhausted race. "Where is the man better suited to rule over the French than I am?" Rochechouart told Bernadotte that prolonged inaction might cost him his crown, that the Emperor of Russia could not forget that the son of Gustave IV. (who had been dethroned) was the nephew of the Empress Elisabeth, the sister of the last Queen of Sweden. The Emperor of Russia recognized the great military talents of Bernadotte, but he desired that these talents should be used for the great cause. The next day Bernadotte crossed the Elbe.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

IX.—GREAT BRITAIN.

PARIS, September 27, 1889.

IN passing from the French galleries, or from those of any of the other nations, into the rooms where the works exhibited by British artists are placed, the general aspect of the walls is so different from what we have been accustomed to that we are bound to admit that, whatever may be the faults of the British school, lack of national character is not one of them. If in the Continental schools we have found everywhere a reflection of French methods, we can discover very little of it here. Whereas in Belgium and the Scandinavian countries, for example, the most prominent men are those who have had a Paris training or worked under Paris influence, in Great Britain such men are rare and comparatively unimportant, forming exceptions to the general drift of manner and method; and among the hundred and twenty-three painters who exhibit pictures in the class of oil painting, there is only one who gives a Paris address in the catalogue. There is no permanent English artistic colony in Paris like the important American one or those of Belgium, Russia, or Austria-Hungary. A small number of painters of English birth live here, but they apparently do not affiliate with the home school, and at the Champ de Mars we find two such exhibiting in the International Section.

Mr. William Stott (of Oldham), who is a pupil of Gérôme, and who received a well-deserved medal of the third class at the Salon of 1882, has a studio in Paris, and paints, I believe, both here and in the north country in England. His work is well known in London and Paris. The single picture exhibited by him in the British section, "La Nymphe," is such a piece of painting of the nude figure as is not wont to be found in British exhibitions, and for that matter it shows a tenderness and feeling in painting that is rare anywhere. In the treatment of the flowers and growing plants that form the setting in which Mr. Stott has placed the figure of the nymph, there is a certain rigidity of line that is hard to reconcile with the soft grace of his style in painting the figure and the ample handling of the masses of foliage and the grass. It betrays, perhaps, a *parti-pris* to be original at all hazards; and such a motive, too, may suffice to explain the curious design of the frame—a most disturbing frame of greenish gold, with leaves in outline painted upon it in a neutral tint—which hurts the picture and is in no way beautiful in itself. Nevertheless, "La Nymphe" is a picture by a painter of remarkable talent, and its faults are minor ones. It is above all a sympathetic and beautiful piece of color.

"The Village Philharmonic," by A. Stanhope Forbes, an excellent interior, with figures of old men and boys at rehearsal, is in another way quite as remarkable as Mr. Stott's picture.

Character is admirably rendered, the painting is sound, and the picture is notably good in the preservation of the ensemble under a difficult effect of light coming both from a west window and from the lamps hung from the ceiling. Though the picture shows French influence, it is also marked by individuality. It is thoroughly English, and it is eminently truthful and unaffected. "The Clearness after Rain" and "The Newhaven Packet," by Henry Moore, are pictures of the open sea and sky. Mr. Moore is an artist who paints frankly and soundly. If there is a little hardness in the treatment of the clouds, and a suspicion of "stringiness" in the painting of the water, it is fully atoned for by the fine breadth of the ensemble. These works are so impregnated with the spirit of the sea, the water is such real moving sea water, and there is so much truth of observation in the rendering of the grand yet simple effects, that they are notable among the marine pictures at the Champ de Mars. In the British section there is nothing whatever to compare with them.

Good qualities are to be found in such work as the three pictures by G. Clausen, a painter who has evidently learned from Bastien-Lepage, and who paints honestly and without affectation; in Mr. Hacker's "Pelagia and Philammon"; in Mr. Anderson Hague's "Young Anglers"; and in Mr. D. Murray's landscape, "All Adown a Devon Valley." The painters' motives are here plain enough, and they have worked out their conceptions with simple means. I do not mean to imply that their works are superior ones, but the methods are understandable, and they may be judged by the standards we apply to the works of the French painters and their followers. A picture called "Lioness Defending her Cubs," by John M. Swan, looks as if it would not be found wanting if judged by these standards, though it is so "dried in" and so badly placed that it cannot be seen to advantage; and certainly Mr. Whistler's portrait of Lady Archibald Campbell, which is described as "an arrangement in black," sustains comparison with the good portraits in the galleries of the other nations. A smaller work by this artist, "The Balcony," is a charming piece of color, and is as clever as it is sympathetic. When I have noted further Mr. Alma-Tadema's important work, "The Women of Amphissa," in which his skill in painting inanimate objects is admirably shown, along with less evident success in the treatment of the figure, and his delightful little picture, "Expectation," Mr. Calderon's charming "Aphrodite," and Mr. Orchardson's three pictures, there is but little in the galleries that will stand the tests that have been applied to the works in the French and other contemporary schools.

Sir Frederick Leighton appears as a conscientious and sufficiently able draughtsman in his large picture with numerous figures, "Captive Andromache," and it may be said of him, in short, considering the three pictures and the two pieces of sculpture exhibited by him, all of which evince serious artistic qualities, that he combines in his work about all that is needed, apparently, to obtain a high reputation in the English art world. Yet, compared with the best work by French painters, it must be said that they seem singularly weak and almost amateurish. In Mr. Orchardson's pictures, in the "Mariage de Convenance; After" (a man past middle age, in evening dress, sitting alone in a richly furnished dining-room after his guests are gone), and in "Her First Dance," there is a distinct personality, both of technical methods and of sentiment. There are charming color qualities, too, in parts, and a well-marked refinement in the rendering of character. But it is impossible not to wish that he were more a master of the first essentials of the painter's art, so that we might be spared the disagreeable effect of this dry, tentative sort of brush work, and the inadequate drawing of the figure that almost destroys at times the real charm which we find in his work in spite of deficiencies. When one is so evidently an artist by temperament as Mr. Orchardson, it is to be regretted that he has not developed in a school where sound drawing and simplicity in painting are rightly held to be at the bottom of good art, and the presence of these elements is insisted upon before everything else.

Of "Cherry Ripe," "Bubbles," "The Last Rose of Summer," and "Cinderella"—four pictures exhibited by Sir John Everett Millais—the best that can be said is, that they are painted by a man who has done some good work in his time, and who occupies a high place in the estimation of his fellow-artists at home. No more than this can be said of the portrait of the marine painter, J. C. Hook, and I can only add, in the case of another portrait, that of Mr. Gladstone, that the *facture* is here less disagreeable than in the other pictures, and that, in spite of dryness and flatness of modelling, there is an evident research for the character of the sitter, which constitutes a quality in portrait painting commendable wherever found. Mr. Herkomer, in his portrait of "Miss Catherine Grant," has succeeded fairly well in painting the head of a beautiful woman, but in the other parts of the picture he shows nothing to commend. The white dress is without beauty of tone, and it is painted in a heavy, coarse manner, quite devoid of a feeling for form and line. Another portrait of a lady in black is called "Entranced," and, following a fashion that prevails in England, and is sometimes imitated (I regret to say) in New York, the frame bears a legend designed to add sentiment to the motive of the picture. In this case it is the lines:

> "Entranced in some diviner mood
> Of self-oblivious solitude";

and one wishes there were more poetry in the painting itself. It is drily painted, with hot tones in the shadows, and without distinction of line or color. The figure is cut out against the background, and there is an entire lack of air in the picture.

There is something very like good painting in Mr. Fildes's "Portrait of Mrs. Luke Fildes." The dress of black silk is certainly well painted, and the head and hands are only to be reproached with a tendency to prettiness in texture. In drawing, this portrait is much better than the average among the English painters, and it needs only a little more precision in the more delicate passages to make it quite satisfying. Mr. Fildes is further represented by a genre picture, "The Return of the Penitent," (a title which is accompanied in the catalogue by a couple of lines from Byron), and by a large picture called "Venetians," a group of girls on the steps of a canal, carefully painted, but prettyfied to the point of losing entirely the local color and the character of the Venetian women. But this is a fault that is well-nigh universal among English painters, and it is almost impossible to find one who appreciates and is able to render the character of a head that is not English itself. In the pictures in this exhibition, even where the subjects are English, the type is generally that of the picture books and the Christmas chromos. The "Portrait of Sir H. Rawlinson," by the late Frank Holl, and one of a gentleman in hunting costume, by Mr. J. J. Shannon, should be noted as among the better things of their class in the British section; and there is one by Mr. Ouless of Cardinal Manning that possesses some commendable qualities, but is too hard and dry in painting and too awkwardly constructed to be called entirely good.

The "Portrait of Sir Frederick Leighton" is one of two exhibited by Mr. G. F. Watts; but neither of them is comprehensible if drawing, construction, and color are qualities to be looked for in a portrait, and if a painter be expected to be sufficiently master of the technical means of his art to express on canvas his impression of nature. Including the two portraits, there are eight works by Mr. Watts in the exhibition, and it can scarcely be said that he is not fairly represented. "Diana and Endymion," "Hope," and one or two other pictures familiar to Americans are here, and there is one called "Mammon" that seems to be the last word of pretentiousness in painting. Grotesque and childish in conception, it is without redeeming features in execution, and in general aspect the canvas is ugly and repulsive. I cannot pretend to understand the motive of such travestying of art, and cannot conceive what must be the point of view from which such a work is considered seriously. Perhaps Mr. Watts's reputation in England rests chiefly upon other works than those shown here. At the Metropolitan Museum in New York, some three or four years ago, there were some portraits at least that seemed better than anything shown by him at the Champ de Mars.

By Mr. E. Burne-Jones there is but one picture, "King Cophetua and the Beggar-Maid." It is as characteristic of the painter's curious methods as the "Merlin and Vivian" that was so much remarked at the Exhibition of 1878. While not a picture which in any way attests a healthy sentiment in art, it is nevertheless very personal; and even though we may not agree with the artist's conception of what painting means, nor be able to commend his processes to others, yet we must admit that his motive is sincere, and his desire to produce something beautiful is evident. This is more than can be said of many a better technician than he, and doubtless his example may have a good influence in a country where, if we cannot expect to find the art of painting flourishing in a healthy and congenial atmosphere, as it does in France, we may hope that personality and the love of beauty at least will remain.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

THE MORAL PROGRESS OF ONE HUNDRED YEARS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the centennial year draws near its close, I feel more and more anxious that a good writer, having plenty of historical materials at his command, should write a well-considered paper on the moral progress of one hundred years in the United States—Bishop Potter to the contrary notwithstanding. I mean a sketch of the morals of the men who lived between the close of the French war and the inauguration of Washington, and of those who lived and worked between the firing on Sumter and the inauguration of Benjamin Harrison. A fair treatment of the subject will, I have no doubt, show a considerable rise in the scale of morality. A writer undertaking the task would discuss, among other subjects:

(1.) The slave trade, slavery, and the treatment of the negro during the older period.

(2.) The treatment of white servants, especially servants bound for a number of years, and of apprentices.

(3.) The imprisonment of debtors.

(4.) The cruelty with which persons accused or convicted of crimes were treated.

All these features of cruelty and oppression appeared on the statute books of those days.

Further, the inhuman methods that were used in bringing up children and in teaching scholars; the utter absence of all protest against rum-drinking and rum-selling, the habit of drinking to excess being almost universal.

It is a delicate subject, but there ought to be a comparison of the purity of family life in the days of our great-grandfathers and of our own. Is the greater frequency of divorces in our day a sure sign of decay? Have we not on the other side the well-known fact that nearly all of the foremost men of the Revolutionary period were what we should now call libertines?

Are we quite sure that our politics are more corrupt than a hundred years ago? We know that in contemporary newspapers the leading men were assailed quite as bitterly as now; were all those accusations idle? And if our protective tariff and the new proposed pension laws are corrupt (which they certainly are, in my eyes), are they any worse, for instance, than the Rhode Island legal-tender laws of one hundred years ago? If the Pacific Railroad bills were aided in their passage through Congress by distribution of Crédit-Mobilier stock, how were the Ordinance of 1787 and the grants to the Ohio Company gotten through the Continental Congress? If the ablest men were chosen for high position in the eighteenth century, what kind of men were Lincoln, Seward, Stanton, Chase, Sumner, Fessenden, Grant, Sherman, Farragut, Thomas, or even Alexander Stephens, Benjamin, Lee, Sidney Johnston, and Stonewall Jackson? If politicians nowadays set cliques and factions above party, and party above country, was it otherwise between 1763 and 1789?

These and several other branches of the subject should be discussed, with full historical illustrations. They would, if well handled, fill quite an interesting little volume.

Yours respectfully, L. N. D.

Louisville, September 28, 1889.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S RELIGION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That "moral machinery which works a double conscience—one for church and Sunday-school, another for business and politics," is illustrated in rural communities.

Not far from this village is a valley where there is no village, only a straggling lot of poor farmers. They have no church and no minister; but a Sunday-school and a prayer-meeting are kept up at the little school-house. The "best educated" man of the place is the superintendent of the Sunday-school, and most often the leader of the prayer-meeting; and that man's private life is notorious for scandal, and his transactions with his neighbors not above suspicion. The younger generation in that valley has begun to think, and, with some, thinking has led to scoffing.

The "leading" man's nearest neighbor on one side is an old man who can neither read nor write. This old man and his wife are the peacemakers of the whole valley. No gossip is allowed to be told in their house; and their only child, now a grown man, has said in the presence of those of his own age: "I should have no belief in the Christian religion if I had not seen it in my father and mother."

This old lady has often been heard to say, "Perhaps that man loves God; he thinks he does; but he don't love him enough—he don't love him enough"; and again, "That man's religion is not to blame; his religion is all right; but he hasn't got enough of it—he hasn't got enough of it."

Perhaps that is the matter with President Harrison—"he hasn't got enough of it."

M. A. A.

Catskill Mts., October 3, 1889.

THE BIBLE IN THE SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent W. P. Trent is one of the "many good people" who are "worried over the question whether the Bible shall be used in our schools," and "are aghast at the thought that their children are condemned to receive a purely secular education." The word "condemned" would seem to indicate that Mr. Trent misunderstands the question at issue. The opponents of the "Bible in the public schools" do not wish to "condemn" any man's children against his will "to receive a purely secular education." They admit the right of every man to mix with the "purely secular education" which his children get at the public schools, whatever religious education he chooses to give them. What they demand is, that those who prefer for their children a purely secular education, and those who deem it right that they should be consulted about the kind of religious education their children receive, shall not be excluded from the schools they are taxed to support, or "condemned" to see their children taught doctrines which they believe to be false and pernicious. To say nothing of the difficulty of getting taught in the public schools any system of religion that would be satisfactory even to a majority of those who are taxed for their support, Mr. Trent must be aware that there are among the taxpayers many thousands who reject Christianity *in toto*, not only because its evidences fail to convince their reason, but also because they believe many of its teachings, express and implied, to be pernicious in the extreme. These are not all thieves, forgers, and murderers. To many of them, strange as it may sound to the good people who wish their own peculiar religion taught to everybody's children at the public expense, the moral interest is supreme; and their opposition to Christianity springs largely, if not mainly, from their belief that it is, on the whole, perhaps the greatest organized hindrance to the moral progress of mankind that now exists in the world.

The question, then, is, Shall this respectable minority be taxed for the support of religious teaching which they believe to be false and immoral?

If Mr. Trent realized *how* respectable this minority is, in numbers, in intelligence, in moral and intellectual force, he would probably see some force in the reasons urged against the use of the Bible in schools supported by general taxation. Or, if he thinks that those who cannot accept the religious opinions of the majority (if the majority can be said to have any religious opinions) have no rights that the majority are bound to respect, he should say so in plain terms.

A. F. H.

Granville, O., September 28, 1889.

THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY CIRCLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly allow me to supply an inadvertent deficiency in my late communication entitled "A Force for the Revival of the Reading Habit"? A note addressed "Miss Kate F. Kimball, C. L. S. C. Secretary, Plainfield, N. J.," will secure to any applicant interested in the working of the "Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle" all the data of information necessary to an intelligent appreciation of the subject.

W. C. Wilkinson.

Tarrytown, N. Y.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While recognizing the grand possibilities of the Chautauqua system, I wish to add another word of criticism to your remarks of September 19. Mr. Wilkinson invites criticism and guidance as well as encouragement.

In the first place, the aim is a false and unattainable one—that "of surveying intelligently the ground traversed in the average four years' college curriculum of study." This is expecting people of relatively mature minds, engaged in the active business of life, to spend their time upon that general *disciplinary* course which we think suited to boys of sixteen to twenty, who devote their whole time to study. It is not the kind of work that these people need to do. The prescribed course for the present year, for example, consists of an "Outline History of Rome," "Political Economy," "How to Judge of a Picture," "The Bible in the Nineteenth Century," "Preparatory and College Latin Course," and "Physics"; to which is added the requirement to take the *Chautauquan*—a periodical the very embodiment of that genius of scrappiness which pervades the whole course. What can be the result of a year spent upon this set of books but an intensification of the American fault of pretentious superficiality? A young lady who had spent some time in Chautauqua study assured me that it was the conviction of Chautauqua "graduates" that they had nothing to learn from the most eminent college professors.

In the second place, the aim is not to lay out a course of *reading*, as Mr. Wilkinson intimates, but of *study*. No attempt is made to bring the student into contact with the great creative minds of literature. *Literature*, in the highest sense of the term, finds no place in the Chautauqua courses. I should, of course, make an exception in favor of Mr. Wilkinson's remarkably successful method of placing the principal features of classical literature before non-classical readers; but the great names of English literature—those names which any course of reading should include first of all—are omitted. With few exceptions, the books of the Chautauqua course are made to order by persons who are not recognized as authorities in their several departments.

Again, it is seriously defective, even as a course of study. Its method is the study of *books*, not of *subjects*; the student has a prescribed book which he is to learn—often a very one-sided treatment of the subject—but he is not encouraged to study the subject apart from the book. I do not say that this would be possible; but if it is not possible, it is simply another proof that the aim of the course is unattainable. But I believe it would be possible, and far more profitable, to spend the entire year upon (say) two out of the six courses prescribed—one for discipline and one for culture—and learn them with some degree of thoroughness.

There is another point of view in which the Chautauqua method falls in with a defect of American life—the alleged lack of individuality and independence of mind. Whether this is our national fault or not, it is certain that the Chautauqua plan of setting 60,000 persons all to reading the same books tends in that direction.

You have already spoken of "the manufacture of special text-books"—from which the Chautauqua school has already got the reputation of a vast money-making concern—and of the narrowness of scope, which either entirely excludes controverted questions, or treats them from a single point of view alone. This last defect is, I am glad to believe, being gradually outgrown. MARCEL.

Notes.

T. Y. CROWELL & Co. publish this month 'The Social Aspects of Christianity,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely.

'The Law of Husband and Wife,' by Leila J. Robinson, of the Suffolk Bar, is in the press of Lee & Shepard, Boston.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'The Quiet Life,' fragments of old British song illustrated by E. A. Abbey and Alfred Parsons; 'City Boys in the Woods; or, A Trapping Venture in Maine,' by Henry P. Wells; and 'Redeeming the Republic,' by C. C. Coffin, a third volume in his civil-war series for young people.

'The Elixir of Life,' announced by the J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, will give an authentic account of Dr. Brown-Séquard's famous discovery.

The *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co., New York, announce for immediate publication 'Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales,' by George Bird Grinnell.

Mr. John S. Farmer, the compiler of the absurdly ill-made book of alleged 'Americanisms, Old and New,' which we reviewed at length not long ago, now announces a three-volume dictionary of 'Slang and its Analogues, Past and Present,' which may contain much matter of value, but which is not likely to be scientifically put together. There is no good dictionary of the slang of our language, British and American; and it seems a pity that an incompetent hand should attempt a task which demands wide knowledge and sound judgment as well as unfailing industry.

Mr. W. J. Henderson, the musical critic of the New York *Times*, has written a brief history of the growth of modern music, which he calls 'The Story of Music,' and which will be published this fall by Longmans, Green & Co. Mr. Henderson's book is original in its brevity, and in its exclusion of merely biographic details not necessary to the history of musical development. The same firm announces 'Russia in Central Asia in 1889, and the Anglo-Persian Question,' by George Curzon, M.P., with maps, illustrations, and a bibliography; and 'Prince Prigio,' by Andrew Lang, with illustrations by Gordon Browne—this fairy prince being great-grandson to Thackeray's Giglio in the 'Rose and the Ring.'

Miss Mary L. Hall has revised her geography known as 'Our World,' and made an 'Our World Reader, No. 1,' of it, or "First Lessons in Geography" (Boston: Ginn & Co.). Her experiment thus begins its second quarter of a century, and in its conception and its present handy form we should be at a loss to name a rival to it. It is, of course, open to criticism. No adequate picture is given of the manufacturing, mining, and agricultural importance of New Jersey; and, for another example, the cause of the civil war is described in vague and misleading terms, so that no child could tell what it was all about, or connect with it the final incidental remark that slavery exists no longer. The euphemism of the old pro-slavery Constitution still clings like a Nessus-shirt to our timid makers of text-books. The book is well illustrated.

Among the recent books of American authorship added to the Tauchnitz series are Miss Howard's 'Open Door,' Mr. Bret Harte's 'Cressy,' Mrs. Deland's 'John Ward, Preacher,' and Mr. Marion Crawford's 'Greifenstein' and 'Sant' Ilario.'

It is nearly half a century since A'Beckett produced the 'Quizzology of the British Drama,' and now we have 'Stage-Land: Curious Habits and Customs of Its Inhabitants,' described by Jerome K. Jerome and drawn by J. Bernard Partridge (London: Chatto & Windus), a delightful study of fourteen stage types—the hero, the heroine, the adventuress, the detective, the lawyer, and their fellows, set off with sketches quite as delightful. Indeed, the artist's presentation of the stage adventuress is far more brilliant than the account of her given by the author, who is himself, by the way, a dramatist, while the artist is an actor. Although very brightly written, there is a distressing slovenliness about Mr. Jerome's style, but the substance of the book is excellent. Nothing could be better than the summary of stage law, beginning with the obvious principle "that if a man dies without leaving a will, then all his property goes to the nearest villain." But we think the author errs in asserting that the stage hero's name is "George"; at least it had hitherto been our impression that he was "Jack."

M. Sarcey is wont to cite M. Jules Lemaitre and M. Émile Faguet as the most promising of the younger French dramatic critics. M. Lemaitre has reprinted the pick of his articles from the *Débats*, and now M. Faguet has gathered into a volume his 'Notes sur le Théâtre Contemporain—1888' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern). The effort which the critic makes to be sprightly is a little obvious, but his solid learning and his acuteness are equally apparent. It is greatly to be regretted that a writer so well worth consulting should allow his criticisms to be published without either index or table of contents.

'Bébé Cordon Bleu' is the appetizing title of a cook-book for children prepared by Mlle. Mary Brandès (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), but the execution is not equal to the conception. The directions are not as precise as they might be—and the habit of exactness of weights and measures in the kitchen had best begin in the nursery. The illustrations are fanciful rather than helpful. Yet the book is not without value, and it may at least serve to suggest the preparation of a more practical guide for the little cooks of young America.

It is perhaps characteristic of a certain not unusual French attitude that M. George Pélissier's 'Le Mouvement Littéraire au XIXe Siècle' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern) should consider the literary movement only in France; but, despite this little disappointment, the book is welcome. It is what its title indicates—a broad general view of the progress of French literature in this century from the time when Chateaubriand, Mme. de Staël, Lamartine, and De Vigny really began the romantic revival with which we associate chiefly the splendid rhetoric of Victor Hugo, to the present time, when M. Daudet and M. Zola are writing the naturalistic novels which Stendhal and Mérimée made possible. Probably the best existing history of French literature must be pieced out for himself by every reader of Sainte-Beuve, but in these days of collected criticisms it is pleasant to get in one volume a bird's-eye view of a period of French literature as important as this century, and M. Pélissier has learning, acuteness, wide reading, a happy faculty of generalization, and, above all, an admirable sense of proportion.

'Demonological Tales of the Kirghiz' is the title of a volume recently published in Russia of ethnographical materials which characterize a numerous group of foreign tribes in Russia that, like the Kirghiz, have long been in a state of transition, though yielding more and more to new influences. This state of transition renders these materials especially interesting since the collector, Mr. M. Miropieff, has in view the study of Khirgiz antiquity and the remains of their former religion and beliefs. The fact has long been established by travellers and visitors who have observed their manners, that the Khirghiz were greatly under the influence of Mohammedanism. Formerly the Kirghiz were Mussulmans only in name, but in fact remained heathen. But Mohammedanism has been taking great strides around them, and has reached them powerfully from Kazan and Orenburg on the north, as well as from Khiva and Bokhara on the south. Hence they are gradually forgetting their heathen religion, are growing ashamed of it, and the time will soon come when there will be no Shamanism left among them. They are abandoning their bloody quarrels and taking to more peaceful occupations, but are becoming more fanatical under the influence of Islamism, and are losing many of their inherent, sympathetic traits, the more independent Kaza-Kirghiz alone resisting Islamism. The 'Demonological Tales' collected by Mr. Miropieff are from the Kirghiz of the Syr-Daria district, the Central Horde, and in brief but clear-cut lines they throw light upon some inhabitants of Russia who have been but partially studied.

The September Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an account of an official visit to two groups of unexplored islands lying off the southeast coast of New Guinea, which have been recently included in the British possessions. The principal object of the expedition was to search for gold, which had been discovered on one of the islands before the annexation, attracting hundreds of miners from Australia. Gold was found on some of the other islands, though not in large quantities. On St. Aignan the explorers came upon a great wall of limestone from which "sprang a stream which, after 200 yards of daylight, plunged into a great cave in the opposite cliff. The mouth was a perfect arch, 150 feet from floor to roof. At the far end the river thundered down into a black tunnel, through which it passed under the range, emerging into daylight after some three miles of darkness." The natives apparently presented no new types, but, in some cases, showed unusual intelligence and industry in the cultivation of the ground. Following this is a description of the hitherto unvisited Cockscomb Mountains in British Honduras, a curious range of sharp-pointed peaks about 4,000 feet high and some twenty miles from the coast. Here also were discovered the evidences of considerable mineral wealth, including gold.

Dr. Guppy continues his elaborate and interesting description of the Cocos-Keeling Islands, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September, but he reserves for another article his conclusions as to the origin of the atoll, which he describes as "merely a level patch of reef" with a slightly raised border or rim, in contradistinction to Mr. Darwin's definition as "bason-formed reefs." Mr. Rankin describes the Zambesi Delta with especial reference to the Chinde, the only navigable mouth of the river, which he has recently surveyed and claims to have discovered—a claim which, we may add, the Portuguese dispute.

This is followed by the first part of a report made to the late Paris International Geographical Congress on the Scotch travellers and explorers of this century, by Mr. A. S. White. This report, which is a very remarkable record, is accompanied by a valuable bibliography. A similar report upon English achievements was presented by Mr. Keltie, Librarian of the Royal Geographical Society, which will be published at Christmas by the Society as a supplementary volume.

At the last meeting of the Institut International de Statistique an interesting communication was read, comparing all the great expositions in regard of the number of visitors to each of them. Up to now the chief one has been the Paris Exposition of 1878, which counted twelve millions and a half of visitors, or an average of 65,000 a day. Next comes our Centennial at Philadelphia, with ten millions of visitors, or 61,000 a day. Then follow in order the expositions of Paris in 1867, with nine millions of visitors; Vienna, 1873, seven millions; London, 1851, six millions; London, 1862, six millions, and Paris, in 1855, four millions and a half. The enormous success of the present Exposition in Paris is shown in its having drawn to it more than twice as many visitors as any previous exposition. Their average number, so far, has been no less than 150,000 a day.

The godfather of Albert Dürer, Anthony Koberger, is commemorated as a typical publisher of the fifteenth century by M. Louis de Hessem in *Le Livre* for September. Koberger was a great producer, and paid special attention to the ornamental side of the printer's art, employing an agreeable variety of fonts, colored inks, engraved illustrations, etc. He was particular about his paper, too, and had difficulty in satisfying himself. M. de Hessem tells of his quarto edition of the 'Letters of Æneas Sylvius' containing sixty-two leaves, exhibiting (in some copies) eleven different kinds of paper—a fact which throws light on the recent discussion of water-marks in these columns. M. Hessem's paper is accompanied by a facsimile of a colporteur's advertisement of his literary wares, assigned to the year 1487. How public libraries are started in France may be seen, in one instance, in the next paper, on the town library of St.-Germain-en-Laye, whose first librarian was the future Senator Paul Morin, the discoverer of aluminium. What is noticeable is the association of the books with a museum of fine art. Our correspondent Miss Hapgood's entertaining letter on her experiences with the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg is largely reproduced in this number of *Le Livre*, with a credit to the *Library Journal*, which had paid it the same compliment.

— The advocates of weak-mindedness for women will be pleased with the aid and comfort which is brought to their side by Rose Terry Cooke in the last number of the *North American Review*. She urges that some respect should be shown to women by their lords and masters, but not too much. She begs, for instance, that the mother should be consulted as to what school is to be chosen for her children, on account of her more intimate acquaintance with their character and needs; but, by implication, she would not have her consulted as to any other of the important family decisions. The whole article has, to the open-minded student of human nature, a very old-fashioned ring. As matter of fact, there are probably very few families left in this country in which the woman does not bear the responsibility of decision, in matters both great and small, to fully as great an extent as the man. Nor does the statement that those who advocate a larger existence for women accompany their claims by shrieking, have much bearing upon the present state of the discussion.

—Desertion, a matter of much practical importance to the army and to the country, receives further and intelligent discussion by Lieut. McAnaney, Ninth Cavalry, in his graduating essay at the Military School, Fort Leavenworth (*Journal of the Military Service Institution* for September). This officer, who, it appears, served five or more years as an enlisted man, and therefore speaks with unusual authority, attributes the tendency to this crime to the extreme *ennui* engendered by the trivial and constantly "unfinished" work that employs the soldier in garrison, to certain restraints which, under ordinary conditions, he regards as quite unnecessary, and to the bar to rational entertainment and respectable society which the uniform imposes. The points seem well taken. The essayist denies that there is ill treatment, moral or physical, worth noticing, and speaks well, and justly so, of the general character of the average recruit. The weak point seems to be to account for the disregard of the oath of enlistment by these good men. Perhaps that is partly found in the very informal and unimposing way, so unlike the ancient *sacramentum*, in which it is administered, and especially in the popular feeling that a deserter is more sinned against than sinning, and therefore to be shielded. But with it all there must be some lack of moral fibre. Nevertheless, as has been pointed out, in great emergencies the enlisted man stands firm. He does not desert in the face of the enemy, and it will be to the perpetual glory of the United States soldiers that, at the beginning of the Rebellion, when officers by scores discarded their uniforms, not a man in the ranks, although hundreds as unwilling prisoners in Texas were sorely beset, was false to his allegiance. Lieut. McAnaney would remove the minor but irritating restraints, especially the tattoo roll call; would infuse more vitality into the daily exercises of the men, with indulgences for excellence in them; would give men greater liberty out of uniform, and would punish with the utmost severity those offences of the very small minority which bring disgrace upon it. The conspicuous dress marks the wearer, and brands all his comrades when he misbehaves. The essay is written with force and clearness, many of the views are original, and all clearly expressed; and the fact that the author himself has risen from the ranks gives a very favorable conception of the rank and file.

— The opening of the grave in old St. Pancras Cemetery in London in which the remains of Gen. Paoli, the Corsican patriot, have rested for eighty-two years, and the return of his body to his native island, revive the memory of a man whose name is more familiar to most people than his life. Paoli was born in Corsica in 1726, his father being a patriot general and a leader of the Corsicans against their traditional enemies, the Genoese. He entered the military service at Naples when young, but left it in 1755 to head his countrymen in a new revolt, and continued to lead them, as President of their Legislative Assembly for twelve years, until the Genoese, in despair of conquering the island, ceded it to France. The odds then became too great for Paoli to contend against, and after a brief struggle he yielded, and sought refuge in England, where he received a pension. In 1789 the Corsican patriots were invited to Paris, and Paoli was made head of the Corsican Assembly there, but he separated himself from the party of revolution when the monarchy fell, and was proscribed by it. At once he offered Corsica to the English, who accepted it, but failed to make him Viceroy, as he had expected. This and some other disappointments led to his return to England, where his pension was restored, and where he lived till his death in 1807. The English Government have now consented to the removal of his ashes at the request of representatives of Corsica. His memory will last in English literature as long as men read Boswell's Johnson; for its author was "Corsica" Boswell before he became "Bozzy," and it was of Paoli that old Lord Auchinleck made the vigorous remark: "Jamie is gaen clean gyte. He's done wi' Paoli—he's off wi' the land-louping scoundrel of a Corsican; and whose tail do you think he's pinned himself to now, mon? A dominie, mon—an auld dominie; he keepit a schule, and cau'd it an academy."

— 'Russian Antiquities in Monuments of Art,' published by Count I. Tolstoy and N. Kondakoff, promises to be a notable work in archæological science. The first part, treating of the classical antiquities of Southern Russia, and containing 145 illustrations, has recently made its appearance. The editors are fully fitted for their undertaking, and the publication will rank as authoritative. During an historical period of twenty-five hundred years, Russia furnished an abiding place to many widely differing tribes, and people of various nationalities, all of whom have left precious remains. Russia is strewn with thousands of tumuli—eloquent witnesses of antiquity—and is rich in ancient monuments of art, embodying the combined results of the arts from all quarters which flowed into Russia and which the Russians appropriated for the formation of an original, historical, old-Russian style, which lingers to the present day in many local artistic productions. The object of the present publication is to show the formation of this ancient Russian art by accurate illustrations with the indispensable explanatory text. The undertaking is difficult on account of the scarcity of former works in the department of Russian archæology, which has existed but a comparatively short time as a science. Hence a wide and comparative survey is not easy. The recently founded professorships of the History of Art remain unfilled in several universities, for lack of persons competent to occupy them, and the vast material requiring study has been dealt with only piecemeal, chiefly by amateurs, in spite of the efforts to cultivate archæological taste by the foundation of societies, congresses, and expeditions during the last thirty years.

—Both specialists and amateurs have long felt the necessity of access to the existing material as a whole, and this is what the present publication promises to supply. Count I. Tolstoy is an ardent worker in the field of Russian archæology, and Mr. Kondakoff has long been professor of Art in the St. Petersburg University. The first pamphlet, now published, begins with historical facts relating to the initial appearance of the Grecian colony on the shores of the Black Sea, and contains illustrations of the most noteworthy among the artistic remains of this colony—from ancient statues and sarcophagi to small articles of jewelry—accompanied by explanations of their religious, historical, and domestic significance. This issue also contains an account of the archæological investigations which resulted in the finding of these articles. In future parts of their work the editors will have to deal with points which

have been hitherto but slightly touched upon, or which are extremely complicated and obscure, and they will be obliged to cut their own road. Part second contains "Scytho-Sarmatian Antiquities," which have called forth the most contrary opinions.

GARRISON, UNION-DISUNIONIST.

William Lloyd Garrison: The Story of his Life, Told by his Children. 1805-1879. Vol. III.—1841-1860. Vol. IV.—1861-1879. The Century Company. 1889.

THE first half of this historical biography was published four years ago. The narrative broke off at a point, in 1840, when the abolitionists were divided by a combined sectarian and political revolt against Mr. Garrison's leadership, involving some of his warmest friends and ablest coadjutors. The high and somewhat haughty hopes with which the Liberty party was launched as the only effectual instrumentality for the overthrow of slavery, are shown, in the third volume now given to the public, to have been without foundation, and to have been quickly dissipated. The chief promoters of the schism found themselves, once severed from the purely moral agitation, completely dislocated, and within a year were compelled to seek new modes of life in strange places, and to forfeit all organized connection except through a party affiliation contemptible in respect of numbers (where numbers were all-essential), and steadily degenerating in principle. Gerrit Smith, William Goodell, even Birney, felt obliged to come out from it. It was in the last stages of decay when the independent rise of the Free Soil party gave it its euthanasia.

The Garrisonian body, on the contrary, neither lost its spirit nor stood still. It had reached the utmost limit of numerical expansion, but it had yet to develop the logic of its attitude towards slavery as intrenched in the Constitution. The editor of the *Liberator* again took the lead in establishing the doctrine that no genuine abolitionist could vote under such an instrument or take oath of office under it; that anti-slavery amendment of the Constitution was, in the nature of the case, impossible, and that a peaceable separation of the two sections was the only practicable means of freeing the North from complicity with slaveholding. His position was summed up in his famous Scriptural definition of the Constitution as "a covenant with death and an agreement with hell," and his policy in the watchword, "No Union with Slaveholders!"

Nothing could be more considerate or disinterested than the way in which he enforced his views on his associates, until, in 1844, of their own free will and from reasonable conviction, they (with very few exceptions) adopted for the cause the new character which he impressed upon it. The documentary evidences of this are abundant. The policy, of course, excited the holy horror of the South, just then engaged in extending the Union through the annexation of Texas—an act which John Quincy Adams and the Conscience Whigs theoretically regarded as an act of disunion in itself, though they lacked the courage of their convictions. Disunion had also to be disavowed by the Free-Soil and Republican parties, whose policy was wholly defensive; who agreed to let slavery alone if it would let the North alone—beyond the Constitutional obligations; who proclaimed the "irrepressible conflict" while clinging to the instrument which embodied it, and promising a tame submission to every fresh defeat. They took satisfaction in identifying, with equal censure, the Northern and Southern disunionists, by a moral confusion which was clearly exposed by Mr. Garrison.

The paradox of his disunionism was explained on the outbreak of the civil war. He looked upon the secession movement in its early phases as the beginning of the end of slavery, by leaving the masters to reckon with their bondmen without the support of the Federal army and navy as against insurrection, or of Federal marshals and judges for the reclaiming of fugitives. While the representatives of all parties in Congress were in a panic of Union-saving compromise, he held the Union of 1789 to be already dissolved. He did not doubt the right and Constitutional duty of the Government to suppress the rebellion by force of arms, but he saw the risk of a divided North attempting the subjugation of a united South, and he preferred a peaceable relinquishment of sovereignty, and a reorganization of the North as a truly free confederacy. The moment that this preference was overruled by the popular uprising that followed the attack on Sumter, he sought as a patriot to make the object of the war the destruction of its cause, to the end that the old territorial Union might be restored on a sinless and imperishable basis. In the just phraseology of Gerrit Smith: "The 'Garrisonian abolitionist' was formerly a Disunionist, and is now a Unionist; and hence he is charged with being inconsistent, or at least with being a convert. . . . There is a conversion. It is, however, *to* him, and not *of* him. There is a change, but it is *around* him, and not *in* him." And again, in the language of William Henry Channing, writing to Mr. Garrison in 1844:

"The 'People of the United States,' by a Sovereign Right, under God, established this Constitution; the 'People of the United States,' by the same Sovereign Right, having found that this Constitution, in place of 'securing a more perfect Union, and establishing justice,' &c., has *broken our Union*, and *established injustice*, &c. (vide Preamble to the Constitution), can pass on from that Constitution, thus proved imperfect, to a higher and better one, as they did from the Confederacy. AND THE END IN VIEW SHALL STILL BE UNION, NOT DISUNION. . . . This is not schismatic, nor treacherous, nor nullifying; it is legitimate, and right, and reasonable. . . . In demanding that the 'People of the United States' be faithful to their professed principles, they [the abolitionists] assume a Positive position, and throw the odium of mere Negation and Opposition upon the Slaveholder. The Rectitude of this is plain, and the Policy of it is equally so. *It puts the Slaveholder in his true place as the Disunionist;* it exposes to the world that the only actual disturbing element in our Union is our injustice to our colored brethren."

The present generation of readers will be surprised on the one hand to learn, from the final volume of this biography, what aid was given to the Union movement by Mr. Garrison, and on the other how forbearing was his criticism of President Lincoln during his tedious evolution as an emancipationist. A further revelation will lie in the chapters which exhibit Mr. Garrison enlightening the British public as to the true nature of the war, legally and morally, and which reveal the precious fruits of his alliance with British philanthropy thirty years before. A glimpse, necessarily inadequate, is given of the incalculable importance, in averting British recognition of the Southern Confederacy, of the labors of his old friend and co-worker George Thompson, who thus heaped coals of fire on the head of a nation that had hunted him for his life in 1835 and mobbed him afresh in 1851. No romance could surpass the sequel, in which Thompson and Garrison together witnessed as national guests the raising of the old flag at Sumter in April, 1865; and again in which, at the London breakfast of 1867, given to the American, they heard Earl Russell confess the error of his official attitude towards the Confederacy, and welcome Mr. Garrison as the natural ambassador of international reconciliation and future good will.

The historical value of the volumes before us consists especially in a condensed but clear tracing of the course of the several anti-slavery political parties, in connection or contrast with the steadfast aggressiveness of the abolitionists. Mr. Garrison's fairness, moderation, and discrimination are nowhere more visible than in his criticism of these by-products of the moral warfare he was carrying on. Interesting episodes are the application of the anti-slavery touchstone to Father Mathew and Kossuth, in their respective visits to America. The movement of the narrative for the storm-and-stress period is much more rapid than in the next previous volume, a space of twenty years being compressed into volume iii, with a chapter for each year. The successive headings mark as many epochs: thus, following up the climax in the last seven chapters, we have "The Nebraska Bill (1854)," "The Personal Liberty Law (1855)," "Frémont (1856)," "The Disunion Convention (1857)," "The Irrepressible Conflict (1858)," "John Brown (1859)," and "Abraham Lincoln (1860)." The first chapter of volume iv, for 1861, is entitled "No Union with *Non*-Slaveholders!"—the secession point of view.

The personal interest of this half of the narrative will hardly be thought inferior to that which preceded. The Boston mob of 1835 is offset by the Rynders mob in New York of 1850; the founding of the *Liberator*, by its glad suspension when its end was attained; the founding of the American Anti-Slavery Society, by Garrison's voluntary withdrawal from it when rebellion and slavery went down together. There is a third mission to England in 1846, and two delightful post-bellum visits, full of honors, in 1867 and 1877. Unhappy coolnesses and antagonisms on the part of old associates enter into this novel of real life. Family afflictions contribute their share. Theological odium is heightened by an Anti-Sabbath Convention and a Bible Convention. And, through all, the pacific character of the man shines with singular constancy. He cannot bear the spirit in which the clergy are ready to aim their Sharp's rifles at Border Ruffians as at so many wolves or buffaloes: if any shooting is to be done, he would begin rather with the slaveholders than with their degraded and pitiable tools. But he has never wished evil to the slaveholders. When, in 1858, some of John Brown's confidants, who were Mr. Garrison's friends also, were vaguely intimating in convention the impending bloodshed, he protested in these memorable terms, which shed not more light on his humanity than on his disunionism:

"I pray you, abolitionists, still to adhere to that truth. Do not get impatient; do not become exasperated; do not attempt any new political organization; do not make yourselves familiar with the idea that blood must flow. Perhaps blood will flow—God knows, I do not; but it shall not flow through any counsel of mine. Much as I detest the oppression exercised by the Southern slaveholder, he is a man, sacred before me. He is a man, not to be harmed by my hand nor with my consent. He is a man, who is grievously and wickedly trampling upon the rights of his fellow-man; but all I have to do with him is to rebuke his sin, to call him to repentance, to leave him without excuse for his tyranny. He is a sinner before God, a great sinner; yet, while I will not cease reprobating his horrible injustice, I will let him see that in my heart there is no desire to do him harm—that I wish to bless him here, and bless him everlastingly—and that I

have no other weapon to wield against him but the simple truth of God, which is the great instrument for the overthrow of all iniquity, and the salvation of the world."

In the final instalment of their work, the sons of Garrison have again been greatly assisted by inedited sources, and have pressed into their service two such capital letter-writers as Edmund Quincy and Wendell Phillips. Quincy, in his faithful correspondence with John A. Collins and with Richard D. Webb, of Dublin, the Irish Garrisonian abolitionist *par excellence*, has almost written the history of the anti-slavery cause from 1840 on. Lowell rhymed of him in 1846:

> "Good letters are a gift apart,
> And his are gems of Flemish art,
> True offspring of the fireside Muse,
> Not a chip-gathering of news
> Like a new hop-field which is all poles,
> But of one blood with Horace Walpole's."

Their humor, applied not seldom to the subject of this biography, greatly enlivens its pages, and proves, together with Phillips's wit and Garrison's perennial cheerfulness and mirthfulness, how utterly the South and her Northern sympathizers misunderstood the temperament of the prophets of emancipation. The final chapter, "Inner Traits," a summing-up of Mr. Garrison's qualities from the domestic side, will do much to correct the impression which ignorance and malevolence have made traditional regarding him.

The authors intimate in their valediction that they have virtually produced an autobiography —an undertaking shunned by their father equally with a history of what he styled "the most noteworthy moral and political struggle in the annals of civilization." To those who weightily urged him to review that struggle, he replied in 1873:

> "So far as I am personally concerned, I feel no interest in any history of it that may be written. It is enough for me that every yoke is broken and every bondman set free. Yet there are lessons to be drawn from it that cannot fail to be serviceable to posterity. The millennial state, if it ever come on earth, is yet in the far distant future. There are innumerable battles yet to be fought for the right, many wrongs to be redressed, many evil customs abolished, many usurpations overthrown, many deliverances wrought; and those who shall hereafter go forth to defend the righteous cause, no matter at what cost or with what disparity of numbers, cannot fail to derive strength and inspiration from an intelligent acquaintance with the means and methods used in the Anti-Slavery movement."

The original scheme of composition has been adhered to, and everywhere the document, the passage, or the punctilious reference to authority, accompanies the statements of the text. The index has been enlarged to cover all four volumes, and as the items under each entry are arranged chronologically, the career of each individual is shown progressively. The extent of some of the entries is such as to make apparent the richness of these memoirs in subsidiary biographies. As before, a large number of engraved portraits of the leading abolitionists commemorate the Garrisonian group and the age in which they flourished; and the typography remains at the front of American achievement in works of this class.

THE TEXT OF THE DIVINA COMMEDIA.

Contributions to the Textual Criticism of the Divina Commedia, including the complete Collation throughout the 'Inferno' of all the MSS. at Oxford and Cambridge. By the Rev. Edward Moore, D.D., Principal of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford, and Barlow Lecturer on Dante in the University of London; Author of 'Time-References in the Divina Commedia.' Cambridge: At the University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889. 8vo, pp. lvi, 723.

In Mitford's elaborate edition in quarto of the works of Gray, published in 1816, the second verse of the 'Elegy' is printed:

> "The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea."

It is given in the same way in Mr. Ward's well-edited 'Selections from the English Poets,' in Mrs. Wood's 'Second School Poetry Book,' published two years ago, and in Aikin's 'British Poets,' published seventy years ago. But in Mitford's note to the verse and in 'The Golden Treasury' it runs:

> "The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,"

and it was thus that Gray wrote it, and that it stands in the editions issued under his eyes. His fine sense of sound in verse—and few poets have had a finer—would not have endured the sibilation of "winds slowly," and the damaging change which has crept into the verse affords a good instance of the corruption of a text through the oversight or error of editors or printers. Scott's poems as commonly printed are full of like blemishes due to similar causes. Everybody knows the corrupt condition of Shakespeare's text.

If it be difficult to secure the text of a modern poet in its integrity, the difficulty is vastly greater in the case of a poem written before the invention of printing, when the copies were made for the most part by different scribes, and few of them at the best under the revision of the author. Thus, as is well known, not a single text of an ancient or mediæval poet has come down to us in its pure original form. All are more or less corrupt, and all the critical labors of eminent scholars during the last three or four centuries have not succeeded in giving us the text of any one of the great poems of the past exactly as it left the poet's hands.

It might at first sight seem as if there were less risk of serious corruption of the text of the 'Divine Comedy' than of most other mediæval poems, because of the interest taken in it from the first, and because of the special defence against certain classes of errors afforded by the regularity of its verse and its triple rhyme. But there were other sources of error which much more than outbalanced the conditions favorable to integrity of text. Usage, at the time of the publication of the poem, had not yet so established the canons of Italian orthography that there was not much variety of spelling, and still greater in respect to the elision and contraction of syllables, and to the fusion and division of words; punctuation and capitals were often wholly dispensed with, and there was no use of apostrophes or accents. *Perokivegio* is the manner in which one scribe writes *però ch' io veggio; colle* stands for *ch' ho le; adir* may be either *ad ir* or *a dir*. Many manuscripts exhibit dialectic varieties; many the individual idiosyncrasies—not merely the preferences, but also the ignorance and the presumption—of the writers.

Special sources of error lay in the nature of the poem itself. "The 'Divina Commedia,'" says Dr. Moore, "made its appearance at a time and under circumstances in some respects peculiarly unfavorable to the preservation of a correct text. The work immediately attained to a vast reputation." Copies of it were multiplied. "The language in which it was written, the subjects of which it treated, the nearly contemporary interests on which it touched, and the well-remembered incidents with which it abounded, combined with its frequent obscurities and difficulties, all contributed to give the copyist an interest in his work which affected most injuriously its accuracy and faithfulness." He was tempted to alter what he did not understand, and to amend what seemed to him to need correction. Error was thus transmitted from copy to copy. The process began almost from the first. The very earliest commentators, within ten or twelve years of Dante's death, not only exhibit readings unquestionably false, but refer to more than one *various* reading. The commentators of the later part of the fourteenth century frequently note the diversity of readings. "Hoc accidit," says Benvenuto da Imola in commenting on the seventy-first verse of the fifteenth canto of the Paradiso, "propter ignorantiam idiomatis, sicut et in multis locis et vocabulis istius libri."

The first printed editions of the poem naturally partook of the inaccuracy of the manuscripts from which they were derived. Even the two beautiful little Aldine editions (1502 and 1515) are full of errors. Later editors, the Florentine Academy in 1572, for example, endeavored to form a sound text. Manifest mistakes were corrected, but there was no solid basis for the work. Each edition offered a text more or less varying from all the rest. The true critical method was not seriously and consistently applied till Witte, the most learned of the scholars of Dante, set himself to the work, and published in 1862 a text based on the collation of four manuscripts selected because of special excellence, while he gave in notes the more important variants from other sources. He had the learning and judgment requisite to confer authority on his work. His prolegomena contain a vast body of interesting information in respect to the history of the text, and of admirable criticism on the methods of determining it. His text is now practically the *textus receptus*. It was followed by Dr. Fay in making his invaluable Concordance; it has been taken as a standard by Dr. Moore in the work now before us—a work of extraordinary industry, accuracy, and acumen, and by far the most important contribution ever made to the settlement of the text of the 'Divine Comedy,' with the sole exception of that of Witte.

Dr. Moore's work provides the student with exact knowledge of the manuscript readings in sufficient number for all needful study, and to enable him to form independent judgment concerning the correct text. For this purpose he reprints Witte's text of the 'Inferno' with a complete collation of seventeen manuscripts —all that are to be found at Oxford and Cambridge. But besides this most laborious collation, he has examined about half of the 500 to 600 known manuscripts in regard to the more important test passages in the whole poem, and the collation and discussion of these selected passages may be unreservedly commended as the most original and valuable body of critical notes relating to it to be found in English. The comment is as full of good sense and acute discrimination as it is of learning. As Dr. Moore justly says in his preface, "the results and conclusions obtained from such materials would not be likely to be much altered by the examination of an increased number of MSS." His claims in regard to what he has done are modest. "The results here gathered up may seem to some both slight and negative, but if a building is to be secure and lasting, much work must be spent upon its foundations, and though these are not seen afterwards, yet the function they perform is none the less important and indispensable"; and he adds what every student of the 'Divine Comedy' will sympathize with: "I am deeply convinced that, be the tangible and positive results great or small, no labor bestowed on the study or elucidation of this, perhaps the greatest work of human genius in any

language, can be felt to be in vain by one who has expended it."

One result from Dr. Moore's labors is satisfactory and interesting. It is the confirmation of the soundness of Witte's text. In the progress of his work Dr. Moore tells us he has "been continually more impressed with the general excellence of Dr. Witte's text and of its quite exceptional position among all other editions." He gives a list of the principal cases in which it appears to him desirable to adopt another reading than that of Witte. They are forty-seven in all; some of them, as Dr. Moore says, are "of little importance, and many must fairly remain open to question." In thirty of these cases Scartazzini, in his indispensable, though not in every respect commendable, edition, has preceded Dr. Moore in adopting the reading preferred by him. In most of the remaining cases Dr. Moore seems to us to be unquestionably right. One of the most important instances is that of 'Inferno' xv. 29, where Witte and Scartazzini read: *E chinando la mano alla sua faccia*, but Dr. Moore prefers, with good reason, *E chinando la mia alla sua faccia*. Another is that of 'Inferno' xxviii. 135, where, though a vast majority of the MSS. give the verse as *Che diedi al re Giovanni mai conforti*, the reasons for believing that Dante wrote *Che diedi al re giovane mai comforti*, as they are marshalled by Dr. Moore, are so convincing as to outweigh the manuscript authority.

Altogether, Dr. Moore's volume is of the highest value to the serious student of the poet. It is one of the few works with which such a student, desirous to attain thorough acquaintance with the 'Divine Comedy,' must make himself familiar. The year that brings to him this book and Dr. Fay's Concordance deserves to be marked with a red letter.

WRIGHT'S ICE AGE.

The Ice Age in North America, and its Bearing upon the Antiquity of Man. By G. Frederick Wright, D.D., LL.D., F.G.S.A. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

No epoch in the geological history of the earth is invested with a more intensely human interest, or has had a more important influence upon the material welfare of civilized man, than that known as the Glacial Period, during which the northern portions of Europe and America were covered by an immense ice sheet thousands of feet in thickness. In the floods which must have accompanied its gradual melting and retreat is to be found an explanation of the deluge which is recorded in the Mosaic cosmogony, and which forms a central feature in the myths and traditions of most primitive races. The earliest records which archæologists have yet been able to discover of man's existence upon the earth, consisting of rude stone implements associated with remains of animals of arctic habits, many of which are now extinct, were found in deposits which are shown by geologists to have been formed towards the close of this period. Whether during the earlier ages when, as the geological record shows, a semi-tropical climate must have prevailed far up into the arctic regions of the present day, man already flourished upon the earth, may never be determined, for in the earlier stages of his evolution the records left by him were probably less easy to recognize, and the chances of their having survived the greater changes that have supervened are very small.

The study of this period not only presents problems of deep interest to various classes of professional scientists—astronomers, physicists, and biologists, as well as geologists—but affords a peculiarly inviting field to the amateur scientist, by reason of the ready comprehension of its phenomena, which does not require a preliminary knowledge of chemistry, mineralogy, and petrography, as is the case in other fields of geological research, and because the Swiss glacier region, from the study of which the knowledge of its phenomena was first derived, has now become a favorite summer resort. In the past fifteen years more progress has perhaps been made towards a systematic and accurate determination of the facts of the Glacial Period than had been accomplished in all the time that has elapsed since its original conception in the minds of the far-sighted men who first scientifically demonstrated the movement of the Swiss glaciers. The study of the phenomena of existing glaciers has been extended from the comparatively restricted areas of Alpine glaciers to those of the continental type, such as are still found in Greenland and Alaska, which in their movements, and in the effects produced upon the surface over which they pass, more nearly approach the ancient ice-sheets of the Glacial Period. In the light of these studies a satisfactory explanation has been found for the many and varied phenomena which might be ascribed to the action of glacial ice in the areas it once occupied, and the greatest of these areas has been systematically surveyed and its limits determined.

This has been accomplished in large measure by the labors of American geologists and glacialists, among whose names those of Dana, King, Chamberlin, Dawson, Gilbert, Upham, and Wright occupy a prominent place. Upon the last-named has devolved the task of presenting a record of these labors and the conclusions that may be drawn from them, together with a summary of what was of permanent value in the writings of those who had gone before, and this has been accomplished by him in the present volume in a form which, while thoroughly scientific in its methods, is easily comprehensible and deeply interesting to the general reader.

Dr. Wright is a professor of theology at Oberlin, as well as a geologist, and it is significant of his wise devotion to either profession that in a volume whose ultimate result is to establish an antiquity for man far beyond that usually supposed to be given in the Scriptures, he has refrained from making any allusion whatever to its theological bearings, beyond the brief prefatory remark that he sees "no reason why it should seriously disturb the religious faith of any believer in the inspiration of the Bible." He shows a practical application of his belief that "it is incumbent upon us to welcome the truth from whatever source it may come," in the thoroughness with which he gives all the observed facts that bear upon a given phenomenon before drawing his conclusions, as well as in his scrupulousness in acknowledging the aid he has received from fellow-workers, whether derived from their writings or from personal communications. In both of these respects he presents an example worthy of imitation by fellow-scientists. To Clarence King, whom some American geologists have of late been too apt to ignore, he gives credit not only for the discovery of the terminal moraine of the New England glacier, which gave the original impulse to the systematic tracing of the boundary of the glaciated area in North America, but for correct explanations of the origin of such characteristic features of the area as kettle-holes, kames, and drumlins, and for the early disproof of the ancient theory of a polar ice-cap as applied to this continent.

Although the present work is of necessity largely based on the labors of others, the personal investigations of the author, which, as he tells us, have occupied the greater part of his time during the past fifteen years, have furnished no inconsiderable portion of its most interesting results. His observations on the Muir glacier of Alaska, which, though only one of a group, covers in its present contracted condition an area nearly equal to that of all the Swiss glaciers together, afforded a final explanation of the origin of many phenomena of the glacial area which had hitherto been in dispute. The average movement of the Swiss glaciers in their mountain valleys is only about three feet per day, and it has been difficult for many persons to conceive how the ancient ice-sheets could have moved over areas which, judging from the present configuration of the surface, must have possessed a relatively insignificant angle of inclination. Wright's measurements on the Muir glacier, however, proved it to have a movement of forty feet per day, and Helland's observations showed that the Jacobshavn glacier, one of the many hundred outlets of the great Greenland ice-sheet, which is estimated to cover an area of more than 300,000 square miles, has a motion of seventy feet per day, with an inclination of less than half a degree. Such an inclination for the New England ice-sheet would give a former thickness of more than 10,000 feet of ice in the Laurentian Highlands, which agrees with the estimates made on other grounds by the veteran geologist Dana.

Some of the most interesting facts presented by the ingenious deductions of the author and his associates are those which relate to the pre-glacial drainage of the northern part of our continent and the changes produced in it during the glacial period. Lake Erie is shown to be but a glacial mill-pond formed by the damming by the ice-sheet of northward-flowing rivers; the great lake drainage of pre-glacial times having been from northern Lake Huron through Georgian Bay to Lake Ontario at Toronto, and from Lake Ontario probably through the Mohawk and Hudson Valleys to the sea. The fact, to which probably few have had their attention called, that waterfalls and lakes are almost entirely confined to the formerly glaciated area, is also explained by Dr. Wright as due to the glacial period. Pre-glacial rivers have had so much time to cut down their beds that any waterfalls that may have existed in them have been reduced to rapids or cascades—a fate which will overtake the post-glacial Niagara River within a (geologically speaking) limited time. Some idea of the vastness of the floods that accompanied the retreat of the ice-sheets is obtained from a consideration of the great number of lakes that must have been formed by temporary barriers of ice or transported material that were afterwards removed or broken. One of these, of whose existence Dr. Wright has found evidence, was formed by a dam which the ice threw across the Ohio River near Cincinnati, behind which a lake about a thousand miles in length must have been backed up.

On the soils of our country the ice-sheet must have had a far-reaching influence, for Dr. Wright estimates that an area of one million square miles is covered with glacial débris to an average depth of fifty feet. The loess, that peculiar soil to which much of the interior basin of our continent owes its exceptional fertility, is regarded by Dr. Wright as probably the more finely comminuted material held in suspension by glacial waters, thus differing from the conclusions of Pumpelly and Richthofen in regard to the similar, but vastly deeper, soils of the interior of China, which they regard as of sub-aerial origin, brought in

by dust-storms from the deserts of Central Asia.

The date of the Glacial Period, though not yet definitively determined, is shown to be far less remote than had previously been estimated. The time which it has taken the Niagara River to cut back its gorge from Lewiston to the present falls has, by recent more accurate calculations, been fixed at not more than seven thousand years, instead of 35,000 given it by the earlier geologists. This, combined with estimates made of the rate of recession of the Falls of St. Anthony, and confirmed by other data, leads Dr. Wright to estimate it at not over 10,000 years ago. As regards the existence of an inter-glacial period, or two maxima of cold, Dr. Wright differs somewhat from the conclusions of some of his fellow-observers, considering that while the ice-sheets probably suffered several oscillations of advance and retreat, there was no great single recession to the region of the Laurentian Highlands such as could constitute two glacial periods.

With regard to Croll's well-known astronomical theory of the cause of the Glacial Period, based on the precession of the equinoxes and the variation in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit, which fixes its date as from 80,000 to 200,000 years since, Dr. Wright, while taking no exception to the accuracy of his calculations, considers that some of his premises have been assumed without sufficient grounding in ascertained physical facts, and that this, taken in connection with the discrepancy of its date with that given above, should lead to its rejection. In an appendix, Dr. Warren Upham, also rejecting Croll's theory, proposes in its place one of his own based on physical and geological grounds. He assumes that glaciation was caused by unusually great elevations and subsidences of the land during Quaternary times, resulting from the contraction of a solid crust upon a molten interior. To his premises that the mountain-building force was exceptionally active in these times, owing to its having been quiescent during the preceding Tertiary and Mesozoic ages, he will hardly find many adherents among field geologists.

To the great advance that has been made in late years in the accuracy and cheapness of processes of photographic reproduction is due a further signal advantage that Dr. Wright's work possesses over his predecessors'. He has thus been able to illustrate most of the natural phenomena to which he refers by views taken in the field, many of which have been generously loaned by the United States Geological Survey, in some cases from unpublished material; and he has admirably supplemented them by numerous maps and diagrams.

THE PRECURSORS OF LESSING.

Geschichte der poetischen Theorie und Kritik von den Diskursen der Maler bis auf Lessing. Von Friedrich Braitmaier. Erster Teil: Die Anfänge der poetischen Theorie und Kritik im engsten Anschluss an Franzosen, Engländer und die Alten. Frauenfeld: Huber.

Of Milton it has been said that he is an author more praised than read. Similarly we are tempted to say of Lessing that he is, even in his own land, more praised than studied. Despite the marvellous accretion of knowledge since the days of the 'Laocoon' and the 'Dramaturgie,' we doubt whether modern German criticism is quite up to the level of Lessing in spirit and in method. Certainly it has not always the courage of its convictions. Yet the one lesson above all that Lessing should teach is the lesson of fearlessness. Failing that, of what superlative value are our critical and annotated texts and other helps?

Braitmaier's book, although not conceived *in majorem gloriam*, will enable us to behold the great Lessing in his real proportions. The field covered in these three hundred pages is confessedly arid, not to say repellant. Most of the authors and writings here discussed are mere mile-stones by the road of progress. Bodmer, Breitinger, Gottsched, König, Gellert, with their so-called views and theories, are completely superannuated. Yet the student of German literature (in which theoretical discussion plays so great a rôle) must know them and estimate them correctly, for they are the *milieu* from which sprang Lessing, and many of the critic-philosopher's utterances will be unintelligible without such knowledge. The work of depicting in detail the chaos that preceded Lessing was yet to do. It was worth doing well, and Braitmaier has done it well. His book is not one that will attract the general reader, but it will charm the genuine student. It has the full flavor of scholarship. One feels that the author has not skimmed the surface, but dived boldly to the depths, has caught the gist of many half-forgotten out-of-the-way periodicals and monographs, and presented it in clear readable style. It is something to be grateful for, this insight into German literature of the first half of the eighteenth century. We have now our standard by which to measure not only Lessing, but Herder, Goethe, and Schiller.

There are only two points that seem to call for especial mention. The most pleasing chapter in the book is the ninth, dealing chiefly with the elder (Elias) Schlegel. Is it exaggeration to say that this is the first tolerable presentation of Schlegel's claims to recognition? In truth he now appears as the only critic of the period that can be called clear-headed, sensible, spontaneous, prophetic of the future. His views upon the imitativeness of art, upon French and English poetry, upon the relations of antique and modern, are singularly attractive, even when we may have to disagree. Schlegel is fully worthy to be Lessing's predecessor. Indeed, as Braitmaier points out, his views on some points are more liberal, more truly modern, than even Lessing's.

Our other remark is in the nature of a warning. Criticism in England has never yet been erected into a system, doubtless because we have never had a Lessing. Hence it would be inadmissible to speak of the *foundations* of English criticism. Nevertheless, English opinion in matters of art and letters has had its *beginnings*, and these beginnings antedate by more than a century the Queen Anne period. Braitmaier, like so many of his countrymen, apparently does not go back further than the *Spectator*. Apparently, we say; for, knowing French and German critics to have taken their cue from the *Spectator* and its set, it is possible that he may not have thought it worth while to prosecute his studies further. Yet even this is a faulty method. It has caused him, if not downright error, at least a misunderstanding of the truth. England did not wait for the *Spectator* to teach it to discuss the merits and demerits of its poets. If so, what becomes of the critical studies of Sidney, Ben Jonson, and Dryden? When Braitmaier says, p. 38, "Was er [Bodmer] sonst gegen die Reime anführt, die Gewalt, die sie den Gedanken anthun sollen und dergleichen, zeigt seine Bekanntschaft mit der einschlägigen Behandlung der Reimfrage bei den Franzosen," we ask why we may not rather attribute Bodmer's opinion to Milton's well-known utterance (prefixed to 'Paradise Lost'): "rime, . . . the invention of a barbarous age to set off wretched matter and lame metre," etc. When Gottsched reproaches the English drama with nourishing the two main vices of the English folk, cruelty and lasciviousness, p. 139, it is not enough to designate this as "die übliche verkehrte Ansicht der Franzosen," p. 140. The sharpest taunts of the English stage have been uttered by Englishmen. Thus Jeremy Collier, in his 'Short View,' etc. (ch. i, p. 10, ed. of 1698), contrasts Euripides and Shakspere:

"She [*Phædra*] keeps her Modesty even after She has lost her Wits. Had *Shakespear* secur'd this point for his young Virgin *Ophelia*, the *Play* had been better contriv'd. Since he was resolv'd to drown the Lady like a Kitten, he should have set her swimming a little sooner. To keep her alive only to sully her Reputation, and discover the Rankness of her Breath, was very cruel."

Again, at p. 50, Collier says: "As for *Shakespear*, he is too guilty to make an Evidence: But I think he gains not much by his Misbehaviour; He has commonly *Plautus's Fate*, where there is most Smut, there is least Sense." We have not Prynne's 'Histrio-mastix' at hand, else it would be easy to multiply citations.

True, should Braitmaier give us the quip modest and demand to know why we Anglo-Americans have not written a history of English literary opinions to serve the foreigner as a guide, we should be at a loss for a reply. In the language of *Hamlet*, this thing is yet to do. The man who does it, even if only partially well, may be certain of abundant reward. Meanwhile, Braitmaier's book is a model of how such things should be done. We shall await with pleasure its completion.

Hosea Ballou: A Marvellous Life-Story. By Oscar F. Safford, D.D. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 1889.

Dr. Safford's title-page is unfortunate and unfulfilled. He should have left the reader to discover for himself whether the "life-story" of his hero was "marvellous." He has not shown us that it was, and he would have made a more favorable impression if he had been less ambitious. The life of Hosea Ballou, whose name is second to no other in the history of Universalism, had been written twice before Dr. Safford entered on his task. He speaks slightingly of his predecessors. One of them was the son of Ballou, and the other was the Rev. Thomas Whittemore, "a spiritual son," says Dr. Safford. He should have said unspiritual. Mr. Whittemore had many good qualities, but spirituality was not among them. His book made an "exceedingly unpleasant impression" on Dr. Safford. He thinks it misrepresented Ballou in an important particular, central to his thought—the saving power of death. It appears that Ballou at first believed in suffering after death for sin, and final restoration. Later he believed in no future punishment. Death was not the cause but the occasion of complete salvation. Whittemore represented him as making it the cause. The distinction is greater than the difference. After so much trumpeting in advance, the final outcome seems ridiculously small.

Throughout Dr. Safford's book there is something very like distrust of the interest and value of the story he is telling. He can never allow the facts to carry their own obvious significance, but he must be always booming them with an inflated rhetoric. He is continually drawing on his imagination to eke out the narrative, and putting speeches of his own into the mouths of his different characters. His confidence that he has written the final and sufficient biography of Ballou has no adequate

foundation. It is to be hoped the followers of Ballou will try again.

There is here no background of the picture such as a brief account of Murray's life and doctrine would properly furnish. Ballou's doctrine is not distinguished from Murray's with sufficient clearness. There is no suggestion of the bearing of modern criticism upon the textual polemics of Ballou and his opponents—polemics in which Ballou had a truly marvellous dexterity. The most forbidding passages only roused in him a keener joy of battle. The assumption that all apparent differences in the Bible must and can be made to harmonize was fundamental to the controversy of Ballou and his opponents, and Dr. Safford leaves his readers to suppose that it is an assumption that could be justly made.

Another aspect of Dr. Safford's work which is far from satisfactory is with respect to the relations of Universalists and Unitarians in the first quarter of the century. Murray had been as Trinitarian as Calvin; Ballou was as Unitarian as Channing. Ballou also anticipated the Unitarian rejection of the doctrines of total depravity and vicarious atonement. But Dr. Safford is extremely misleading when he represents a Unitarian belief in a more considerable future punishment as the only ground of difference. Unitarianism had a critical habit of mind to which Universalism had nothing corresponding. Until very recently Universalism has been as unquestioning in its belief in the infallible inspiration of the Bible as any evangelical Church, while Unitarianism has been foremost in its acceptance of modern critical results. Precisely the same work is now going on in the Universalist body as went on in the Unitarian forty years ago. It should also be mentioned that Universalism and Unitarianism arose in different social strata. Unitarianism was aristocratic, Universalism was democratic. "Universalists," it was said, "think God is too good to damn them. Unitarians think they are too good to be damned." The Universalists, as well as the Methodists, afford a damaging comment on the hasty generalization of Buckle to the effect that Arminianism and like genial faiths are for aristocratic societies.

To-day there are more Universalists in the evangelical sects than in the Universalist body. Ballou was the rude apostle of a once despised, now steadily increasing, faith. He knew the Bible by heart, not much with his head. He had eminent qualifications for his work, was simple and sincere, a man of ready wit and natural eloquence. His most remarkable achievement was in connection with the famous Abner Kneeland and two other ministers. They were appointed to prepare a hymn-book for the use of Universalist societies. They began *de novo* and wrote all the hymns—Ballou 198 of the whole number, which was 417. They were wretched doggerel, almost without exception; but they had in them no future punishment, unless they should be sung in heaven. Dr. Safford's specimens of the best do not make it easy to conceive the worst. They must have been as bad as the woodcuts of Ballou and Chapin and Whittemore and other celebrated Universalists with which a book, otherwise handsomely made, is shamefully disfigured.

Philo Judæus; or, Jewish-Alexandrian Philosophy in its Development and Completion. By James Drummond, LL.D. 2 vols. 8vo. London: Williams & Norgate.

THE notice of these two volumes is recommended more by the recently revived interest in Neo-Platonism than by the intrinsic merits of Philo's philosophy. This interest, however, is due less to any sympathetic appreciation of Neo-Platonic thought than to the growing scientific disposition to consider every system of doctrine at least as entitled to an explanation, and hence, be it profound or absurd, it must be accounted for. As a fact, it occupies as legitimate a place in the world of thought as any more acceptable philosophy, and the consciousness of this right, together with much importance attaching to the relation between Alexandrianism and early speculative Christianity, has insured it scientific investigation in the historical spirit. It is worth remarking, also, that the philosophic idealism of Germany has prepared the way for the perception of merits in Neo-Platonism that must escape the observation of every other form of philosophy.

About the only matter of interest to present thought in the teaching of Philo is the doctrine of the Logos. Every one who is at all acquainted with his work knows that Philo taught this doctrine in all its completeness, and that the views involved in it permeated his whole system of philosophy; so that the only question which remains is, whether he arrived at it independently or derived it from Christianity. A few historical facts throw important light upon this subject. On his own testimony, corroborated by a correct account of contemporary events, Philo was on an embassy to Rome at the end of 39 A. D., or at the beginning of 40 A. D. In the narrative of this mission he alludes to himself as an "old and gray-headed man" at the time, and critics are agreed that this language imports that he was at least between sixty and seventy years of age, making his birth at least 20 B. C., perhaps earlier. Happily, also, the fact that the period of his greatest literary activity terminated before the year 38 A. D. can be determined with a tolerable degree of approximation to certainty. That is, his teaching was mainly completed at a period not later than five years after the crucifixion, while a portion of it, perhaps the largest portion of it, was most probably completed before Jesus began his ministry, since Philo was at this time at least fifty, perhaps sixty, years of age. It is with inferences drawn from this and similar facts that theologians have to contend—inferences that are very much reinforced by the fact that the doctrine of the Logos does not appear in the Synoptical Gospels, but only in the Fourth, whose authorship, according to some of the most conservative critics, dates not earlier than forty years after the crucifixion, and, according to others, in the latter part of the second century. The study of Philo throws a great deal of light on this subject from the standpoint of internal evidence.

We need not take notice of the great hierarchy of angels, supernatural beings, and occult forces which characterize this whole system, and which are so foreign to present modes of thought. But there is one significant feature growing out of these characteristics which is worth very serious consideration. It is the prominence given to abnormal experience, ecstasy, mania, dreams, magic, witchcraft, necromancy, and like phenomena, as testimony for supernatural existence. The old views of religion were on the decline, and, since the scepticism of the New Academy could not be met by ordinary reasoning, the last desperate resort of the religious spirit was an appeal to superstition. Every historian of philosophy considers this tendency an unmistakable indication of moral and intellectual decline. An instructive comparison might be drawn between this state of thought and the present sympathy for spiritualistic phenomena—a feeling not altogether confined to a class of unscientific enthusiasts, but more or less distributed over the whole area of that speculation which has its roots in the supernatural. It is quite possible that it has a modicum of profound truth in it. But very great care and wisdom are required in handling it, if we are to succeed in preventing the higher thoughts of men from running off into that maudlin transcendentalism which was the bane of Neo-Platonic philosophy.

Mr. Drummond, however, has done very little at discussing the larger relations of this philosophy to its own and subsequent ages. Those fine observations are wanting here which make so attractive the work of Zeller and Harnack. The author does not enter into the spirit of his subject in any way to keep up the interest of the ordinary student, or even to instruct any but those who have already seen into the tendencies of the period. The value of the work would have been greatly enhanced if we could meet some discursions into the wider movements of human thought that would help both to interest the reader, to give scholarship and power to the discussion, and to explain an anomalous philosophy whose best apology would be the causes for its appearance.

This system, strange as it appears to us, has some redeeming features in it, if only we can look at the motives and intellectual conditions which originated it. Behind the scenes in the political and moral corruption of the times, this philosophy has a beautiful obverse side, as a despairing attempt of the human mind to reach some ideal which would compensate the consciousness of a fallen nature with the possibilities of a higher life. No man could enter into public affairs without compromising his integrity, and private life was little better. Action of almost every kind was only so much homage paid to selfishness, cruelty, and dishonesty. The better spirits of the age found their escape from this only in a life of contemplation, and their philosophy came out as a personification of their mental experience. It was poetry and mythology in the garb of science, but presented to an age which had been disenchanted of its illusions and which had lost its faith in the earlier impulses of Greek thought. It took the creations of the imagination, however, too seriously, as containing the highest hopes of speculation. Plato knew well how to handle the Myth for what it was worth, but an age less trained by personal contact with philosophic scepticism, as it appeared in Protagoras and his school, could not distinguish between a beautiful ideal and a scientific fact. Yet, after the worst has been said, the influence of that spirit has given color to all subsequent history, whether for good or for evil. Christianity took it up, and if we could estimate the force of the ideal upon human character, if we could at this date fully realize what it was from which early Christianity, with all its philosophic affiliations, had saved the world, our appreciation of Neo-Platonic and Alexandrian attempts at philosophy would be more generous, although this feeling would not necessitate any abatement of our criticism upon its unscientific character.

All this it would have been well for our author to have brought out. It is a defect that he has not done so, for he might thus have given some life to what must otherwise be regarded as a kind of intellectual charnel-house, where those in search of living interests will seek in vain. The permanent significance of Philo's thought is what students and scholars want, and much less the mere narrative of it, as if it were a translation.

The Evolution of the Chinese Language. By Joseph Edkins, D.D. London: Trübner & Co.

THIS essay, which is reprinted from the Journal of the Peking Oriental Society, is designed to show that the Chinese language is "the equivalent of the primeval language, forming with that language a consolidated unity" (p. v). The subject is an abstruse one, and we confess to a difficulty in following the method adopted by the author in its elucidation.

If, in the earliest ages, the philology of (now) separated families "is fused in one general philology," which the author regards as unity, are we to assume that before the separation "which soon followed" (p. vii), there existed a developed speech common to that one primeval family, confined within a defined territorial centre? We think such a supposition untenable, because it is natural to suppose that every member of the family would coin words for the use of his own household (so to speak), independent of the other members of the family. There would be doubtless certain words common to the whole undivided race, especially such words as relate to food, and perhaps conspicuous natural objects; but as to a philology, or any regular grammatical construction of language based on one common and generally accepted system, we doubt the possibility of such an assumption. The formation of different rules and modes of speech, and the invention of words among the individual sections of the "one family," we should argue, prepared the way for and led to ultimate separation, and this disintegrating process was going on from the very first.

Then, again, if language is a physical science, it must depend on physical causes; and such causes would be found in personal peculiarities, leading to family differences of utterance, and these differences would be perpetuated in such families, causing, from the very first, a serious disturbance in the supposed unity of language. We might take as an example, perhaps, a very primitive sound-word denoting "a star." This object would be one of the first to attract observation, and we will assume that the primitive word to denote this object was derived from the ground root "tr," which, according to Dean Byrne ('Origin of Greek and Gothic Roots,' p. 241), "denotes a current of breath over the vibrating tongue, imitating a quivering sound"; as such it would denote the quivering, or tingling, light of the stars, and would form a word like "tar." Now let us suppose a physical defect of utterance in an early generation of some particular family of mankind, a defect like stammering: the word "tar" would then become "star," a word now common in most Western languages. There are other physical defects we might name which would cause early variations of utterance and militate against any unity of long duration.

But, passing on, we observe that Dr. Edkins traces the earliest formation of words to the visible use of labials and the employment of the hand. Undoubtedly the hand, as an index of the working of mind, has an immense influence in the production of language. Even in our day, we are told that some speakers, if their hands were tied down, would be unable to form a sentence of sustained speech. And this reminds us irresistibly of the comical account given by MM. Huc and Gabet of the donkey that was braying all night to their annoyance. The remedy suggested, and successfully used, was simply tying a heavy stone to the tail of the animal: there was no more braying. And so in the human subject, the free use of the hands, either as imitative of objects, suggesting words, or as sympathetic with the movements of the mind, directly creating words—such use of the hands is eminently a word-making power.

With respect to the labial letters being the first used and so standing at the outside door of recognized language, we do not doubt the large use of labials in the formation of a very numerous class of words, especially such words as relate to food and eating. Byrne gives a long list of such words derived from the ground roots, *mn*, *ms*, *mt*, *m*; and, in fact, we may all see this natural expression of mind in the movements of a child's lips when asking for food. But we doubt if the labials in any way led to the evolution of dentals, or palatals, or gutturals; these would seem to be synchronous with the earliest labials, having a ground meaning (*Grund-bedeutung*) in common with the rest. Mr. Davies, in his 'Celtic Researches,' has well explained this matter. He says:

"We have an original propensity born with us to express and communicate certain perceptions or ideas by appropriate sounds; such perceptions and sounds have therefore a natural relationship. Thus, E, I, B, L, N cannot express a thundering crash or shock, as R, G, S, T can. Certain actions spontaneously generate fixed sounds: catching at, or touching, an object is denoted by the sound C or K, hugging by G, pushing by P, tugging by T, and so on."

And then the same writer goes on to speak of the story about Psammetichus and the two children he shut up, to find out from their first utterances the original language, concluding that the Phrygian was that language because they first used the word *Bek*, the Phrygian for "bread." Dr. Edkins, on p. 10 of his Essay, has also the remark that "to some extent the sounds first learned by children may be taken to be an index to the sounds first used by man in primitive language." But, as we said before, there seems to be no reason to suppose that such utterances would be confined to the labial letters.

With respect to the immediate argument, as to "the evolution of Chinese," we have nothing to add to the foregoing general remarks. The learning of Dr. Edkins is undoubted, and in this essay he quite equals, if not surpasses, himself, as we judge of him from his former philological and historical works.

The Modern Chess Instructor. By W. Steinitz. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE latest book on chess by one of the greatest of living masters is a matter of interest to a large number of people all over the world. The number of chess enthusiasts—of those who practically devote their lives to the game—is, of course, limited, but such a book as this attracts many readers not sufficiently gifted to become masters, but who have at some time in their lives yielded to the strange fascination of the game. The present volume deals with some of the well-known openings, which are illustrated by a most interesting collection of more or less historic games; and the analysis of the many variations is worthy of all praise. To show the thoroughness of this analysis, it is, perhaps, sufficient to say that it covers forty-two variations of the Ruy Lopez opening, and fifty-four of the Scotch gambit, and that many of the variations are carried out to the 13th or 14th move on each side. Moreover, a flood of light is thrown on the illustrative games by a profusion of critical notes which cannot fail to interest the student. It is to be presumed that in his second volume Mr. Steinitz will deal with the remainder of the recognized openings, otherwise this volume, good as it is, must be regarded as a fragment.

Mr. Steinitz calls attention to the fact that many celebrated men have been good players, but he fails to explain—what to non-players is always a mystery—the peculiar charm that attracted these great men to the game. Perhaps this cannot easily be done. True, it has lately been held that the fame of a great chess-player is better established and less liable to suffer from the withering effects of time than other kinds of fame. And it is probable that Captain Evans, who invented the Evans gambit, will be remembered longer than any other Captain Evans in the British service. It may be that Buckle's games of chess will still be studied when the 'History of Civilization' is permanently out of print; and, without exaggeration, one might go further and say that, thirty years ago, when Morphy was overthrowing all the great European players, he was generally regarded as the most wonderful product of this country. And yet it is an open question whether the great master gets more satisfaction out of his game than the humble amateur. In any case the latter can take comfort in the fact that, whereas it is undoubtedly true that certain great men were good chess-players, it is equally true that the majority of great chess-players are absolutely incapable of first-class mental work in any other direction.

Mr. Steinitz holds that if two fine players make no blunders, their games will invariably be drawn; and the truth of this opinion is to some extent born out by the result of the last American Congress. But surely this is rather a tournament prize-winning view of the game, eliminating the brilliant possibilities of play like Morphy's, and overlooking the fact, to which he elsewhere calls attention, that the combinations of the chess-board are as infinite as those of the piano. After all, perhaps the most striking point developed by this latest treatise is the slow growth of the game in the last two or three centuries; for, in spite of all that the modern school claims to have accomplished in extending the analysis of the openings, there is still room for infinite extension, and Mr. Steinitz is frank enough to point out that modern masters occasionally make extraordinary blunders in important games.

Watts's Dictionary of Chemistry. Revised and Entirely Rewritten by H. Forster Morley and H. M. Pattison Muir. In four volumes. Vols. I. and II. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888-89.

A CHEMICAL dictionary is to a certain extent a confession of imperfect knowledge, since it is an attempt to escape from the difficulty of forming a strictly scientific system of classification. The number of such works, English, French, and German, is a sufficient evidence of the greater convenience of the unscientific method of treating the subject. Watts's well-known work first appeared some twenty-five years since, and met with a cordial reception. Several supplements appeared later, vainly striving to keep up with the progress of the science. The new work is to embrace four volumes, and will not contain Technical Chemistry, which is to be treated in a separate volume by Prof. Thorpe. Prof. Muir has charge of Inorganic, and Prof. Morley of Organic, Chemistry, but there are many contributors—English, American, and foreign—and in the list of these we notice several distinguished names. The work cannot be considered as a new edition of that of Watts, whose name, however, it bears, but as a new work, and one involving immense labor. Each editor furnishes an introduction to his special part, containing necessary explanations of his own plan.

In Inorganic Chemistry the arrangement is perhaps the best which could be chosen. The

description of each element is followed by accounts of its binary and doubly binary compounds, chlorides, oxides, oxychlorides, etc.; but cyanides are placed in one class. There is also for each group—oxides, chlorides, etc.—a general article which greatly facilitates comparisons. Carbonates, nitrates, and other salts are treated in special articles, and not under the metal which they contain. In the Organic part of the work a number of changes are introduced which it is not necessary to specify here. The special articles are usually very brief, various contractions being employed. When it is remembered that the Annual Reports of the German Chemical Society alone now occupy four large octavo volumes, and that by far the greater part of the work is taken up with organic chemistry, some idea may be formed of the rate at which this branch of science advances, and of the difficulty of keeping pace with it in a work the publication of which must extend through several years at least. The progress of inorganic chemistry has been far less rapid, and our present knowledge of many elements is still very imperfect. With many shortcomings, the work is one of great value for reference even to those who, like the great majority of American chemists, are familiar with the German and French languages. The articles naturally vary much in authority. Of special interest we may cite those of E. Ray Lankester on Bacteria, of Lothar Meyer on Allotropy, of Wilhelm Ostwald on Affinity, of Muir on Chemical Classification and Atomic Weights; and of J. J. Thomson on Chemical Equilibrium; but there are others which would deserve mention in a longer notice. It is perhaps not quite fair to compare the work with the much longer and more elaborate dictionaries, as for example with the 'Handwörterbuch der Chemie,' the second edition of which, begun in 1871, "still drags its slow length along"—the fifth volume being not yet complete, while the first is antiquated. But so far as the longer articles are concerned, the English work holds its own. Some omissions will excite the surprise of chemists. Thus, Blomstrand's beautiful theory of the metalamines now generally adopted is not noticed, while a far less simple view is brought forward. But due allowance must be made for differences of opinion on theoretical points. Judging the work by the volumes which have appeared, we can fairly assign to it a high rank and predict for it a cordial reception and a very wide field of usefulness.

Faust: A Tragedy by Goethe. The Second Part. Translated in Verse, with Introduction and Notes. By J. A. Birds. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

THE first volume of Mr. Birds's translation of 'Faust' appeared in 1880, and contained in its Preface a somewhat fervid defence of the proposition that blank verse is the true vehicle for an English version of 'Faust.' "Blank verse," he wrote, "appears to me to be the practicable mean between prose and an imitation of the original metres, both of which, though from opposite causes, are inadequate instruments to reproduce the poetry. A translation in prose does not allow full scope to the powers of the language; while one in the original, perhaps in any rhymed, metres exceeds them." Though a little sceptical, we listened to this argumentation in a docile and expectant spirit, thinking that now, perhaps, the circle was really about to be squared. It was, therefore, no slight shock that we felt upon discovering that Mr. Birds's first plunge into his "practicable mean" had resulted in this:

"Philosophy, ah! and Law, and Medicine,
And, woe is me! Theology also,
Now have I studied through with burning zeal.
And here I stick at last, poor fool! and am
Wise as I was before."

This seemed to us decidedly *too* blank even for Goethe's doggerel. Still, remembering that "Aller Anfang ist schwer," we repressed our doubt as to whether Mr. Birds's chosen metre would really have a fair chance in his hands, and read on; and justice compels us to say that we found no other passage quite so suggestive of riding over a corduroy road. In fact, as academic blank verse runs, the product seemed to be pretty good. Nevertheless, as we continued to read and compare his versions with those of Taylor and Miss Swanwick, our verdict became more and more unfavorable to his dogma. It is true that Taylor was often led by the exigencies of metre to do more or less violence to what may be called English poetic idiom; but it is no less true that, taken as a whole, his translation comes much nearer to reproducing the spirit of 'Faust' than does Mr. Birds's blank verse.

And if the impression left by Mr. Birds's work upon the dialogue was to the effect that his translation was without excuse, this impression was only confirmed by his rendering of the lyrical passages, in which, as a rule, he was clearly inferior to Taylor. Take, for comparison, the latter's rendering of Gabriel's chant in the Prologue:

"And swift, and swift beyond conceiving,
The splendor of the world goes round,
Day's Eden-brightness still relieving
The awful Night's intense profound;
The ocean-tides in foam are breaking,
Against the rocks' deep bases hurled,
And both, the spheric race partaking,
Eternal, swift, are onward whirled."

This is musical, idiomatic, and faithful, and reproduces very fully the peculiar sublimity of the original—that which Shelley, in a foot-note to his own luckless attempt at a translation, called "the volatile strength and delicacy of the ideas." An occasional triumph of this sort in Taylor's version tells us plainly enough what the right translation of 'Faust' *would* be if we could only get it. How, then, with such lines before him, could Mr. Birds content himself with this:

"And swift, and swifter than our sense
Revolveth earth's magnificence;
Exchanging Paradise's light
For the profound and dreadful night;
Foameth the sea in whit'ning waves
Along the rock-built mountain base;
And rock and sea are whirled away
Amid the spheres' eternal race."

In the second volume of his translation, which has lately come to hand, Mr. Birds seems to have abandoned his blank-verse theory entirely; at least he does not make use of that metre. The rhythms employed by him in the Second Part are substantially those of the original, save that Goethe's feminine rhymes are very often replaced by masculine ones. These rhymes, so numerous and natural in German, are the great *crux* of the metrical translator. Taylor usually made it a matter of conscience to keep them, and in so doing was driven to all sorts of shifts. Take, for example, these lines from the beautiful *terza rima* passage at the beginning of Part II.:

"Du, Erde, warst auch diese Nacht beständig,
Und athmest neu erquickt zu meinen Füssen,
Beginnest schon mit Lust mich zu umgeben,
Und regst und rührst ein kräftiges Beschliessen
Zum höchsten Dasein immer fort zu streben."

Taylor's version is:

"This night, thou Earth! hast also stood unshaken,
And now thou breathest new-refreshed before me,
And now beginnest, all thy gladness granting,
A vigorous resolution to restore me
To seek that highest life for which I'm panting."

One who can read the German feels how it suffers through the translator's "padding"; and one who cannot must find the English poetically awkward. More natural, at any rate, though it sacrifices the Dante cadence, is Mr. Birds's rendering:

"Thou, Earth, on this night too hast steadfast been,
And breath'st again new-quickened at my feet,
Beginn'st again to make my joy revive,
And strong resolve inflam'st, with noble heat,
After the highest evermore to strive."

In this change, however, he had been anticipated by Miss Swanwick, whose rendering is at least not inferior to his:

"Thou, Earth, this night wast also constant found,
And, newly quickened, breathing at my feet,
Beginnest now to gird me with delight;
A strong resolve dost rouse, with noble heat
Aye to press on to being's sovereign height."

The effect of Mr. Birds's translation of the Second Part is in the main pleasing; it is much more satisfactory than his first volume; indeed, if it stood alone, we should think it worthy of high praise. But it does not stand alone, and, after a careful comparison of many passages both easy and difficult, we have not found one in which he has clearly improved upon both Taylor and Miss Swanwick, whereas he is often inferior to one or both of them. The second volume, like the first, has upwards of a hundred pages of notes which, however, do not take the interpretation of 'Faust' appreciably beyond where Taylor left it. Recent German scholarship is ignored.

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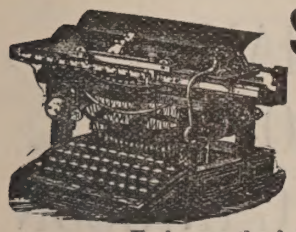

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1889.

The Week.

POOR Tanner has been publicly humiliated again for having followed in the Pension Office the pledges which he and his superior in the White House had made on the stump. Last year Gen. Harrison declared that "this is no time to use the apothecary's scale to measure the rewards of men who saved the country." In accordance with the spirit of this declaration, Tanner was no sooner installed in office than he tossed out of the window "the apothecary's scale" of a law which fixed the rate of many thousands of pensioners at two dollars a month, and doubled the amount by one of his own orders. This order has now been rescinded by the Interior Department, on the ground that "it has neither the color of law nor the authority of precedent." Now, in order to furnish the most conspicuous possible illustration of the fact that "the apothecary's scale" had been discarded, the Corporal had picked out a well-to-do official, Senator Manderson of Nebraska, jumped the rate of his pension up from $15 to $30 per month, and sent him $4,300 back pay. When this outrageous performance was exposed last summer, all hands concerned attempted to brazen it out, Mr. Manderson himself telling an Omaha reporter that it was nobody's business. But the force of public opinion has made itself felt, and both the Interior Department and the Nebraska Senator have been constrained to bow before it. Secretary Noble recently informed Mr. Manderson that "the rerating, having been without application and without medical examination, was not in pursuance of the usual practice, was not in compliance with rule, and was therefore unwarranted"; and the Senator, finding that there was nothing else to do, has returned the rerated certificate and the $4,300, although he does it with ill grace. So far the experiment of running the United States Government on what may be called the hay-scale basis has not been a success.

The full returns of the Indianapolis election show it to have been one of the most gratifying exhibitions of Mugwumpism ever seen in a municipal election. The *Journal*, the President's home organ, next morning after the voting, said that the result was "largely due to Republican apathy and absenteeism from the polls"; but as the total vote was hundreds larger than in the preceding city election, it is evident that what converted a Republican majority of 774 into a Democratic majority of 1,791 was not the absence of Republicans from the polls, but their presence with Democratic ballots, which they cast to rebuke the gang rule of the last two years. Thus does the Mugwump, so often and so ostentatiously buried by such Republican organs as the Indianapolis *Journal*, suddenly reappear, to the confusion of the enemies of good government.

We notice in the *Tribune's* despatches from Washington that the Rev. Dr. Hamlin of the Church of the Covenant in that city announced from the pulpit on Sunday that a gentleman known to be Mr. Halford, the President's private secretary, was about to start "an adult Bible class," and "solicited applications for membership." Mr. Halford, it appears, is himself a "well-known communicant of the church," but he is also the Mr. Elijah Halford who, before taking his present place, was editor of the Indianapolis *Journal*, and in that capacity, on the 13th of October, 1888, wrote, or caused to be written, and printed in his paper an editorial article charging President Cleveland, by innuendo, with accepting "a check for $10,000" as a bribe for allowing Government deposits to be in certain banks, and adding: "Nothing in his [the President's] character or antecedents forbade the supposition that he would accept that favor." Halford now knows that President Harrison is doing the very same thing in the matter of the deposits that President Cleveland did, and must therefore be fully convinced that his charge against Mr. Cleveland was a disgraceful slander, forbidden by the Ninth Commandment. It seems eminently fitting, therefore, that Mr. Halford, before starting his "adult Bible class," and, indeed, in order to fit him to conduct a Bible class at all without gross scandal, should make some apology or atonement for his offence as public as the offence itself. Did he belong to the Catholic Church, we do not believe—we speak under correction—that he would be allowed to set up as a religious teacher of any description without first purifying himself by some sort of recantation or penance. What aggravates his guilt and makes his present situation all the more embarrassing is, that he cited President Cleveland's failure to live up to his "civil-service-reform professions," in support of the charge of "personal dishonesty"—an argument which, if sound, surrounds his own chief with a nimbus which is anything but Biblical. We respectfully ask the Rev. Dr. Hamlin to look into this matter before allowing Mr. Halford to start as a teacher in his church. There is so much religion in this Administration that it is of the last importance that as much of it as comes before the public should be "pure and undefiled."

Neither time nor political mischance has detracted anything from the ability of Senator John Sherman to make the worse appear the better reason. His right hand has not forgot its cunning, nor eke his tongue. He made a speech at Orville, O., on Thursday, in which the tariff naturally formed the *pièce de résistance*. The dangers threatening the industries of the country if any such measure as the Mills bill should become a law, were feelingly depicted. There was nobody present, apparently, to remind Mr. Sherman that he advocated and voted for a bill in 1872 which made larger tariff reductions in the average than the Mills bill proposed. But if the honorable Senator had been reminded of this fact, he would undoubtedly have scuttled away by showing that the particular reductions that he favored in 1872 were different in some respects from those which the Mills bill proposed. The fact that Mills himself was a Southerner, and the leading supporters of the bill Southern Democrats, was used to good effect again, the pertinence of that circumstance to the economic bearings of the measure being perfectly obvious to all. Having shown satisfactorily that it is the tariff that sustains the industries of the country, including agriculture, and keeps the wages of workingmen up to a high level, Mr. Sherman took up the subject of Trusts and combinations, and said that "they have no connection with tariff laws." But he said subsequently: "If such individuals or corporations combine to advance the price of the domestic product and to prevent the free result of open and fair competition, I would without a moment's hesitation reduce the duties on foreign goods competing with them, in order to break down the combination." The Orville speech having been written and printed and sent to the press before it was delivered, what are we to think of these two incongruous statements, first, that Trusts have *no connection* with tariff laws, and second, that if they do combine to take advantage of the tariff, he (Sherman) will vote to reduce the duties? It is all very mysterious, or would be in the case of a speaker of less known dexterity and facility for dodging and doubling and twisting than John Sherman.

When Messrs. Thurber and Plummer were circulating forged and fraudulent extracts from English papers in the last canvass, we did not know that they were copying a greater man than Thurber and at least the equal of Plummer. It appears that it was the first Napoleon who started the dodge of getting sham extracts from English papers for political purposes. He wrote to Fouché August 28, 1804: "The notes you have sent me upon the powerlessness of Russia are written by a man of sense. Publish them in a newspaper as translated from an English paper; *choose the name of one that is little known*" (Lanfrey, ii., 146). How this last touch reminds one of the device of the Home Market Club of Boston in ascribing one of their forged extracts to an English paper entitled the *Iron Era*, which was not only "little known," but did not exist. We are ashamed of Plummer. We had no idea he was a plagiarist.

The *Electrical Engineer* (October number) has an article on the copper tariff in its relation to our export trade in electrical supplies, showing how this industry has been crippled, and in some cases actually transferred to Europe, by our tariff, which enables foreigners to get American copper at lower

rates than our own manufacturers can get it. A case is mentioned where an American manufacturer of insulated copper wire, which he was exporting to foreign markets, observing that the price of copper in the United States was several cents a pound higher than in Europe, concluded that his trade in the American-made wire could not be permanent, because the Europeans would soon imitate his wire and run him out, having their copper cheaper. So he sent machinery over there and started the manufacture in Europe. Then the price of copper in the United States fell to the European price and he sent his machinery back. Then the French copper syndicate collapsed and the European price went down, but the American combination held together and maintained the price here at four to five cents above the foreign. So the machinery was sent over a second time, and is now in operation, and the country has lost whatever advantage it possessed in the manufacture of this wire for export. "A difference," says the *Electrical Engineer*, "in the price of copper between the United States and Europe of 20 per cent. is enough to swallow up all the profit in the export of many electrical supplies, such as insulated wire and cables, while it places American makers of dynamos, and of any other apparatus containing copper or brass, at a decided disadvantage in the markets of the world. The recent drop in the American price improves the situation of manufacturers in the United States; but let us not complacently assume that the copper-miners have experienced religion."

The decision of Judge Day in the Kemmler case, affirming the constitutionality of the Electrical Execution Law, must have been anticipated from the beginning. To set aside a law of the State, passed after more than the usual deliberation, merely because some people think one way and some people think another way, would be a very fantastic method of carrying on a government, and one which the judiciary would not be likely to lend countenance to. That electricity will kill, and kill suddenly, is attested almost daily in our streets. This is a fact which everybody except electrical experts interested in overhead wires understand. Whenever a man is instantly killed in this way, a desperate effort is made to show that the insulation was defective, or that the weather was damp, or that there was a leak somewhere, or that the converter was put in the wrong place. But when it is proposed to apply electricity directly to a murderer under sentence of death, without any insulation at all, and in the most scientific state of dampness, and so that all the leakage shall go into the body of the condemned, and so that the converter shall be in exactly the right place, then learned counsel and learned witnesses come forward by scores to tell us that it is extremely doubtful whether electricity will kill instantly, and so doubtful that we ought to go back to hanging, which, as everybody knows, will kill in the course of one to twenty minutes, according to the state of the machinery in use, the strength of the rope, the skill of the Sheriff, and the state of his nervous system.

The final tests of the Zalinski dynamite guns on board the cruiser *Vesuvius*, which was built for the purpose of carrying them, were remarkably successful, and official word to that effect has been communicated to the Navy Department. It was demonstrated that the three guns, mounted at the bow of the cruiser, were capable of throwing fifteen shells, each carrying 200 pounds of dynamite, a distance of more than a mile within about seventeen minutes. The three guns were tried in succession. The first discharged its five shells in less than five minutes, the second did the same work in about the same time, and the third in a little more than six minutes. As the contract with the Government required a discharge of fifteen shells within thirty minutes, this was giving almost double what was required. There was sufficient air pressure remaining in the guns at the close of the experiments to show them capable of throwing fifteen more shells without replenishing the air reservoirs. Each shell contains 200 pounds of high explosive, and the guns are therefore capable of carrying 6,000 pounds of the most powerful explosive matter a distance of over a mile with no danger of explosion till it reaches its destination. Here is indeed a new and awful terror added to modern warfare.

The *Twentieth Century*, edited by the Rev. Mr. Pentecost, has discovered that Mr. Henry George is not the true inventor of the Single Tax philosophy, but that the credit belongs to the late Patrick Edward Dove, a Scotchman, who published in 1850 a book entitled 'The Theory of Human Progression,' which contains all the leading ideas that are embraced in Mr. George's 'Progress and Poverty,' set out in much the same way. The article in the *Twentieth Century* is headed "A Collapse of Henry George's Pretensions," and is written by J. W. Sullivan. Copious extracts from Mr. Dove's book and from Mr. George's are printed, to show the similarity of views and of forms of stating them. We shall not attempt to pass judgment upon the charge of wholesale plagiarism (for that is what it amounts to) which is thus preferred against the author of 'Progress and Poverty.' It is admitted by Mr. George's accuser that his (George's) style of putting the great truths of the single tax before the world is more captivating than Mr. Dove's, and to this is attributed the fact that while Mr. George's book is to be found everywhere, Mr. Dove's is to be found only in the Astor Library and the Mercantile Library. The obvious suggestion is, that Mr. Dove's book ought to be reprinted at once and put into the Seaside Library.

One reason why Mr. Dove's book produced such barren results, we venture to say, was because there was nothing in it that was of value to the human race, for, however defective his style might be (and it does not strike us as so very bad), if it held the live coal of truth it would have made a blaze before now. The writings of the late Mr. Darwin are certainly not attractive in point of style. Except his 'Voyage of a Naturalist Round the World' (in the *Beagle*), which possesses the interest of narrative and travel, his books are extremely dry and crabbed in point of diction. He is much behind his contemporaries Wallace and Huxley in this regard. Yet Wallace and Huxley and nearly all modern naturalists have come to acknowledge him as their master, while all the world has been reading his books these twenty years despite his infelicities of style. Is it not reasonable to suppose that if there had been any sound logic in Dove's treatise—still more if it had showed how to expel poverty from the world—the world would have found it out before now, and crowned it with garlands, and adopted it as a kind of new Bible? Can we imagine anything more important than the abolishing of poverty? Next to the saving of souls, it must be accounted the most transcendent achievement that the human intellect ever has attained to or ever will. If we could tell in black and white, in any kind of diction, how that end might be gained, we should feel sure of greater literary fame than that of Shakspere, greater than that of all the poets that ever lived. And we should be sure, too, of some general recognition before the lapse of forty years.

Ex-Mayor Oakey Hall's action in bringing in London a suit for $50,000 damages against James Bryce for publishing, in his 'American Commonwealth,' a chapter on the Tweed Ring in which Hall is spoken of as a member, has caused considerable surprise to American readers of the book. The chapter was written for the book by Prof. F. J. Goodnow of Columbia College, and is a calm and moderate statement of unquestioned historical facts. In one place it speaks of Hall as a politician who "proved extremely useful to Tammany Hall," and in another it quotes Samuel J. Tilden's comment on Hall's election as Mayor, that by it the "Ring became completely organized and matured," adding: "It (the Ring) controlled the Common Council of the city and the Legislature of the State, and its nominee sat in the Gubernatorial chair; Hall was Mayor; Sweeny was City Chamberlain or Treasurer of both city and county; Tweed was practically supreme in the Street Department; Connolly was City Comptroller, and thus had charge of the city finances; the city judiciary was in sympathy with these men; and finally their control of the Tammany organization made it an extremely difficult if not an impossible thing to dislodge them from their position by opposing them at elections." Mention is also made of the fact that when Tweed had the Board of Apportionment created, Hall became a member of it, with Connolly, Tweed, and Sweeny, and that thus the "Ring obtained the entire control of the city"; and of the other equally important fact that Hall became with Connolly and Tweed the *ad-interim* "Board of Audit" which, through Watson, audited and paid

within three months and a half $6,000,000 of claims, the greater part of which were to reimburse the Ring for its expenditures in getting the charter of Tweed in 1870 through the Legislature. Hall's reëlection is spoken of as having "strengthened" the Ring, and considerable space is devoted to the Ring's subsequent operations in getting laws through the Legislature to increase the amount of the public money which it could expend. The Big Four of that day were Tweed, Hall, Connolly, and Sweeny, and in one place Prof. Goodnow says of them: "The methods which the Ring adopted to fill the pockets of its members were various in kind and of different degrees of immorality." We believe that this is one of the grounds upon which Mr. Hall bases his demands for damages, he having always declared that none of the money went into his own pockets. That he was the fourth member of the Ring, or the "Big Four," is, of course, not to be denied; neither is it to be denied that if he had not been a faithful ally of Tweed, he would never have been put into the position.

What Mr. Hall is trying to accomplish by libel suit in London—that is, to rehabilitate his reputation—another of the Big Four, Peter B. Sweeny, is trying to accomplish here by long statements in the newspapers. He has made many of these, and the latest fills nearly six columns of Monday's *World*. Mr. Sweeny, like Mr. Hall, was acquitted in court of complicity in the Ring frauds, but both men have learned by many years of bitter experience that the court of public opinion has refused to acquit them of moral guilt in all the Ring's doings. They were Tweed's allies throughout all the Ring's transactions, and if none of the money which was taken from the city treasury could be traced into their pockets, they were the means by which millions of it went into other people's pockets, for the prosperity and glory of Tammany Hall. It is well to have the doings of the Big Four of other days recalled now, for their operations may serve to give our public a warning of what the Tammany Big Four of to-day would like to undertake provided they could get the power.

Five "bye-elections" have recently taken place in England. In two of them the Tories have lost seats they already held. In one they have increased their majority by seven. In the remaining two the Liberals have retained their seats by increased majorities. The latest defeat of the Tories in North Buckinghamshire, an agricultural and Tory county, where, under absolutely similar conditions, the figures of the last election have been reversed, has naturally spread a panic through the Liberal-Unionist ranks, and is leading some people to expect a dissolution of Parliament. But it is plain enough that the more certain the Liberal-Unionists become that they will be evicted whenever the voters get a chance at them, the more strenuously they will oppose a dissolution. They have now the certainty of sitting and legislating until 1892, and why should they relinquish it? We may be sure the Tories agree with them on this point. Besides this, Mr. Balfour is, in their opinion, trying a most important experiment in Ireland, which he says will win the Irish over to English rule within a brief period, and he must not be interrupted. But if the bye-elections continue to go in this way, "the sweets of office" will consist mainly of the salaries. These elections do not, of course, prove that the triumph of home rule is either assured or close at hand, but they effectually dispose of the notion that there is any reaction going on among the voters either favorable to the Conservatives or discouraging to the Gladstonians. They also put a stamp of positive silliness on such lucubrations as those of Judge Hughes in a late number of the *Forum*, in which he calmly assures the American public that all supporters of Gladstone palliate or connive at murder and robbery, or, in other words, that all the political wisdom and morality of the United Kingdom is lodged in the heads of one party.

The departure of Gen. Boulanger for the Island of Jersey, in order to reduce his expenses, "with a female companion," is a ludicrously characteristic exit for a French pretender of this stamp. The supplies of money are, of course, stopping, and the Royalists and Bonapartists have now no further use for him, and have formally dissolved connection with him. He still maintains that the people will call for him by and by, but he is doubtless much more occupied about his pecuniary future than about any prospective calls from the people. The probabilities still seem extremely strong that his friends will have finally to set him up, either in London or Brussels, in a café and billiard-saloon. One can see him now, without much strain on the imagination, in his shirt-sleeves, very fat and pasty-looking, leaning on his cue waiting for his stroke, or looking on over his absinthe at the games of his customers, and rolling a cigarette while he tells wondrous tales of the knaveries of the Republican Government, and of the secret demands he receives from a disgusted people to come back and turn the rascals out.

The usual annual war alarm has just been started again in Europe, but will probably subside under the influence of the Czar's visit to Berlin. It owed most of its strength to the rumor that the Czar was delaying his return visit to the German Emperor to a discourteous degree, and that, in conjunction with continued concentration of Russian troops on the German frontier, it meant trouble in the near future. It also derived some strength from the result of the French elections, because, it was said, now that a stable government has been set up in France, Russia will no longer hesitate about the alliance. But if Boulanger had succeeded, it would also have been said that, now that there was a one-man power in France, Russia would no longer hesitate. In truth, when the time comes for a war scare, every event of the day is made to support it. The most serious feature of the situation is, however, the undoubted fact that Bismarck is failing physically, and evidently no longer exercises his old influence at the court. The Emperor has apparently emancipated himself pretty thoroughly from tutelage of all sorts, and, though cultivating friendly relations with the other Powers, is evidently full of fight, and is said to have Frederick the Great on the brain. Some little sensation has been infused into the matter by an article in the *Contemporary Review*, attributed to Mr. Gladstone, in which he strongly condemns any participation of either England or Italy in the pending dispute between Germany and Austria on the one hand, and France and Russia on the other; but it contains nothing else of moment.

In so far as any European "war cloud" can be said to exist, it lies over the eastern Turkish frontier in Asia Minor, where the Armenian Christians are being harried unmercifully by the Mussulman Kurds, with the connivance of the Turkish officials. The Armenians have appealed in bitter terms to the Powers, and have sent a deputation to tell the story of their wrongs in the various European capitals. The wrongs are the usual wrongs of Christians living under Turkish rule—murder, robbery, and the abduction of women. Of course this is making a good deal of impression everywhere, and Gladstone has taken up the Armenian cause in London with some of his old fire; but it makes nowhere so much impression as in Russia, and accordingly we hear that there are large bodies of Russian troops cantoned on the Armenian frontier, who, it is said, may any day march across and occupy the country in the interest of humanity. This for the Armenians is not altogether a pleasant prospect. They dislike, of course, being robbed and murdered and having their women carried off, but they have always cherished the hope of seeing the old Armenian kingdom revived on the break-up of the Turkish Empire. Help from Russia would undoubtedly mean annexation and the complete extinction of their political hopes. Consequently, they are half prepared to bear with a little more violence if it will end in bringing them under the direct protection of England and Germany.

One of the incidents of the banquet given to the Czar by Emperor William in Berlin last week will undoubtedly strengthen the war scare. When the Czar's health was proposed by the Emperor, in German, which the Czar speaks fluently, and had been speaking through the dinner, he responded briefly and drily in French, a language now tabooed at the German Court. That this was done intentionally there does not seem to be any doubt. Its object was, of course, to show that he was still dissatisfied with Germany, and that France was his best friend. That such little freaks of one man should have immense political importance in our day seems odd enough, but immense importance they will have as long as there are men whose individual word can put a million of soldiers in motion.

SUCCESSFUL BALLOT LAWS.

WITHIN the past few weeks elections have been held under three different ballot-reform laws, in Montana, in Chattanooga, Tenn., and in Connecticut, and in each instance the law has worked smoothly and with entire success. The Montana test was the most thorough because the law of that new State is a complete application of the Australian system in its most essential principles—that is, in requiring secret voting by the use of exclusively official ballots. Under this law, which has all the "complications" that have so alarmed the opponents of the Australian method, the Montana election proceeded without difficulty, with no annoying friction, and with unusual rapidity, as the apprehension of possible delay in voting caused all the party leaders and workers to urge everybody to go to the polls early. It was the unanimous verdict from all parts of the State, after the election, that the law had worked well; and though the result was close and doubtful for several days, no complaints of irregularity or of unfairness in the result because of complexity have been heard.

In the discussions concerning the Australian system, a great deal has been said about the illiterate voter, and about the best method of providing him assistance in marking his ballot. In the Tennessee law, and in the Kentucky law—which applies only to the city of Louisville—no provision whatever is made in regard to illiterates, and the courts of those States have declared the laws unconstitutional in that respect, the failure really amounting to the fixing of an educational qualification. The Montana law prescribes that a voter who is unable to read "shall, upon request, receive the assistance of one or two of the election officers in marking his ballot, and such officer or officers shall certify on the outside thereof that it was so marked with his or their assistance, and shall thereafter give no information regarding the same." The election judges are given discretion as to whether a professing illiterate shall be put under oath as to his illiteracy. The party workers in Montana hit upon an ingenious device for helping the illiterate voter and at the same time gaining a knowledge of how he had voted. They provided him with a card having upon the top the printed words: "I want to vote for all the candidates on this card." He presented this to the election officers, who required him to sign it, after which they marked his ballot as requested. This is a clear violation of the spirit of the law, since it completely destroys the secrecy of the ballot, and it is doubtful if it could stand the test of legality in court. It enables the voter to have assistance outside the polling-place in marking his ballot, whereas the intention of the law is that he shall get that assistance only on the inside, and from officers who are sworn not to reveal the nature of his ballot. Any corrupt voter by professing illiteracy could in this way keep faith with his corrupter, and could furnish evidence that he had done so in the signed card. The device shows the ingenuity which the working politicians everywhere will employ to defeat the law. It is never likely to be a very serious evil, as few voters are willing to make profession of illiteracy, pride restraining most men from such an exhibition.

The trial of the Tennessee law in Chattanooga was in many respects similar to that in Montana, for, with the exception of no provision for illiterates, the Tennessee statute is in all essential particulars much like that of Montana. It has been declared unconstitutional by a local court of Knoxville, and an appeal has been taken to the higher courts. It was decided by the judicial authorities in Chattanooga that, pending this appeal, the law was in force, and on this decision it had its first trial in the municipal election. The general verdict was that the election was one of the quietest and smoothest ever held in the city, with little or no attempt at illegal voting or intimidation, and entirely satisfactory results.

The trial in Connecticut must be considered from a different point of view. It will be remembered that a carefully drawn law, embodying the approved principles of the Australian system, was passed by the Legislature of that State last winter and was vetoed by the Governor. A new law, hastily patched up in caucus, and never considered deliberately in either house, was subsequently enacted and approved by the Governor. We said of it at the time of its passage, that it was "in no sense an application of the Australian system"; that it provided for a secret ballot, and forbade ticket-peddlers to approach within one hundred feet of the polls, and that these were "important advances in the direction of honest elections." Its provisions in regard to the furnishing of ballots were always looked upon by ballot-reformers as the weak point in the law. They simply require that the State shall furnish the official paper for the ballots, and allow the political organizations to print and distribute them. The State is also required to furnish official envelopes into which the voter may put his ballots before depositing them. Almost the only features taken from the Australian system are the use of booths in the polling-places and the exclusion of ticket-peddlers and workers from about the polls. In practical use on Monday week these two provisions accomplished the most satisfactory results. Indeed, all the benefits which the new law bestowed can be traced to them. The envelope provision opens the door for the familiar "Tasmanian dodge," and other devices, by which a dishonest voter can take into the polling-place a ballot prepared and sealed for him outside, and, obtaining another envelope inside, may bring that out as proof that he has deposited the first one. With an exclusive official ballot, there would be no need of an envelope, which is a clumsy device and a needless element of perplexity to the voter.

The great gain of the Connecticut experiment is the showing it has made of the really simple working of two important features of the Australian system. The contention that the average American elector is too dull to be able to vote under a system which the Australian, Canadian, and English electors have had no trouble in understanding, is, like all the other objections to that system, founded upon error.

THE TWO-PRESIDENTS SYSTEM.

ONE of the first questions which arose in the convention that framed the Constitution of the United States was, whether the national Executive should consist of a single person, or of two or three. There was a sharp division and an animated discussion. James Wilson of Pennsylvania and Charles Pinckney of South Carolina led off with advocacy of a single person. Roger Sherman of Connecticut took the other side. "The Legislature," he said, "are the best judges of the business to be done by the Executive, and should be at liberty, from time to time, to appoint one or more, as experience may dictate." Edmund Randolph of Virginia sustained this view, holding that unity in the Executive would lead ultimately to monarchy, and that "the requisites for the Executive department—vigor, despatch, and responsibility—can be found in three men as well as in one." Madison calmed the excitement by proposing that, before choosing between unity and plurality in the Executive, the Convention fix the extent of the authority which should be intrusted to that department of the Government; and, after this had been done, the Convention readily agreed that this authority should be wielded by one person, to be called the President.

Hamilton, in the *Federalist*, marshalled the arguments which sustained this conclusion. Premising that "all men of sense will agree in the necessity of an energetic Executive," he ranked unity as first and most important among the ingredients which constitute such energy. "Decision, activity, secrecy, and despatch," he said, "will generally characterize the proceedings of one man in a much more eminent degree than the proceedings of any greater number." He showed that the experience of other nations, so far as it cast any light upon the subject, "teaches us not to be enamoured of plurality in the Executive. We have seen that the Achæans, on an experiment of two Prætors, were induced to abolish one. The Roman history records many instances of mischiefs to the Republic from the dissensions between the consuls, and between the military tribunes who were at times substituted for the consuls. But it gives us no specimens of any peculiar advantages derived to the State from the circumstance of the plurality of those magistrates." Considering the question purely in accordance with "the dictates of reason and good sense," Hamilton discovered much greater cause to reject than to approve the idea of plurality in the Executive, saying on this point:

"Wherever two or more persons are engaged in any common enterprise or pursuit, there is always danger of difference of opinion. If it be a public trust or office in which they are clothed with equal dignity and authority, there is peculiar danger of personal emulation and even animosity. From either, and especially from all these causes, the most bitter dissensions are apt to spring. Whenever these happen, they lessen the respectability, weaken

the authority, and distract the plans and operation of those whom they divide. If they should, unfortunately, assail the supreme executive magistracy of a country, consisting of a plurality of persons, they might impede or frustrate the most important measures of the Government in the most critical emergencies of the State."

During the past month, for the first time in the history of the Government, the country has had an exhibition of how plurality in the Executive really works. It is now the 12th of October. On the 12th of September, Tanner resigned the office of Commissioner of Pensions, and Benjamin Harrison, the Executive at Washington, who is Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, accepted the resignation, "to take effect on the appointment and qualification of your successor." The successor has not yet been appointed, and the sole reason is because Russell A. Alger, the Executive at Detroit, who is Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, has differed in opinion from the Washington Executive as to the merits of the various candidates for the vacancy who have been suggested, and as to the policy on which the Bureau shall be conducted. Immediately upon Tanner's resignation it was agreed by the Republican organs that, in the words of the Boston *Advertiser*, "it now remains for the President [at Washington] to appoint some other member of the Grand Army." A few days later it was announced by that good Republican organ the New York *Press*, that the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States wished to appoint Gen. George S. Merrill of Massachusetts, but that, as an essential preliminary, "the General has been asked to secure certain G. A. R. endorsements." On the following day it was announced by the same excellent authority that the "reason why the President has hesitated to appoint Gen. Merrill is that he has as yet failed to procure the endorsement of Gen. R. A. Alger, the Commander-in-Chief of the G. A. R." A week or two ago the Washington correspondent of the Indianapolis *Journal*, the Washington President's home organ, reported that "the appointment of a Pension Commissioner seems as far away now as it has at any time since the resignation of Corporal Tanner was received," and explained that the difficulty was to find a man who will "meet the approval of Gen. Alger and the Grand Army." The correspondent declared that "the only reason for not appointing Judge Rea of Minnesota was the objection of Gen. Alger," and explained that the Detroit Executive insisted upon "a man for the Pension Bureau more like Tanner than Judge Rea, or who will at least carry out Tanner's policy."

One month's trial of this two-Presidents system has fully vindicated all the arguments of the *Federalist* against it. It has proved, as Hamilton expected, fatal to the "decision, activity, secrecy, and despatch" so essential in an Executive. That "danger of difference of opinion" which he apprehended has been realized. The effect has been, as he anticipated, to "lessen the respectability" and "weaken the authority" of the Washington Executive certainly—however it may be with the President at Detroit. Worst of all, these dissensions between the two Presidents "impede the most important measures of the Government"; a bureau which controls the expenditure of $80,000,000 a year being left to run at haphazard for weeks, while the Washington and Detroit Executives try to agree upon the policy on which it shall be conducted in future and the commissioner who shall carry out that policy.

One such experiment should suffice for all time. Heretofore the American people have had only the warnings of statesmen to deter them from trying the plan of having a President at Washington who would divide his authority with another Executive somewhere else in the country. A month's working of the Harrison-Alger system should make for ever impossible the choice of any man to sit in the White House who will not himself be the sole President.

A PRELIMINARY BLUNDER.

We have given little credence to the reports of discontent with the choice of Mr. Blaine as President of the Pan-American Congress on the part of some of the South American delegations; but there are some other particulars in which the management of the Congress has thus far been decidedly unhappy. One of these is the prominence given to Mr. W. E. Curtis, at present assigned by the State Department to take charge of the delegates while upon their travels, and to be hereafter, so it is said, made one of the secretaries of the Congress. His appearance in these functions might properly be taken by the South Americans as a direct affront to them, did they not stop to reflect, as they probably do, that the State Department is thus pushing him forward in innocent ignorance of his serious disqualifications.

Mr. Curtis was appointed Secretary to the South American Commission of 1885, on the ground, so it was understood at the time, of the enthusiastic despatches in favor of President Arthur's renomination which he sent from Washington to the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*. Afterwards, when two of the Commissioners fell by the way, he was made Commissioner, and as such figures in the final report made to the Secretary of State. Mr. Blaine is therefore displaying considerable magnanimity in taking up with this old political antagonist—if a Washington correspondent deserves to be so called—but is showing at the same time an unfortunate lack of acquaintance with the views of South Americans about the man he is favoring in this way. They had no occasion for feelings other than those of amusement at the performances of Mr. Curtis as a Commissioner, but when he turned author, as in an evil hour he did, he became to them most distinctly a *persona non grata*. His book, 'The Capitals of Spanish America,' is an offence in their nostrils. A recent magazine article of his aroused the indignation of the ex-Minister of Colombia to the United States, as was made clear in the letter which that gentleman sent to us on the subject; but it is his book which excites the greatest ire. As an historical work, it was merely absurd; but as a book of travels, as a record of observations, it was so ignorantly contemptuous of the people and governments of South America, so coarsely intolerant in referring to their dominant religion, so outrageously personal in retailing gossip and scandal, as permanently to disqualify its author for having any dealings whatever with a people so punctiliously courteous as the South Americans of the educated classes. That this is not simply our assertion is seen from the fact that a distinguished South American, whom we are not at liberty to identify except by saying that he is an accomplished scholar and statesman, has just published in a Spanish paper of this city a series of scorching articles about this very book, under the title, "How We are Treated by Those who Desire Our Patronage."

As we have already said, the prominence given Mr. Curtis doubtless springs from the best intentions on Mr. Blaine's part. Here was an ex-commissioner, a writer of a large book on South America, an expert, it would seem—the very man for the place. But the fact is that many of the South Americans look upon him as a man who has heaped gratuitous insults upon their people. They probably understand that his appointment is not really meant as a slap in their faces, though it might look like it; for they have learned to make great allowances for the serene ignorance of South American ideas displayed by many of our public men—an ignorance well instanced, by the way, in the glowing eulogies of his book which Mr. Curtis secured from United States Senators and other high functionaries. But it is to be hoped that their patience will be tested only during the period of their travels, and that some one having Mr. Blaine's ear will advise him of the indelicacy of making such a man a Secretary of the Congress.

Of the trip itself, under Mr. Curtis's conduct, it may be said that its planning showed other motives than delicate consideration for the nation's guests. Most of them are men of mature years, for whom six weeks of life in railroad cars, in a changeable climate, is not exactly a luxury. Besides, there is in the thing almost an implication against their intelligence—as if it would be a good thing to treat them as the Government used to treat the Sioux chiefs Red Cloud and Crazy Horse—take them to Washington, show them the sights, and so impress them with Uncle Sam's power that they would see no hope in opposing him. These delegates are travelled gentlemen, who are not easily awe-stricken. They have seen the finest workshops of Europe; they are already acquainted with the immense ingenuity with which American manufacturers have prepared themselves to supply the demands of a foreign trade which they declare they don't want, and so they will probably more and more relinquish the advantages of this educational journey to their private secretaries, who appear to be enjoying it to the full.

FAME AND NOTORIETY.

FRANCES POWER COBBE has an interesting article in the last *Forum* on the decline of a desire for fame, and the corresponding rise in the love of notoriety, as a human motive. She says that "among the vast changes which have passed over the civilized world within the memory of living men, one comparatively insignificant has hitherto escaped observation: it is the disestablishment of fame." After giving some illustrations or proofs of this, she adds:

> "Such a change in the common estimate of a once universally applauded passion is, of itself, noteworthy. It becomes still more singular when we find, growing up in the vacant place, a bastard-brother sentiment, the love of notoriety, and observe that though no man yet openly avows harboring this last in his breast, multitudes are credited with it both by friends and foes, and not thought much the worse of in consequence. To confess to the ambition for fame would be to fall into mock-heroics and bathos and become the mark of satire. To betray the love of notoriety may be slightly vulgar, but readily passes muster as a rather amiable weakness by no means ridiculous, but, on the contrary, possessing many advantages, political and commercial."

She then describes notoriety at some length, and dwells with much emphasis on the fondness of Americans for it as compared with the English dislike. She contrasts the English love of privacy with what she alleges is the American love of publicity, of course greatly to the disadvantage of the former.

But she has not apparently got at the philosophy of the matter, which is, after all, simple enough. Fame is essentially an aristocratic motive. It is in its very nature something which can only be reached by the few. It is, in the sense in which the word has always been used since it left the Latin, something to be won by some sort of high endeavor, great achievements in war, or in literature, or science, or art, or politics. It is, in short, something which only a very small portion indeed of any one generation can attain. But for this very reason, perhaps, it is something which even the noblest natures allow themselves to think enviable. It was the heathen Themistocles who said "the trophy of Miltiades would not let him sleep," but the best Christian in our day feels no hesitation in wishing that the greatness he admires in his brother man had only come his way. Still, we all sorrowfully acknowledge that greatness is the fortune, and must always be the fortune, of the few. Every one cannot go to Corinth. Fame is not and cannot be for the mass of mankind. Until our day, when ordinary men saw the battles, sieges, and fortunes by which it was won, they resigned themselves to obscurity, so that famous men of necessity constituted a sort of aristocracy—an aristocracy of the best sort, to be sure, one that must always form the upper house in the parliament of man, but still an aristocracy.

Now, democracy finds it hard to bear with an aristocracy of any kind, and it finds it harder still to see any of the delights of life confined to one small class. A democracy likes to have all sweet things widely diffused. It is hostile to all monopolies, even the monopoly of greatness. It acknowledges that it is only the few who can be great, but it saw very early in its history that that element in fame which consists in being widely known was capable of being enjoyed by great numbers through other channels than those of heroic effort. For fame men have to

> "Scorn delights and live laborious days,"

but for notoriety they need only do odd jobs. The means of reaching this supreme democratic pleasure of being taken out of the crowd and made conspicuous was at last furnished by the newspapers, and the multitude has rushed on it hungry and thirsty. From this has come that sudden rise of notoriety which puzzles Miss Cobbe. It is fame diluted, cheapened, and made accessible to the million, or at all events the hundred thousand. Very few indeed feel themselves capable of great deeds with either sword or pen, or ever expect the opportunity to perform them; but there is nobody who does not feel notoriety to be within his reach—that is, does not feel that, with a very small expenditure of effort, he may become the talk of the town, or of the State, or even of the Union. Every newspaper office is to the lover of notoriety what the cheap-clothing store is to the poorly clad man. He cannot get silken doublet and hose in it, and fit himself out to play the gallant in fashionable society, but he can get what will enable him to cut a very decent figure in the streets and hotels.

Before newspapers, notoriety was hardly to be had without the commission of some atrocious crime. But it can now be had by jumping off a bridge, marrying a woman of the town, buying a large house, eating thirty quails in thirty successive days, keeping a fast trotter, writing an erotic book, fighting a duel, owning forty pairs of trousers, editing a silly or indecent newspaper, giving a large donation to a campaign fund, sending clergymen to Europe, walking a hundred miles in twenty-four hours, knocking a man out in two rounds, preaching sensational sermons, denying the rotundity of the earth, and so on. It is the modern newspaper which has diffused this great happiness among the multitude. Without it we should have to jog on without anything more picturesque than great soldiers, scholars, statesmen, and artists. By the aid of the newspaper our streets swarm with men who have that one note of fame which consists in being recognized and talked about, and which has probably been productive of far more quiet pleasure than fame ever was. Any journalistic "Stroller" or "Lounger," as he "walks down Broadway," sees more notorious men in one hour than probably existed in the whole of Europe a century ago—meaning by that, men who have made their way out of the crowd, are individualized, and now pass for "somebody," and bask in the sunshine of publicity. The notorious man is not always an admirable person. In fact, he is apt to be a very odious person in nine cases out of ten. But there is nothing mysterious about him. The sudden multiplication of him may be one of the "vast changes" of the modern world, but it is not an inscrutable one. He has come in with steam, and we fear, to use the slang phrase, "has come to stay." Every newspaper breeds him in great numbers, and he in his turn has done much to produce "the great editor" who distributes notoriety from his sanctum. For one of the differences between Fame and Notoriety is that Fame can only be obtained wholesale, in great quantities, while Notoriety can be had at retail, and, in fact, is peddled, and the man who can peddle it out is necessarily a great personage to the multitude who stand waiting with their pails and bags. He can inflict on them the keenest suffering by erasing their names, or "ordering them out of the paper" (in the technical phrase) from the lists of guests at rich men's houses, of occupants of the platform at meetings and lectures, of mourners at funerals, of friends at weddings and receptions, and of spectators at races. And it is a suffering for which there is no remedy. The injured man cannot go to him and say, "'Sdeath and fury, sir! what do you mean by not printing my name among the guests at the Smith dinner or the pall-bearers at the Jones funeral?" He has to bear his obscurity in silence, to smile a ghastly smile, and affect a peace which no lover of notoriety ever knows.

The subject is an interesting and broad one. Miss Cobbe has only touched its surface, and, in fact, has apparently only taken it up for the purpose of making an odious comparison between English and American manners. We trust some one will shortly treat it with a firmer touch and deeper insight.

WASHINGTON'S PEDIGREE AT LAST.

"ANGEL OF DEATH, there will the man be found," says Solomon, in Leigh Hunt's tale of "The Inevitable." With a like unerring finger, our countryman, Mr. Henry F. Waters, engaged for some six years in genealogic research in England, has pointed out the transatlantic haunts and relationships of John Harvard and of Roger Williams; and now, on the hundredth anniversary of Washington's assuming the Presidency, he eclipses all other centennial commemorations by fixing the descent of the Father of his Country for ten generations.

We anticipate, by courteous permission, the delayed publication of the particulars of this discovery in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for October, and in a reprint bearing the title 'An Examination of the English Ancestry of George Washington, setting forth the evidence to connect him with the Washingtons of Sulgrave and Brington, by Henry F. Waters, A.M.' This connection had been conjectured as far back as 1791 by Sir Isaac Heard, Garter King of Arms, guided by the Heraldic Visitations of Northamptonshire, in which he found a John and Lawrence Washington, whom he provisionally identified with the brothers, emigrants to Virginia about 1657, known to be the immediate ancestors of George Washington. But Mr. Waters's great predecessor, Col. Joseph L. Chester, produced evidence which effectually disproved this theory, and which left the question an open one.

"At first," says Mr. Waters, "I gleaned over the whole field for Washingtons," or, in other words, over at least nineteen counties in which they were met with. The field was quickly narrowed, however, by his ascertaining that though Lawrence Washington died in Virginia, letters of administration were granted in England on May 30, 1677, he being described therein as formerly of Luton in Bedfordshire

("Laurentii Washington nuper de Luton in Comitatu Bedford sed apud Virginiam in partibus transmarinis decedentis"). For four years Mr. Waters accordingly kept his eye on the little tongue of Bedfordshire in which Luton is situated, and on the adjacent Hertfordshire which it invades, scrutinizing every will which proceeded from that quarter. The next clue he owed to the kindness of a friend, and it took the shape of a bond, formerly in the Hitchin Registry of the Archdeaconry of Huntingdon. By this instrument, dated Jan. 29, 1649-50, John Dagnall, of Grove, in the parish of Tring, in co. Herts, Yeoman, and William Roades of Middle Claydon, in co. Bucks, Gent., were held in a thousand pounds for the proper administration of the goods, etc., of Andrew Knowling, of Tring, Gent., lately deceased, and as guardians of "Lawrence Washington, the younger," during his minority, he being then fourteen years of age. The parish of Tring is about a dozen miles westward from Luton, and about midway on the direct line from London to Northampton, as also on an east-and-west line from Oxford to Hertford. It was probably the early home of the Virginian emigrant.

Mr. Waters now took up the pursuit with energy, and with the sureness of instinct for which he is remarkable. He first sought the will of Andrew Knowling, annexed to the bond, and dated January 13, 1649-50. This contained a considerable bequest of lands and tenements in Tring and elsewhere to his godson, Lawrence Washington, and sundry bequests to the lad's mother, Amphillis Washington, Knowling's "daughter-in-lawe," or, as we should say, step-daughter, he having married her widowed mother, Mistress Roades. Mention of other persons in the same relation, William Roades, Elizabeth Fitzherbert, and Susan Billing, furnished so many fresh scents to Mr. Waters, who was still further cheered by the naming of four other children of Amphillis, headed by *John*, the needful complement to Lawrence.

A visit to Tring was next in order, whose vicar was most ready to assist the American investigator; and here the "Regester Booke" beginning with 1634, and bought by "Maister Andreu Knolinge" and other churchwardens, revealed the baptism on June 23, 1635, of Lawrence Washington as well as of a younger brother and sister, children all of "Mr. Larrance Washenton" (to choose one of the three forms in which the name is recorded). The father's Christian name was a foregone conclusion from the expression in Knowling's will with reference to his son Lawrence ("the younger"), which also intimated that the father was still living in 1649. The Tring Register further noted the burial of "Mrs. Washington," in January, 1654 55, and Mr. Waters's search for the letters of administration was rewarded by finding that they were taken out on February 8, 1655, by her son John, who was thus shown to be her eldest and at least twenty-one years of age, while it equally followed that the father was already dead.

But who was the father? Did his being styled "Mr." mean that he was a clergyman; and was he "that parson of Purleigh about whom," says Mr. Waters, "I have for years had the suspicion that, if he could only be hunted down, we might possibly be able to dispel the mystery enveloping the lineage of Washington"? He resolved to examine with the utmost care everything connected with the probate of Andrew Knowling's will, and it was in the course of his opening a bond made by John Dagnall as guardian of the children of his wife's sister, Susan Billing, deceased, that—but we must give the explorer's own words:

"I then saw a little bit of paper, doubled or folded upon itself, which upon opening seemed about three inches long and from an inch and a half to two inches wide, and covered with writing. Seeing, at a glance, that it was evidently an official memorandum of the issuing of the letters of guardianship and of the oath taken by Mr. Dagnall for the faithful performance of his trust, I did not read it through, but at once set about copying it in full, little realizing the start of surprise and gratification I should experience when I should come to the end of what proved to be the most valuable and important bit of genealogical evidence that I ever saw, or ever expect to see, in the course of my gleanings."

The memorandum, in Latin, was signed by "Laurentio Washington," A.M. and temporary surrogate in the Archdeacon's Court at Whethampsted, therefore in all probability a clergyman, and concerned in the proceedings because of his wife's and especially his son Lawrence's heavy interest in Andrew Knowling's will. The only known Lawrence Washington who was at once a clergyman and a Master of Arts was the "son of Lawrence Washington of Sulgrave, brother of Sir William Washington of Packington, and of Sir John Washington of Thrapston. He was student, Lector, and Fellow of Brasenose, and in 1631 Proctor of the University of Oxford, and afterwards Rector of Purleigh. The long search after the true line of ancestry of our Washington, begun in 1791, was practically brought to a successful close when that little paper was discovered on Monday, the 3d of June, 1889."

Let it not be supposed, however, that Mr. Waters's inquest stopped here, for a postscript shows that even on the 19th of last month he visited Middle Claydon with good results. Still less let it be assumed that we have half exhibited the strength of his argument, for his mode of procedure, by establishing collateral relations, ends, as in the case of Roger Williams, in a moral certainty even when some links of demonstration remain to be unearthed. As Mr. W. H. Whitmore, who annotates his brother genealogist, observes, "we lack *positive* proof" to identify the Lawrence baptized at Tring in 1635 with the emigrant; and we are not *absolutely* certain that the father was the Rector of Purleigh. Our English cousins should now take up the parable. Mr. Waters spreads before us a great mass of information concerning the Royalist connections of the Washingtons; Henry Washington, nephew of the Rector of Purleigh, having been a colonel in the Royalist army and Governor of Worcester in the civil war. The Rector himself was classed among "Scandalous, Malignant Priests," in a publication having the imprimatur of Parliament in 1643, and was deprived of his living as "a common frequenter of Alehouses, not onely himselfe sitting dayly tippling there, but also incouraging others in that beastly vice, and hath been oft drunk." But from this Puritan libel on the diversions of Purleigh he was vindicated the next year by a writer who reported that he "was a Loyal Person, and had one of the best Benefices in these Parts; and this was the Only cause of his Expulsion, as I verily believe"—much in keeping with our partisan dismissals from the civil service. At all events, this Rev. Lawrence Washington was the son of Lawrence of Sulgrave, who died in 1616, and whom Sir Isaac Heard rightly guessed to be an ancestor of George Washington, though he dropped a generation in so doing; whose memorial stone in facsimile was presented by Charles Sumner in 1861 to the State of Massachusetts, and may be seen in the State-House in Boston, beside Chantrey's statue of the first President of the United States. The printed pedigree accompanying Mr. Waters's essay takes us back to John Washington of Whitfield, County Lancaster, at a date not determined; and it was John Washington of the emigrant brothers who, through Lawrence (died 1697) and Augustine (died 1743), grafted upon the Royalist stock the arch-rebel of the American Revolution.

Our readers have now some idea of the brilliant achievement which adds a new laurel, and the brightest, to Mr. Waters's wreath. While life and strength hold out, and a generous support is not withheld, we may be confident that he will again and yet again signalize his laborious devotions with discoveries precious for the people of the whole country, if not *so* precious; and valuable, too, in cementing that only genuine "imperial federation" of peace and good-will which Anglo-Saxon blood has provided for the whole English-speaking race.

SANTA CATALINA ISLAND.—I.

PORTLAND, Ore., September, 1889.

EASTERN people have no idea how fast things grow in California. Everybody, of course, has heard the story of the farmer who in the morning planted watermelon seeds in his field, and in the evening found that the vine had grown to his kitchen door and deposited a ripe melon on the steps. But this is nothing compared with the way in which the cities grow. Thus, on page 216 of Drs. Lindley and Widney's valuable work on 'California of the South,' we read of "San Diego's fifteen thousand inhabitants," while on page 218 (and it surely cannot have taken more than a day or two to write these two pages), they say that "San Diego is growing with most wonderful rapidity. Its population is doubtless twenty-five thousand." Most wonderful, indeed! San Diego did seem quite a lively place last April, although this may have been partly attributable to its being the headquarters of the miners going to the Santa Clara mines in Lower California. 'Tis an ill wind, etc., and the losses of these duped miners were the gain of the San Diego merchants, who sold almost a hundred thousand dollars' worth of victuals and tools to the gold-hunters. The temptation to follow the latter and get a glimpse of a genuine California mining-camp was great; but on hearing of the hardships to be endured, of the two hundred dollars duty laid by the Mexican Government on a single wagon and team crossing the border, and the taxes on provisions equal to their full value, which raised the cost of food in camp to prices considered fabulous even by miners accustomed to starvation prices—not to mention the tropical rains just then prevalent, which made tenting an invitation to catarrh, rheumatism, and pneumonia—I concluded to move northward sixty miles or so, and spend a few weeks instead on Catalina Island.

Before leaving the Coronado I had an opportunity to note a curious way of settling urban questions in California. It had long been in dispute whether or not Coronado Beach belonged to San Diego, so it was determined to settle the matter on election day. There being a law that no liquor may be sold in San Diego on an election day, the barkeeper at the Coronado Hotel was instructed to keep open, for which he was promptly arrested. This was to compel the courts to decide the question at issue. What the decision was I do not know, as I left the next morning. Retracing my steps as far as Oceanside, I took the California Central direct back to Los Angeles. This road

continues to skirt the ocean as far as San-Juan-by-the-Sea (a few miles from the famous San Juan Capistrano mission), where the tourist bids good-bye to the Pacific, not to see it again till he reaches San Francisco, unless he takes a branch road to one of the numerous seaside resorts of Los Angeles or to Santa Barbara.

San-Juan-by-the-Sea was called by Dana, in his 'Two Years before the Mast,' "the only romantic spot in California," which is probably the most absurd statement regarding California that has ever got into print. But it certainly is one of the most charming points on the coast for those who love solitude, and every tourist ought to stop over at least between two trains and see it. If they decide to spend the night at the "hotel," I wish them better luck than befell me. Early in the morning, having paid the (really) big sum of one dollar for supper, lodging, and breakfast, I went down to the beach, about half a mile from the station, across an immense field of wild mustard, buried completely in a sea of fragrant yellow flowers waving over my head, and then had to cross a lively little creek on a narrow plank—a creek which enjoys the satisfaction, rare in this region, of reaching the ocean without being tapped, or absorbed by the thirsty sun. The view from its mouth contrasts delightfully with the uninterrupted, flat sandy beach all the way up from San Diego. A high, precipitous rocky shore rises abruptly, and presents itself as a bulwark against the restless waves. It leads up to hills from which fine views may be enjoyed, and which give room for daily varied rambles which one misses so much at a flat place like Coronado Beach. As there is a fine beach a short distance below, it would be a splendid place for a hotel, and is already much frequented in midsummer by campers. When I was there, a deserted hut was the only visible evidence of human agency, and the solitude was emphasized by four monstrous pelicans sitting motionless and majestic on an isolated rock half a mile at sea. Below the precipice, where the waves in low water tumble gently over the rocky débris jutting far out into the sea, may be found quantities of shells, not dead and deserted specimens lying bleaching on the beach, but shells and cockles alive and wide awake, and moving about like little pagodas with wheels and clockwork. On the way back to the station I cut off one of the tallest mustard plants—bushes they might well be called, so thick and tough are the stems at the base—and asked the station master how high he thought it was. He measured it and found it eleven feet in height! Then for the first time I felt convinced that the narrative of an Anaheimer who told me how, thirty years ago, he once got lost *on horseback* in a wild-mustard field on the fertile soil near where Fullerton now stands, was not a "California story." To-day many of these fields of wild mustard are mowed down, yielding a crop which is the more profitable as there are no expenses for ploughing and sowing. I cannot see why there should not also be money in the castor bean, which, elsewhere cultivated in gardens as an ornamental shrub, is here a weedy nuisance hard to exterminate when it once gains a foothold. I have seen it grow as high as a second-story window in Los Angeles, side by side with a fuchsia *tree*, so to speak, still higher; while roses often cover a whole house, roof and all, and would aspire to the moon if there were a connecting link.

To reach Catalina Island we take the train at Los Angeles for its old harbor town, San Pedro, whence a steamer makes trips to the island three times a week. San Pedro is considered good fishing ground, has numerous duck ponds in the vicinity, and appears to be the headquarters of all the sea-gulls on the Pacific, the beach being completely fringed by them at times. The chief article of import seems to be timber, the wharves being covered with acres of boards and planks, brought from Humboldt County and from Oregon and Puget Sound. A part of the town lies in a hollow which forms a complete kettle and must be an ideal breeding place for typhoid fever. Hotel accommodations are very primitive, but the Southern Pacific is completing a hotel near the light-house, where the sea breeze can never fail. The little steamer *Hermosa*, specially built for the traffic between San Pedro and Catalina, is new and comfortable, but has the great fault of rolling on the slightest provocation. However, the distance is but twenty miles, so that even those inclined to sea-sickness need not dread the passage. Santa Catalina Island is the second in size and the most interesting of the large number of islands which lie along the coast of California, beginning with the Coronado group, just below San Diego, and ending with Santa Cruz and Santa Rosa, off Santa Barbara. As it is the only one which has steam connection with the mainland, it has for many years been visited every summer by thousands of campers, and the hotel erected there lately has added to its popularity, although for sanitary and scenic reasons the site chosen for it is not the best that could have been found. The island is visible from the mainland all along Los Angeles County, even far in the interior, as it has mountains which rise to a height of about three thousand feet. Indeed, as the boat approaches, we see that it consists entirely of mountains, being a sort of floating Highlands, like a section of the Coast Range rising abruptly out of the ocean, without any gradual slopes or foothills; presenting a solid front of perpendicular rocks except in a few places where the wall is broken by a little cove or harbor, with a pebbly beach, as at Avalon, where the hotel stands. A study of the map of Southern California leaves no doubt in the mind that these islands at one time actually did form a part of the Coast Range, being connected with each other and constituting a peninsula extending from Point Conception to below Coronado, with a wide channel or sound between (like that which now extends for about a thousand miles from Olympia to Sitka), and navigated by the Pineugnas Indians, who in the time of the early Spanish voyagers inhabited Catalina Island, and were noted for their fine physique and skill in shipbuilding. Though they are now widely separated and scattered, these Channel Islands continue to affect the climate of Southern California by breaking the force of the wild Pacific waves and winds.

This fact can be vividly realized by climbing the hills on Catalina till the Pacific is sighted, dashing its huge billows against the naked rocks that rise perpendicularly to 2,000 feet or more above it, the home of eagles who build their nests in these inaccessible heights—monstrous birds, measuring sometimes twelve feet from wing to wing. In striking contrast to this turbulence on the west side is the calm of the eastern side, which is hardly ever disturbed, even in stormy weather. Here the campers and hotel guests bathe in the bay every day in the year, the temperature of the sea water in August being about 66°, and only four degrees lower in midwinter, while in Rhode Island, for example, the difference between midwinter and midsummer temperature is about thirty-five degrees! The Kuro Siwo, or Japan current, three to four hundred miles in width, which is deflected by the Aleutian Islands southward along the coast of Washington and Oregon, becomes so far cooled off by the time it reaches San Francisco as to make sea bathing in that neighborhood unpleasant even in summer. But this current is deflected by Point Conception; and between the Channel Islands and the mainland south of this cape there is a return ocean current from the south, which partly accounts for the higher temperature of the water at Catalina, as well as along the main shore of Southern California.

The temperature of the air on Catalina Island hardly ever rises above 85°, and, thanks to the twenty miles of water which separate it from the main land, it is never visited by the hot, parching desert winds. Yet, though thus surrounded by a vaporous sea, fog is almost unknown, being shut out by the mountains, and, what is stranger still, the air is said to be drier than on shore. With such conditions and with constant sea-breezes and an immunity from dust as complete as on shipboard, it is no wonder that Catalina is beginning to be looked upon as standing to Southern California in the same relation as Southern California does towards other States. I met several invalids afflicted with rheumatic or lung troubles who had failed to find relief at Los Angeles or Santa Barbara, but found it at once on Catalina Island; and convalescents make more rapid recovery there than elsewhere. He must be fastidious indeed who is not satisfied with the climatic conditions of this island, and, notwithstanding its mountainous structure, I am convinced that before the end of another decade it will be covered with hundreds of handsome cottages and several hotels and supply villages. There is room for a considerable number of health and pleasure-seekers, for the island is about twenty-three miles long and from one to seven wide.

A few miles from its northern end, Catalina presents a curious contrast to its usual appearance. Here the mountains terminate abruptly, and the island becomes reduced to a narrow isthmus, about half-a-mile wide, on one side of which are the turbulent Pacific breakers, on the other the calm sound. Here are the ruins of Government barracks erected during the civil war and now deserted, but no other signs of human habitation, though a hotel will doubtless be erected before long. The only way of reaching this interesting point is by an occasional excursion on a little tugboat stationed at Avalon, the only village on the island at present. It consists of the Hotel Metropole (what a name for a hotel in such a position!) and a row of shanties, half wood and half canvas, in which bread and provisions and shells can be obtained. The hotel is built on the site of an old Indian burial ground, which is not a pleasant thought to those who know that invisible ghosts in the shape of typhoid-fever germs have been exhumed from European graveyards which had been undisturbed for several hundred years. For this and other reasons, the hotel ought to be removed part way up the hill just south of Avalon, whence a fine view of the island and the sound can be obtained. But do not fancy that from the top of this hill, or the higher one to which it leads, you will catch sight of the illimitable Pacific. The higher you climb the higher do the mountains, that were previously hidden from sight by the lower intervening crests, loom up, and shut out the view westward. But these curved ridges, rising one behind the other, like seats in a cyclopean amphitheatre, are in themselves a fascinating sight, especially in spring, when the hillsides are green with high grass and abundant shrubbery. Looking down from this hill, we can see the large fish swimming about in

the crystalline water, several hundred feet below us. To lie here on the grass, in the balmy sunshine, taking in the view and inhaling the ocean breeze, mingled with the floral perfumes that rise around you, is the very luxury of existence, and every deep draught of this air is a day added to one's life. Thanks to the breeze, no shade is needed, and thus all the healing virtues of the sun's rays can be utilized.

Should the labor of climbing this steep hill be dreaded, equally romantic spots may be found by following up the cañon or gulch which leads from the hotel into the midst of the hills by a gradual but steady ascent. The road follows a dry brook-bed, which probably once in a while becomes a torrent, though heavy rains are rare here, even during the "rainy season." An endless variety of shrubs and flowers lines this road, becoming more rarely beautiful in color and shape the higher we rise. Climbing up one of the side-gulches, I was frequently obliged to cut my way with my cane through bowers most gracefully built by the poison-ivy (or oak), which is so abundant throughout California, afflicting some people, if they only pass near it, with a painful swelling of the face, while to others it is as harmless as is real oak or ivy. From one of these lovely bowers a humming-bird arose and darted up into the air as fast and straight as a rocket, till almost out of sight; then down again like a lump of lead; then circling in a wide curve about me, humming all the time like a spinning-wheel. To an observer who stands perfectly motionless, these birds afford no end of amusement by their wonderful swiftness and curious caprices. Often, when I watered my flowers during the winter, one of them would hover over the stream from the hose, take a foot-bath for a minute, then alight on an orange tree for a second, and return to the sport again and again. They are very abundant in California, these butterflies among birds, as if to atone for the rarity of real butterflies, which is one of the most curious defects of this State; for one would think that a country so crowded with wild flowers would be the very paradise of butterflies. Another kind of bird very abundant on Catalina Island is the quail, which, even without the advantage of color, vies with the humming-bird in beauty. Being seldom hunted, the quail are much tamer than on the mainland. One couple had a nest in a cactus bush not more than a hundred yards behind the hotel, where they remained undisturbed till a heartless young idiot from Los Angeles killed them with his shotgun. Walking up the cañon, one or two pairs repeatedly ran along leisurely in the middle of the roadbed, not a hundred feet ahead of me. At other times I came within a few yards of them before they saw me, for the ground in many places is covered with a velvety kind of grass, noiseless and delightful to walk upon. Far up the gradually narrowing gulches we come upon patches of lovely maiden-hair and other ferns, guiding us to tiny brooklets of clear cool water. Water is not abundant on the island, so far as explored, and last summer only one of the springs near Avalon, that which supplies the village pipes, was alive. But it would be easy to secure all the water desired by damming up one of the gulches.

HENRY T. FINCK.

GERMAN UNITY IN THE TYROL.

BOTZEN IN TYROL, September 20, 1889.

SUNDAY, the 15th of September, was a great day for the little town of Botzen. On that day it celebrated two events, both of which are likely to be of permanent interest and value for its future. One of these events was the unveiling of a statue of Walter von der Vogelweide, and the other was the foundation of a Tyrolese Sängerbund by the union of various local choral societies.

The statue of Walter is the result of long-continued effort on the part of the Germanic elements of southern Austria, supported with more or less energy by their relatives from further northward. The idea of the statue goes back to the year 1874, and may properly be regarded as a part of the general Teutonic enthusiasm growing out of the great events of 1870-71. The project found widespread approval, but no very substantial help until within the past five years, when, under the leadership of a rich wine-merchant of Innsbruck, Andreas Kirchebener by name, it has been pushed forward to a triumphant completion.

The selection of Botzen as the fitting place for a Vogelweide memorial seems at first a singular one, but it is justified by two considerations: first, because, according to the most recent investigations, it seems to be established, with a reasonable degree of certainty, that the great minnesinger was by birth a Tyrolese. The so-called "Vogelweider-Hof" lies in the neighborhood of Klausen, between Brixen and Botzen, and is the object of many a pious pilgrimage. Many passages in Walter's writings point to his connection with the princes of southern Germany, and show an intimate acquaintance with the political relations between Germany and Italy. The second consideration was that Botzen is the last important place on the way from the lands of the German tongue to the lands of the Welsch. Even here the Italian element begins to be very prominent. One-half the population of Botzen is Italian, but it is the lower half. The German tongue still dominates, and is very conscious of its position. Indeed, one seems to feel in the soft Italian air, and to see in the pronounced Italian character of the houses, shops, products of the soil, people, and cattle, a warning that only by vigorous assertion can the *Teutschthum* hold its own against the *Welschthum*.

Such an assertion the Walter statue is intended to be. It stands here, on the southern border of the German tongue, as the great "Germania" of the Niederwald stands upon the western, as if to mark the limits of a sacred inheritance. There the suggestion is one of bold defiance towards an enemy who may at any moment be expected to begin the attack; here it is of peaceful insistence, through song and word, upon a national unity stronger than all political ties.

We came over from Switzerland to Tyrol on the eve of the celebration. Even along the new Vorarlberger Railway in Feldkirch and Bludenz and Imst, we began to see signs of the approaching festivities in the groups of men wearing the badges and carrying the banners of "Sängervereine," "Liedertafeln," or whatever other names the local singing-societies may be called by. Beyond Innsbruck these demonstrations became louder and more frequent. At Franzensfeste our train was received with a rousing salute from the singers in waiting; and an impromptu reception, with an immense amount of hat-doffing, beer-drinking, and speechifying, was held upon the station platform. At Botzen the societies, received again with song and speeches at the station, marched to the square to receive their assignments for lodgings.

The festivities began on Saturday evening with a grand concert in the new Bürgersaal, a surprisingly good hall for so small a place. The music was a new composition, by Director J. Panbaur of Innsbruck, for chorus, orchestra, and soloists, based upon selections from Walter's poems freely adapted by Professor Ignaz V. Zingerle. It was a capital performance, worthy of a larger stage.

Sunday morning was magnificent—such an air and such a sky as the New Englander knows on a few divine days in October. Hotels and private houses poured their guests at an early hour into the quaint Johannesplatz, where the veiled statue stood in the midst of waving banners, decorated tribunes for musicians and invited guests, booths gay with flags and pictures. The official programme began with a grand mass in the beautiful Gothic church at the corner of the Platz. From the church the musical societies marched in procession to the place assigned them within the enclosure, and grouped themselves in front of the statue. Archduke Henry of Austria, his wife, the Baroness Waideck—formerly the well-known actress Frl. Hofmann—and their daughter were the most prominent persons in the assembly, but we were assured that their presence was entirely unofficial, and was meant only as a sign of personal interest in the occasion. At the given signal the coverings fell, and the beautiful statue stood out clearly against the blue sky.

The figure of the minnesinger, of heroic size, is in the purest of white marble, and stands upon a pedestal raised, perhaps, twenty feet above the level of the square. It represents a man in the prime of life, dressed in the simple singer's gown and cap, standing lightly but firmly poised, with one foot slightly advanced beyond the base. His left hand holds the lute, the symbol of his profession, and the right is folded over it as in repose. The knightly sword girded at his side indicates his double character as singer and soldier at once. The bearded face wears a sweet and serious expression, as if the artist had meant to show us the Walter who mourns over the sorrows of Germany, or assails the vices of the clergy, or summons his people to the crusade, rather than the singer of springtime and the joys of youthful love. It is a beautiful piece of work, simple and impressive, thoroughly worthy of its subject, and reflecting the highest credit upon the sculptor Natter, himself a Tyrolese.

The statue rests upon an octagonal base, supported by eight short Ionic columns of very light gray stone, and these are carried again, by a larger square block, increased gradually by several members, until it reaches the ground. From the front and rear of the pedestal project very graceful swans' necks, through which streams of water are poured into small basins and again discharged through lions' mouths into larger basins of a soft yellowish stone below. At the sides of the pedestal are large marble lions, sitting and holding by one paw the arms of Tyrol and of the Empire. One is especially impressed by the simplicity and unity of the design and by its harmony with its surroundings. From the Johannesplatz one sees over the roofs the circle of hills which hold Botzen in their midst, so that from whatever point one views him, the singer stands against the deep blue of the Italian sky or against the dark green of his native hills.

The ceremonies of the unveiling were much of the usual sort—an oration by Prof. Karl Weinhold of Berlin, of which one heard nothing, and a poem, by Hans von Vintler, read by an actor from Vienna, of which one heard a little too much. Interesting, however, was the ceremony of laying wreaths about the base of the statue by the different musical organizations.

Thus far the whole affair had been in no sense a popular celebration. That element

(what there was of it) was reserved for the evening. The whole square was enclosed by barriers, which it cost thirteen cents to cross, and was pretty well filled by improvised tables. Here beer flowed plentifully, and begot the proper condition of mind and body for listening to the singing of the societies in friendly rivalry, and to the music of various brass bands. Excellent singing it was, too, such as would have done credit to any city organization.

The following day was to be devoted to a pilgrimage to the Vogelweider-Hof in Laien near Klausen, but we learned that the attendance was very small indeed. The final act of the celebration was a Commers of students in the Bürgersaal. This gave expression more distinctly than any other part of the "Fest" to the specifically German character. The originators were Botzen Germans who had studied or were studying at Austrian universities. Their entertainment was expressly intended to improve the occasion by emphasizing in every conceivable form the unity of Germans wherever they might be. One might easily have fancied one's self in Berlin. The allusions of the orator to Germans, and to those lofty qualities described collectively as "Deutsch," were applauded most vigorously. The Austrian national hymn was played by the band without special notice, but "Die Wacht am Rhein" was greeted with great enthusiasm. "We are not rebels," said a Vienna professor who sat next me, "but we Germans do not propose to let ourselves be crowded out by the Jews and Slavs who are now playing the great rôle in Austria." The Commers was properly concluded by the students surrounding the statue and singing "Die Wacht am Rhein" again.

Another bit of side-light was thrown upon the subject next day by an old monk in the monastery at Gries, who, in referring to the celebration, spoke of it as a pronounced failure, a perfunctory affair carried through without any basis of real enthusiasm. Certainly it was not a popular demonstration. For the mass of Tyrolese peasants who thronged the side streets of Botzen, it had no meaning whatever. If they know who Walter was, they know him only as the enemy of the priests, and that is enough for them. Still, the substantial fact is, that there he stands, the representative to the German mind of all that is best in the history of his race—of poetic insight, of patriotism, of resistance to priestly oppression—and he will prove a rallying point whenever in this distracted State the forces of light are called upon to ally themselves against the forces of darkness.

E. E.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

X.—THE UNITED STATES.

PARIS, October 3, 1889.

IN point of size, the exhibition of works of art made by the United States ranks first among the foreign nations. With a total of 572 works in the five classes of Group I, the only rivals that approach it in this respect are Great Britain, with 552 works, and Belgium, with 450. There are 336 oil paintings, 117 paintings of different kinds and drawings, 16 pieces of sculpture and medallions, 1 architectural drawing, and 102 engravings. The exhibitors in the five classes number 356, and the recompenses awarded by the International Jury consist of two medals of honor (or *grands prix*), seven medals of the first class, twenty-one of the second class, and forty-three of the third class. Thirty-four exhibitors received honorable mention.* Four artists who exhibit both oil paintings and drawings received two awards. The exhibition occupies four galleries in the north end of the Palais des Beaux-Arts.

In accordance with the wishes of the majority of the members of the jury of American artists appointed by the officers of the United States Commission to select works offered for the exhibition at the headquarters of the Commission in New York, the works of art sent by the home artists were placed by themselves, and occupy the entire wall space in one of the four galleries and a portion of that in another. The other rooms are filled with the works exhibited by American artists residing permanently in Europe, or by those who by right of temporary residence submitted their works to the decision of the jury, also appointed by the United States Commission, that held its sittings in Paris. The general aspect of the galleries would without doubt have been better if this distinction had not been made; and, as it happens, the works exhibited by the home artists are seen at some disadvantage, for the gallery in which the greater part of them are placed is more poorly lighted than any of the other three, while the largest gallery of all, and the one in which the light is best, is occupied exclusively by the artists resident abroad. In so far as comparisons may be instructive between the tendencies at work among the artists at home and those abroad, the present arrangement makes such comparisons a simple matter even for casual visitors; and for the more attentive and inquiring ones it has some advantages, though every one who is really interested in our national progress in art, must regret that the great advance made since the Exhibition of 1878 could not have been shown in its ensemble, without distinction as to the mere place of residence of the artists. For in art originality proceeds from the individual; and though the question of surroundings is an important one, in that the artist is more apt to develop successfully and give tangible shape to his idea in a place where he is spurred by the activity of his fellows, and by the healthful influence of an art atmosphere about him that invigorates and keeps him constantly at his best, yet it by no means follows that an American artist in Paris, for example, where such an atmosphere exists, will surpass his contemporary in New York, where there is but little of it. The home artist, indeed, has an advantage of another sort in living in his own country, in being one who, if not a prime mover in whatever direction art progress takes, is at least an active participant in the development of that progress, and not, like the American in Paris, only associated with it as a foreigner who follows the movement from the outside. And though the American at home will not become an original painter simply because he comes upon types of character that others have not seen, or transcribes landscape motives that no one has thought of painting before, yet, whatever is to be gained in art in feeling one's self in a place that has been familiar from childhood, and receiving the impressions that associations produce—in feeling in sympathy with one's own skies and one's own race—is his.

The artists in Europe, especially those in France, are more completely represented in this exhibition than those at home. This was to be expected, for their interest in an exhibition on their own ground, in a place where their works are seen by their fellows, and where the recompenses voted by the juries mean more to them than they do to those at home, was naturally greater. Consequently, we find the best men represented by some of the best of their earlier and later work—earlier and later comparatively speaking, that is, for it must not be forgotten that the exhibition only includes works of art executed since 1878. In these ten years, however, so much has been accomplished in the way of sound progress at home and abroad that the history of the new American art is contained in them. It is to be regretted that the achievements of the home artists could not have been shown more completely; that a half-dozen works of such men as Mr. Winslow Homer and Mr. George Inness, for example, could not have been brought here and hung together in the gallery where there is nothing to represent the one and only one not very satisfactory canvas by the other, and that more of the works that have been among the marked successes at the exhibitions of the Academy and the Society of American Artists in recent years could not have been procured from their owners and brought here, to show more adequately than does the collection sent from New York last spring the real progress that has been made at home, and put more plainly in evidence the fact that there is an earnest body of men in New York who are following art for art's sake, and who, in spite of difficulties, are every day making their influence more felt, and every year receiving more substantial encouragement from the public. The jury charged to select works in America, however, did all that it was possible to do, and were even obliged to cut down the limits first set for the number of works to be accepted; and so, as I have said, it must merely be a matter of regret that the representation is not more complete, and it may be hoped that another occasion will afford an opportunity to do what it was not possible to do here.

The exhibition of American art at the Champ de Mars is a most creditable one, and I have no hesitation in affirming that in interest, in technical excellence, and in individuality, it is second to none except the French. The number of artists who are well trained in the *métier* is surprisingly large in proportion to what it is in other countries, and there are so many who are masters of technique, and so many others who, though they are not always that, are remarkable for well-defined originality of conception and individuality in their methods of expression, that the exhibition is one well worth seeing on account of its importance in this vast collection of the world's art; while for the American it is one that is more than gratifying, as showing how much we have been able to do without traditions, and with comparatively little of the powerful influence of a civilization that knows the value of art and encourages and honors it. There can be no doubt that we are on the right road, that we are laying sound foundations, and that some of the superstructure already to be seen is well built and beautiful; and we are justified in hoping that the day is not far off when it will be admitted that American art can hold its own with any other, and that it will then be supported and encouraged at home as it deserves.

The six portraits by Mr. John S. Sargent adequately represent him. Mr. Sargent is one of the most brilliant painters of the day, whose work as a whole is better known in Paris and London than it is in New York and Boston; but, as it happens, at least four of the portraits here exhibited have been seen in America, and

* The figures are taken from the official catalogues, and from the list of recompenses as published in the *Journal Officiel* of September 30.

the best of them all are among these four. There is such infinite skill in painting, such delightful individuality, such freshness and delicacy of color, and such an admirable ensemble in the "Portrait of Mrs. B.," that it may justly be pointed out as one of the very best works of this talented painter. No less admirable is a somewhat more sober canvas, the "Portrait of the Misses B.," in which four little girls are seen in a hall, two forming a group near the middle, a third seated on the floor in the immediate foreground, and the fourth standing at the left of the picture. It is excellent as a picture-portrait, and it is the cleverest sort of painting. Its great merit, however, lies in its fine harmony of quiet color notes and in its breadth of conception, so effectively carried out without losing the marks of individuality which the portrait painter has to keep constantly in mind. In the "Portrait of Mrs. K." are the same qualities that were noted in the first-mentioned portrait; in the "Portrait of Mrs. W." is a delightful piece of painting in light tints and great refinement of treatment, and in "Portrait of Mrs. S." a fine piece of color in the red robe and a dexterity of handling that is marvellous.

The most striking picture in the American galleries is Mr. W. T. Dannat's "A Quartette," well known to visitors to the Metropolitan Museum, where it has been for the past year or two, and where it will return at the close of the Exhibition, as it is the property of the institution. It was one of the most remarkable works at the Salon of 1884, where it was first exhibited, and is certainly one of the best pictures in the great gathering at the Champ de Mars. Mr. Dannat is further represented by his well-known and excellent picture, "A Sacristy in Aragon," by an admirable portrait head of a young girl with blonde hair, "Portrait of Eva H.," and four other pictures. "A Study in Red" and "Une Saducéenne" are of his latest work. They are both life-size figures of young women, painted in full length; both are marked by some personality of conception and treatment, but both are decidedly inferior to the other works mentioned above. Neither is distinguished in color, and the "Study in Red" is especially lacking in solidity and *envelope*.

Mr. Alexander Harrison, whose reputation as an enlightened follower of the *plein air* movement and whose admirable achievements in this field are shown in "Le Crépuscule" and in "In Arcadia," contributes six pictures. "Castles in the Air," "The Amateurs," "The Wave," and "Evening" are the four which, with the two above mentioned, compose a most brilliant exhibition. "In Arcadia," that surprisingly truthful study of the effect of outdoor light on nude figures, with its beautiful sunlight filtering through the trees and making checkered shadows on the grass at the river side, stands as one of the most original and thoroughly personal works that have come from the brush of any painter in recent years. "Le Crépuscule" is in another way equally remarkable, and is a work of great beauty marked by much truth of observation, and by the complete success with which the artist has rendered a difficult effect. In "The Amateurs," which, next to these two pictures, is the most interesting of Mr. Harrison's works in this exhibition, especially to be noted are the fine general tone, which is sustained and harmonious throughout, and the delicacy of tint in the color notes of blue and yellow and grayish white in the clothes of the children in the boat, in the reflection of the evening sky in the water, and in the boat itself. Though comparisons are sometimes invidious, it is only just to say that in this exhibition of American art the works of Messrs. Sargent, Dannat, and Harrison are especially notable, and no one, I venture to say, will dispute their supremacy, though there is more than one painter who presses them hard, and many whose qualities are as worthy of praise. The judgment is formed solely on what is shown in the galleries at the Champ de Mars, where they are all three represented by some of the very best canvases they have ever signed.

Mr. William M. Chase has eight pictures, of which three are full-length portraits of ladies. The "Portrait of Mrs. C.," first exhibited at the autumn Academy Exhibition a year ago, is fortunate in being placed in a fairly good light, an advantage that has not been given to the other two. It looks well here, and creditably represents one of the best of American painters. The small pictures of city scenes about Brooklyn parks and docks, than which nobody has painted anything better in their way, do not show here at their full worth. The little canvases are lost on the big walls, and the light is so high that the pictures are in the shadow cast by the frames. For all that, enough may be seen to leave no doubt of their merit; and their cleverness and artistic quality are incontestable. Mr. George Hitchcock's excellent picture, "Tulip Culture," with its charming color notes and its skilful painting of detail without loss of ensemble, is exhibited here with two other works, "The Annunciation" and "Maternity." The latter, which represents a fisherwoman coming from the sea, with her child on her arm and the hoop of a seine net that she carries on her back forming a sort of halo about her head, is ostensibly affected in conception, but it is a picture that contains good painting. The "Annunciation" is more simple and straightforward—a young maiden of the Dutch peasant type, with a foreground of tall white lilies—and is technically excellent. By Mr. J. Gari Melchers there are four pictures. Two of them, "Communion" and "The Sermon," of unusual size for genre subjects (but this is a fault that has been learned from the French, and is one of the bad results of the struggle for prominence in the Salon), represent scenes of life and manners in Holland. There is sound drawing, as there is always in Mr. Melchers's work, and a great deal of deliberate, solid painting in these pictures, and they are as well done as they could be in their way. The search for character and the attention given to the rendering of the *couleur locale* are their chief merits.

Mr. Dewing's charming little picture, "Lady in Yellow," Mr. Millet's excellent "A Difficult Duet," Mr. Thayer's beautiful "Winged Figure," Mr. Robinson's clever out-door study, "The Bread Carrier," Mr. Weir's "Preparing for Christmas," Mr. Blum's "Venetian Lace Makers," Mr. W. S. Allen's delightful "Evening by the Lake," Mr. Blashfield's "Inspiration," Mr Hassam's "After Breakfast" and "Rue Lafayette—Winter Evening," Mr. Simmons's "The Farmer," Mr. Stewart's brilliant "Hunt Ball" and "Hunt Supper," Mr. Ulrich's "In the Land of Promise," Mr. Denman's refined little nude "Offering to Aphrodite," and the pictures by Messrs. Benson, Carr, Ward, Webb, Eakins, Hennessy, Moeller, MacEwen, Reid, Tiffany, and Turner, are notable among the contributions by figure painters. Mr. Pearce's "Shepherdess," Mr. Vail's "Ready About" and "On the Thames," Mr. Walter Guy's "Le Bénédicité" and "The Spinners," Mr. Knight's "Calling the Ferryman" and "Mourning," Mr. Weeks's "The Last Journey—Souvenir of the Ganges" and "The Rajah of Jodhpore," Mr. Mosler's "The Last Sacraments" and "The Last Moments," Mr. Reinhart's "Washed Ashore," Mr. Bridgman's "Horse Market at Cairo" and "On the Housetops, Algiers," Mr. Boggs's "Place de la Bastille" and "St. Germain-des-Près," and Mr. Howard R. Butler's "Seaweed Gatherers," are the most important pictures among those that are already well known, and have achieved reputation for the painters at the Salon and at some of the exhibitions in the United States.

In portraits there is a most creditable exhibition by the painters on both sides of the Atlantic. Of the best among the very good are Mr. Brandegee's "Portrait," Mr. Cox's "Portrait of Augustus St. Gaudens," Mr. Tarbell's "Portrait of Mrs. T.," Mr. Beckwith's "Portrait of William Walton," Mr. Blashfield's "Portrait of a Lady," Mr. Weir's "Portrait of the Artist's Child," Mr. Vonnoh's "Studio Comrade," Mr. Wiles's "Portrait of a Lady," Mr. Pearce's "Portrait of Mrs. P.," Mr. Stewart's two pastel portraits of ladies, Mr. Bridgman's "Portrait of Mme. B.," and those signed by Messrs. Eakins, de Meza, Wyatt Eaton, Rice, Forbes, Fowler, Anderson, and Misses Beaux, Klumpke, and Throop.

But little room, comparatively, has been found for landscapes, but there are some excellent canvases nevertheless. Landscape is such an important feature of the home exhibitions that we might expect to find a fair proportion of it among the works sent from New York; but even in the gallery where these works are hung, the preponderance of figure subjects is almost as noticeable as in the others. Mr. Bolton Jones's "The Old Pasture," Mr. Ruger De Coho's "La Marcellerie," Mr. Cox's "Flying Shadows," Mr. Davis's "A Winter Evening," Mr. Pearce's "Evening," Mr. Weir's "Lengthening Shadows," Mr. Inness's "A Short Cut to Watchung Station," and Mr. Wyant's "Landscape," all works of value and individual in style, show at least that we have landscape painters who are lacking neither in artistic quality nor in technical ability to express their impressions. In addition to these, there are characteristic examples of the methods of such well-known painters as Messrs. Gifford, Whittredge, Foxcroft Cole, Parton, Van Boskerck, Minor, Macy, Gay, C. H. Eaton, and Miller, and water colors by Messrs. W. H. Drake, Gibson, Platt, F. H. Smith, and Whittemore.

In drawings the exhibition is especially rich. Mr. Abbey is represented by a dozen of the best examples of his charming talent. There is an equal number by Mr. Low, the originals for his illustrations of Keats's poems; and there are others by Messrs. Cox, Reinhart, Wiles, Pennell, Blum, and Blashfield. Mr. Bartlett's fine figure in bronze, "Bohemian," a masterly work, and Mr. MacMonnies's "Diana," are most notable among the works of the sculptors. Messrs. Warner, French, Adams, Kitson, and Waldo Story are other exhibitors in this department, in which, though the representation is not large, it is in quality at least above the average of similar displays made by most of the other foreign nations. The absence of any work by Mr. St. Gaudens is to be regretted. In architecture there is only a single exhibit, a fine perspective drawing of the reading-room of Bates Hall (Public Library), Boston, by Messrs. McKim, Mead & White. The exhibition of wood-engravings is complete, and of a high degree of merit. Among the best-known exhibitors are Messrs. Kingsley, Closson, Cole, Johnson, French, Wolf, Davis, Putnam, Kruell, Davidson, and Aikman.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

CLEVELAND AND HARRISON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In numerous recent issues the *Nation* has cited Mr. Harrison's declaration, "We must do at least as well as Cleveland did." In your last you speak of his action in displacing Mr. Lindsay as Postmaster of Rahway, N. J., "in the interest of the press-subsidy scheme," as "in contempt of his own self-imposed and very moderate rule," to wit, the one above mentioned.

Are you not misconstruing Mr. Harrison's declaration? It is alleged that Mr. Cleveland sometimes removed Federal officials because of their political faith or affiliation. Did not Mr. Harrison mean that he would try to do *at least* as well as Mr. Cleveland in the matter of such *removals?* Such a construction would relieve you somewhat of your embarrassment in trying to understand the President, and to make his line of action coincide with "his own self-imposed and very moderate rule," etc.

Yours, OILYGAMMON.

Richmond, Va., October 4, 1889.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The official report of the Civil-Service Commission shows that of 367 employees of the Baltimore Post-office, all but 11 were removed during Mr. Cleveland's Administration. It is furthermore well known that all his appointments there were of a very low order, and that reputable Democrats vainly demanded a change through a committee who visited him in person, with ample proofs of their charges. If the present Administration, which has certainly as yet nowhere sinned so flagrantly, is deserving of the unsparing denunciation and condemnation which you visit upon it for its civil-service shortcomings, will you inform a reader how you could consistently support Mr. Cleveland's reëlection?

Yours respectfully,
Geo. N. Jones.

Washington, October 8, 1889.

[Our correspondent seems to think that the Baltimore revelations are news. They are so only in detail, not in principle. Every reader of the *Nation* for the past five years knows whether we tried to conceal the fact of Maryland's having been delivered over to the spoilsmen, or to relieve President Cleveland of his responsibility for it. As for the reasons which we gave in favor of his reelection, we can only refer to our files for 1888. What we are doing now is, to test the morality of President Harrison, who gained office on the (as now appears) false pretence of meaning to correct the very abuse which Cleveland stood charged with.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you tell your readers what your esteemed correspondent Mr. H. C. Lea thinks of President Harrison as an administrative reformer? As Mr. Lea severely condemned President Cleveland, and expected much from Mr. Harrison, his opinions just now would be interesting reading.

Senator Hoar was likewise very wroth over President Cleveland's incompetence and hypocrisy, but seems to be quite well satisfied with the progress that reform is now making.

If Mr. Lea still agrees with Senator Hoar, I hope he may state at length why he does; for if the optimistic condition of mind regarding this present Administration is the correct one, there are many signs to show that civil-service reformers generally are in sad need of proper instruction. A. M. G.

Waltham, Mass., October 6, 1889.

INTERNATIONAL IGNORANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will the subject of "American reputation for illiteracy" bear still further illustration? In the same line as the story of Wordsworth and his college told by "American" in your paper of September 5, is the following: Not long since a member of my family was talking with an Englishman, who quoted the hackneyed verses beginning, "Believe me, if all those endearing young charms." Finishing, he said, "Those lines, you know, are by Moore." No response seeming necessary, none was made; whereupon, after a slight pause, he added: "Moore was one of our better-known poets." The somewhat sarcastic tone of the "Oh, was he?" was entirely lost upon the Englishman.

Apropos of Wordsworth, I was in the English lake district a few weeks ago, and, after my evening meal at a hotel in Windermere, I went into the smoking-room. There sat an Englishman, and, knowing how exceedingly pleasant Englishmen almost invariably are when once the ice has been broken, I immediately entered into conversation. This naturally turned upon the beautiful scenery we were then in, and, after some remarks upon Grasmere, Rydal Water, and Rydal Mount, the Englishman said: "I did not go to Rydal Mount; I believe Mr. Wordsworth was formerly rector of the parish there?" And that absurdities and displays of ignorance are also committed by Englishmen can be still further shown. While at table-d'hôte one day last January in Naples, an English clergyman sitting next to me was asked by a countryman of his who was opposite, whether "Sicily was part of the Italian kingdom?"

Still, while one such story of an Englishman can be told, there are probably a dozen of Americans; and though the number of these is unfortunately already unduly large, the following is too good to be omitted: An American lady was recently in Redfern's shop in this city, and overheard a countrywoman making an allusion to the "piccadillies." Supposing that she had not caught the word aright, and that the famous street in London was referred to, imagine her astonishment on learning, from some further remarks, that the speaker was describing to a friend a Spanish bull-fight, and that by the word in question she meant the "picadors"! Albert Matthews.

Paris, September 10, 1889.

COLLEGE TEMPTATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in reply to the anxious mother who wanted for her son a college without temptation, was so inimitably excellent that you deserve more and heartier thanks than your correspondence column has yet shown. I took pains that nearly every member of our Faculty should read it; I showed it to various students; I gave my Bible-class at the opening talk of the session the benefit of it; and I wish it could be published in all religious papers (I intend to send it to mine) and in all college magazines (I am going to try to have it put in ours). I should also like to see it given a permanent and prominent place in all college catalogues, so completely and overwhelmingly does it meet the points in the case.

The present writer has never seen why college faculties themselves should do so much to encourage the idea that it is always a disgrace to a boy to be withdrawn from college. It depends entirely on circumstances. To do good and get good in a college, a boy needs certain things, the lack of which need be no disgrace at all, nor even mortification. If he has no taste for books, or at least for text-books, and no desire for an education, there are still many spheres of usefulness open to him, in which he can be a benefactor to his race and a source of comfort and joy to his parents. And the kind thing to do to such a boy, and to his parents, is to urge them to try him at something more suitable for him. But whether parents look at the matter in this common-sense way or not, I have always held that the kind thing for a faculty to do is to be relentless in disposing of students who have had a fair trial, and yet show that they are *not* at college for the purpose of studying. It is kind to them, and to their parents, but kind, above all, to the other students who do want to study. The seeming hard-heartedness, as some call it, is in reality true tender-heartedness; at least, so thinks

Yours gratefully, Æ.

Notes.

In addition to the announcements already made by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, they promise next month Alfred de Vigny's 'Cinq-Mars,' translated by Wm. Hazlitt, and illustrated with thirteen full-page etchings, besides smaller designs incorporated in the text. This will be published in two editions—a more and a less costly one.

Roberts Brothers, Boston, will shortly publish 'Belief,' a series of discourses, by the Rev. George L. Chaney; 'Lil,' a story, by the author of 'Miss Toosey's Mission'; 'Their Canoe Trip,' by Mary P. W. Smith; 'Flipwing the Spy,' a story for children, by Lily F. Wesselhoeft; and 'Kibboo Ganey; or, The Lost Chief of the Copper Mountain,' a story of travel and adventure in the heart of Africa, by Walter Wentworth.

Estes & Lauriat have nearly ready an illustrated edition of Owen Meredith's 'The Earl's Return'; 'Feathers, Furs, and Fins,' stories of animal life, also illustrated; and 'Queen Hildegarde,' a story for girls, by Laura E. Richards, with designs by E. H. Garrett.

A number of dainty reprints lie on our table. We begin with the solitary English contribution, the latest addition to the "Stott Library" (New York: Macmillan), namely, a selection from the best works of De Quincey, in two volumes. The size, the exemplary binding and clear typography of these little books, make them almost ideal pocket companions. The selection consists of the "Confessions of an Opium-Eater" and "Suspiria de Profundis," with "Murder as One of the Fine Arts," "The English Mail Coach," "The Vision of Sudden Death," "The Last Days of Kant," and "Recollections of Charles Lamb." A portrait and a photogravure adorn them.

The contingent furnished by the Riverside Press (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) embraces, first, six thin booklets (in a box) with parchment covers, being selections from the prose of Hawthorne, and from the prose and verse of Lowell, Longfellow, Whittier, Emerson, and Holmes. The excerpts are all arranged under the days of the year, and frequently fit the person or the event celebrated—which, by the way, is repeated *ad libitum* in the several

volumes. The set taken together makes a very pretty and substantial gift. On a larger scale is the Riverside Aldine Series, bound in a smooth dark-blue cloth and legibly and beautifully printed, one volume being made up of 'The Gray Champion, and Other Stories and Sketches,' by Hawthorne, and two others giving the whole of Thoreau's 'Walden.' Still a third series is that of the "Dollar Classics," the price not mounting with the style, though the white and gold back and half-green sides seem more costly to produce. We have here a very desirable grouping of 'Ballads, Lyrics, and Sonnets from the Poetic Works of H. W. Longfellow,' the sonnets being massed at the end; and a companion volume of 'Interludes, Lyrics, and Idyls,' from Tennyson. Not so distinguished in appearance as the foregoing is the 'Character and Comment selected from the Novels of W. D. Howells, by Minnie Macoun.' We observe that 'Silas Lapham' furnishes the greater number of extracts, followed by 'April Hopes,' 'The Undiscovered Country,' 'A Woman's Reason,' etc. As one might not (in the present stage of the world) have expected an index, it is an agreeable surprise to find one here. Love, People, Society, Men, and Women are the chief rubrics.

Still keeping on the same line, we come to the 'Literary Gems' put into six flat side-pocket volumes, each with its case, by the Messrs. Putnam. Here the binding is a dark leatherette, perhaps, the type generously large, but the tastefulness something short of the Riverside standard. Arnold's 'Sweetness and Light' and Brown's 'Rab and his Friends' are the freshest of the gems. Goldsmith's 'Good-Natured Man,' Poe's 'Gold Bug,' Drake's 'Culprit Fay,' and Curtis's 'Our Best Society,' complete the set, which is provided with frontispieces.

Little, Brown & Co. continue their handsome library edition of Dumas, in English (the D'Artagnan romances preceding), with the Valois romances, leading off with 'Marguerite de Valois,' in two volumes. Historic portraits accompany them. The binding is in a richly stamped wine color, the print (of the University Press) very clear and attractive.

From Dodd, Mead & Co. we have a presentable edition of 'Consuelo,' in a new translation by Frank H. Potter, in four volumes. It is upwards of forty years since the first, and, so far as we know, hitherto the only American translation, by the late Francis George Shaw, was published. Mr. Potter's version is fluent and idiomatic; we have not compared it with the original, but it makes the impression of competency.

Though an index might be classed with the books that are no books, it is pleasant to meet with one honored externally as well as typographically. Such treatment has been accorded to the new '*Atlantic* Index' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which is tastefully bound in green cloth, and will be an ornament in any collection. The only other index to the magazine issued by this firm extended from 1857 to 1876; the present (which includes the former) ends with the year 1888, and is under one alphabet. A brief history of the magazine is prefixed, but it remains for the reviewer to say that the *Atlantic Monthly* stands for the continuity of Boston's literary activity (we waive the often mooted question of primacy), has abjured the aid of illustrations, and has made its appeal to those who are fond of "polite literature." An index to sixty-two volumes of such a publication is something to be thankful for.

Some curious data as to library duplicates are given in a "symposium" in the *Library Journal* for September. Fifty copies of 'Ben Hur' represent a pretty constant demand, but 'Robert Elsmere' (which at the New York Mercantile Library started off with 140 copies) has suffered from a collapse of the boom, and the Brooklyn Library reports two shelvesful and four or five calls a week. Of Beaconsfield's 'Lothair' 700 copies were ordered by the New York Mercantile; 18 of Darwin's 'Life and Letters.' While Gen. Sherman's Memoirs were advanced to 52 copies, Grant's in the same library did not get beyond 15.

A *Magazine of Christian Literature* has just begun to be published by the Christian Literature Company in this city (No. 1, October). Its contents are eclectic, but the novelty of the venture lies in this, that "an original and popular work of 500 pages" is published in connection with it, of course in instalments. Thus, the number before us contains *Aachen-Ansgar* of a 'Concise Dictionary of Religious Knowledge, Biblical, Doctrinal, Historical, and Practical,' edited by the Rev. Samuel Macauley Jackson, assisted by the Rev. Talbot Wilson Chambers and the Rev. Frank Hugh Foster.

The *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, edited by M. Jean Réville (Paris: Ernest Leroux), enters upon its tenth year and nineteenth volume. It eschews dogmatic discussion and ecclesiastical controversy, and is independent of sectarian influences. It has leading articles and reviews, a *Chronique* and a bibliography. Its contributors embrace men like Renan, Albert Réville, Derenbourg, Goblet d'Alviella, etc. American contributors are welcomed, and the editor will provide translations from English into French. Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, will forward subscriptions.

In the *Portfolio* for September (Macmillan), Walter Armstrong summarizes in very short compass "Fine Art at the Paris Exhibition." The American contribution he pronounces a miracle of evolution since 1877. Amateurish then, "now, after the French, there is no section to rival it in the directness of vision, in the dexterity of hand and general accomplishment, which it is the gift of the French to teach." And, "there is scarcely in the whole show a contrast so violent as that between the American and English sections. It is stronger than that between the English and French; stronger even than that between the English and the Spanish or Italian rooms." Mr. Armstrong takes no notice of the American triumphs in wood-engraving. Mr. Hamerton discusses the Eiffel Tower from an artistic point of view, warding off some of the censure bestowed upon it, without allowing it ("a land lighthouse") to be beautiful. But he thinks it may permanently affect our criticism of iron architecture.

The *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* contains the conclusion of Ortroy's Bibliography of Military Works published in Belgium during 1887, and the second part of the catalogue of Cologne incunabula in the Darmstadt Library, enumerating twenty-one works printed in the type used by Arnold ther Hoernen. In a note, the editor takes exception to the statement, recently made by A. Giry, the French historian, that the university libraries of Germany show a tendency to become too exclusively circulating libraries, and asserts that the tendency is in the opposite direction, as is shown by general provision, in recent years, of larger and more convenient reading-rooms for students, and the efforts which are made to encourage the use of books in the library rather than to increase the circulation outside.

In the *Library* for August and September the most noteworthy papers are F. Norgate's "Caxtoniana," recording the changes of ownership and prices of such specimens of Caxton's printing as have come into the market since 1863; an interesting account of the Library of the Royal College of Surgeons, by J. B. Bailey; an instructive analysis of a day's reading at the Mitchell Library, Glasgow; and a paper by G. R. Humphrey, maintaining that it is the duty of governments to provide free libraries for the people.

Mr. Robert T. Swan, Massachusetts Commissioner on Public Records of Parishes, Towns, and Counties, whose first publication we recently noticed, has issued a list of missing church records which will doubtless stimulate research and lead to recovery.

—Mr. W. A. Clouston, whose 'Popular Tales and Fictions' and 'Book of Noodles' we have already noticed, has just added to his publications on Oriental fiction an interesting volume entitled: 'A Group of Eastern Romances and Stories from the Persian, Tamil, and Urdu. With Introduction, Notes, and Appendix' (privately printed, 1889. 8vo, pp. xl, 586). The volume contains eleven stories from the Persian, and one each from the Tamil and Urdu. One only has not appeared before in English, but the others are found in books not easily accessible. The contents of the work are valuable to students engaged in tracing the Oriental origin of stories popular in Europe, and at the same time interesting to the general reader. The stories cover a wide range, and give a good idea of Eastern tales in general, some dealing with common life and containing nothing supernatural, others being full of enchantments, magical transformations, and good and bad fairies and jinn. The volume is beautifully printed, and the edition limited to 300 copies, plus 20, numbered, on large paper. The few remaining copies may be procured of William Hodge & Co., 26 Bothwell Street, Glasgow.

—To those who are familiar with Dr. Waldstein's interesting manner of bringing out the points which make the minor Greek sculptures valuable to the archæologist, his 'Catalogue of Casts in the Fitzwilliam Museum' (Macmillan) will be somewhat disappointing. While it aims to "make the Museum of Archæology an object-lesson in Greek art," and is intended for the general reader, the descriptions of many of the objects are far too brief to be of service in this direction, and do not explain the reason for their presence in the collection—that is, the especial point in the development of sculpture which they illustrate. This is a very important function of a descriptive catalogue, particularly in the case of archaic works, because it helps the visitor to see and appreciate the qualities which he is least likely to distinguish for himself; and its lack is hardly made good by the summaries with which the author introduces the sculptures of each successive school or epoch, admirable as these are. Dr. Waldstein has evidently put the most of his labor into these, and at some cost to the rest of the book; for we notice occasional slips which are apparently due to carelessness or haste, such as the statement that the stele of Aristion (43) is now in the Theseion, it having been removed to the National Museum two years since; the confusion of Iakchos with Triptolemos in the description of the Eleusinian slab (246); and the statement that the Praying Boy was found at Herculaneum. The origin of this statue is obscure, but its history has been traced back to the seventeenth century, when it was in France, while Herculaneum was not discovered till the early part of the century following. Dr. Waldstein is also mistaken in

saying that Michaelis places the third metope on the southern wall of the Parthenon "in the third or highest division of the metopes with regard to its freedom and perfection," because Michaelis divides these metopes into four, not three, groups, and assigns this to the third, thus agreeing with Waldstein that it should be assigned to "the division immediately preceding the highest group."

—Dr. P. F. Aschrott of Berlin is now printing the results of his visit to this country. A judge and an expert in matters of penology and charitable organization, the author of exhaustive works on the English prison systems and the English poor laws, he made an official examination of kindred institutions in the United States. He has already printed an account of our prisons, and he has now reprinted from Conrad's 'Annual of National Economy and Statistics' an article on Poverty and Charity in the United States ('Armenwesen und Wohlthätigkeit in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika.' Jena: Gustav Fischer). He shows that these are matters entirely regulated by the States, and with which the Federal Government has nothing to do, so that it is not easy to make comparisons between the paternal and centralized administration of foreign countries and the purely local regulations of the States so dissimilar in their conditions. He points to the establishment of a Board of Public Charities in Massachusetts in 1863 as leading to similar centralization in other States, until now thirteen States have similar organizations. He remarks the differences in their powers and organization, and the advantage of such elasticity over the uniform system of the English Poor-Law Boards. The recognition of the right of the minority party to a representation on these boards he finds suggestive of the right use of government by parties. The facts that the members are unpaid, and that among them some of the most useful are women; that these boards voluntarily join in general conferences for discussion of methods and comparison of results; and that private associations have been organized to support the official bodies, are all carefully dwelt on. Dr. Aschrott made a special appeal to the German overseers of the poor, in their Congress at Carlsruhe last year, to apply some of the practical lessons that he brought home from his visit to America, as, the advantage of the principle that the State Board is in no sense executive, but simply advisory; the value of individual as distinct from official organization, of voluntary as contrasted with paid care of the poor. He especially commends to the German Women's Charity Societies the work done by Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell, Miss Louisa Schuyler, and Mrs. Richardson.

—The long and repeated delays in the publication of the posthumous memoirs of Prince Talleyrand (which have been serious enough to cause misgivings in the mind of many a middle-aged reader), and perhaps also some renewal of interest in their author, due to M. Henry Houssaye's '1814,' have set M. Edmond Plauchut upon a pilgrimage to Valençay, Talleyrand's château and tomb, of which he gives a very readable account in the *Temps* of September 20. The whole of the article is interesting, but we note in it especially some particulars about the marriage of Talleyrand, and an anecdote or two which, if not absolutely new, have an air of freshness. The marriage was a queer one, to begin with. Talleyrand, although an eldest son, had taken holy orders, on account of his lameness, as it was said, and wholly without vocation to the priesthood, and had been made Bishop of Autun. When he came back from America, he was followed by a Mrs. Grant, who had been his mistress during his exile, and with whom he lived publicly in Paris. This shocked the sensitive morality of the First Consul, in whom

"Déjà Napoléon perçait sous Bonaparte,"

and he insisted that a marriage should sanction the connection. Talleyrand did not wish to be married, but he did wish to keep his place as Minister of Foreign Affairs and to avoid a quarrel with the head of the State. A dispensation was therefore obtained from Pope Pius VII., and the wedding was celebrated both civilly and in church. Mme. de Talleyrand had the name of being as stupid as she was handsome, and her husband took a manly pleasure in leading her on to the commission of the most amazing blunders for the amusement of their guests. One day, for instance, when Denon, one of the savants whom Bonaparte had taken in his train on the expedition to Egypt, was to dine with them, Talleyrand told his wife that he was a traveller of note whose last book he would give her to read. At dinner Denon was at first delighted by the accuracy and discrimination of the compliments which Mme. de Talleyrand paid him, but she soon gave such feelings pause by saying: "*Et ce bon Vendredi*—what a comfort he must have been to you!" Talleyrand had given her 'Robinson Crusoe' to read. The château of Valençay is *triste*, now, M. Plauchut says, and the woods around it are sombre; they are no longer lightened by the delicate humor of their former owner. He lies in the chapel in a marble coffin that has his titles in letters of gold on the lid. Nuns take care of the chapel, and a priest comes and says mass there every day.

JONATHAN EDWARDS.

Jonathan Edwards. By Alexander V. G. Allen, D.D., Professor in the Episcopal Theological School in Cambridge, Mass. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

Dr. Allen's book is the first of a new series of which several volumes are announced, the most promising in subject and in treatment being a study of Theodore Parker by Mr. John Fiske. It is to be hoped that he at least will not be bound by the express intention of the series—to give thought-histories, not personal biographies. There would be something monstrous in such a treatment of Theodore Parker. In the case of Jonathan Edwards, the man's thought was so nearly exhaustive of the man that the limitation does not seriously harm, and yet we could wish that Dr. Allen had been more forgetful of it and given us a more personal presentation. Nothing could be more intangible than Edwards's personality as it moves through these pages. We are in a region of abstractions nearly all the way. It is, perhaps, a matter for regret that this subject did not fall to some one of a less abstract and speculative turn of mind. Edwards himself was not more of such a turn than Dr. Allen, whose "Eternal Christ" is as far removed from anything positive, or historical, or human as the most vague of Edwards's theological conceptions.

Dr. Allen's 'Continuity of Christian Thought' was so pronouncedly anti-Augustinian and anti-Calvinistic that it prepared its readers for a much more polemical treatment of Edwards than he has given us. If he has erred, it certainly is not on the polemical side. If anything, he is too apologetic. The proportion of exposition to criticism in his book is that of ten to one. Throughout the earlier chapters we have so little criticism mixed with the exposition that we begin to be impatient, but there is more as we go on. Then, too, the author's art becomes apparent: his exposition is a criticism that would be weakened by any pointing of the moral. In other words, to state is to condemn.

There was much more in Edwards than his development and defence of Calvinism. This Dr. Allen endeavors to bring out. His treatment is extremely sympathetic. We find ourselves thinking of Edwards as of a spirit in prison, and wondering what he would have been if he had not felt it necessary to conform his thought to the traditional creed. It would not be difficult to make up from his writings an anthology that would be as little suggestive of the Jonathan Edwards of our habitual conception as anything could well be. It would abound in sentences and passages of the utmost tenderness and spirituality. Critics before Dr. Allen have noticed Edwards's predilection for the words *sweet*, *sweetness*, *sweetly*. Dr. Allen thinks the word *light* was equally a favorite with him. That here was an apostle of "sweetness and light" more than a century before Matthew Arnold's time will certainly be a surprise to many. So respectful and so reverent is Dr. Allen's treatment of Edwards, that he never invites us to a laugh or even a smile at his expense, as he might easily and innocently do. Rather than do this, he abridges Edwards's account of his infirmities in his letter replying to the invitation to the Presidency of Nassau Hall, now Princeton College. He had, he says, "*a constitution in many respects peculiarly unhappy, attended with flaccid solids, vapid, sizy, and scarce fluids;* and a low tide of spirits, often occasioning a kind of childish weakness and contemptibleness of speech, presence, and demeanor; with a disagreeable dulness *and stiffness*, much unfitting me for conversation, but more especially for the government of a college." Dr. Allen omits what we have printed in italics, and there were certain humorous aspects of the "Great Awakening" to which he has been too considerately blind.

Dr. Allen divides his matter into three sections of six chapters each, with a brief general conclusion. The first section, "The Parish Minister, 1703–1735," sketches Edwards's youth and training, his marriage with Sarah Pierrepont, his settlement in Northampton, his characteristics as a preacher, and his imprecatory sermons. Of course the exquisite description of Sarah Pierrepont, written when she was thirteen and Edwards seventeen, is not omitted, though it is better known than anything he wrote except certain passages in the sermon "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God." It cannot be too well known, for we must go to Dante's 'Vita Nuova' for anything more delicately sweet. Of course, too, the wonder is renewed that from the marriage of these saintly persons came in the second generation such a scamp as Aaron Burr. We might also wonder that with his conception of children as "young vipers, and infinitely more hateful than vipers," he chose to warm eleven of these vipers in his bosom.

Dr. Allen's second section has for its subject "The Great Awakening, 1735-1750." That period of religious excitement was fraught with serious results for Edwards and for the New England churches. At first it was a local matter, beginning in Northampton, with Edwards's own parish, where, after sweeping in 300 converts, it died away, God withdrawing his spirit and letting loose the devil, in the language of the time, only to break out again everywhere, stirred by the eloquence of Whitefield into a

fiercer flame. Its different stages appear in a succession of Edwards's writings, pathetic in their transition from the glorying over the earlier aspects to the apology for the later, in which there was much of condemnation. In his treatise on "Distinguishing Marks of a Work of the Spirit of God," it is pitiful to see him endeavoring to prove a divine character for the physical manifestations of his own converts, while denying such a character to Whitefield's "impulses" to speech and action. It was with the consent of Whitefield, not with that of Edwards, that the authority of the clergy was broken by the invasion of itinerant preachers and lay exhorters. Against such invasion Edwards set his face in vain. The destruction of the parish unity of towns was one of the most obvious results of the revival. With much of transient interest, except for the religious historian, Edwards contributed to the Awakening one of the loftiest expressions of his spiritual genius, his 'Treatise on the Religious Affections.' Dr. Allen finds in it the Miltonic sign of a good book—"the precious life-blood of a master spirit." Its leading purpose was to show that Christian character and practice are the only adequate tests of the presence of the divine spirit; that in the life alone can be made manifest the sincerity of Christian faith. The depreciation of miracle, in this treatise, as compared with spiritual insight as a testimony to religious truth, is one of those anticipations of Transcendentalism which others before Dr. Allen have remarked upon. There was, however, this important difference, that the spiritual insight of Edwards was the special gift of the Almighty to his own elect, while that of Emerson was the most natural operation of the mind.

It was an application of the principles of this treatise to parish life in his 'Qualifications for Full Communion' that brought Edwards's connection with the Northampton parish to an unhappy close. The understanding has generally been that Edwards demanded assurance of conversion as a condition of church membership. Dr. Allen makes it plain that he did not. His standards of conversion were so subtile and exacting that he might well have doubted his own, as Hopkins and Emmons, the great continuators of his line, did theirs. What he demanded was "a lively hope" instead of the mere formal baptism of the "half-way covenant" by which the New England churches had endeavored to make citizenship easy, when one must be a church member to be a citizen. The matter was complicated with some question of discipline for the reading of "obscene books," meaning Richardson's 'Pamela,' suggests Mr. Leslie Stephen. When the vote was taken on his expulsion, there were only twenty to sustain him. Two hundred were in opposition. The Stockbridge Indians must have been a pleasant change from the Northampton saints. But before this refuge had been offered, friends in Scotland had tendered him a settlement. Then it was that the "Father of Modern Congregationalism," as Dr. Allen calls him, wrote that he had "long been perfectly out of conceit of our unsettled, independent, confused way of church government in this land, and the Presbyterian way has ever appeared to me the most agreeable to the word of God and the reason and nature of things." Dr. Allen may well conceive that this language only expressed the alienation of a passing mood. Certain it is that the stone his Northampton parishioners rejected became the head of the corner of Congregational polity. His offending treatise was the beginning of the end of half-way covenants and of that mixture of the affairs of Church and State which had been suffered over-long.

The third period of Edwards's life, corresponding to the third section of Dr. Allen's book, was preëminently that of "The Philosophic Theologian." Its most significant product was the treatise on the 'Freedom of the Will.' The real object of this was to save God's foreknowledge, which seemed to be imperilled by the Arminian doctrine. Into the particulars of Dr. Allen's suggestive if not entirely satisfactory treatment of this formidable theme we cannot enter. What is certain is, that, to save human responsibility, Edwards made so much of the "freedom to do what we will" as distinguished from the "freedom to will what we will," and was followed up in this so closely by his followers, that he did much to advance the Arminian doctrine which he would fain have utterly destroyed. What is also certain is, that his most precious doctrine, that of the sovereignty of God, went utterly to wreck in the logic of his argument. There was no more place for divine freedom in that than there was for human. "The Augustinian idea of God as arbitrary, unconditioned will" gave way to another conception—that of "God as the one substance, of whose thought the world of created things is the necessary manifestation." This means that, after a lifelong endeavor to subject his personal thought to the traditional dogma, the latter finally succumbed. Mr. Leslie Stephen has called Edwards "a kind of Spinoza-Mather." His intellectual experience resolves itself into the conflict of these opposing elements, a philosophic pantheism and the traditional theology. It was the former that came off victorious.

We have heard much of late of a "Christocentric" doctrine of religion. It is the favorite doctrine of the progressive orthodoxy, so called, of Andover. Edwards knew it not. His theology was God-centred. For him there was hardly anything but God. "Where man should be, there is only a fearful void." It was the reaction from this method that brought the Unitarianism of Channing, with its doctrine of the dignity of human nature, to the front, while leaving God the supreme object of thought and worship. But in the last analysis it is neither the direct nor indirect influence of any special thought of Edwards that constitutes his value and significance for religious thought. It is his thinking that does this. "When God lets loose a thinker on the earth," something remarkable is sure to happen. However wrong-headed Edwards's thinking was at times, it was still thinking. It was an appeal to reason. The beginning of all scepticism and infidelity, says Cardinal Manning, is the attempt to prove the reasonableness of revelation. Edwards made this attempt. "He who believes principles," he said, "because our forefathers affirm them, makes idols of them; and it would be no humility, but baseness of spirit, for us to judge ourselves incapable of examining principles that have been handed down to us." Edwards never wrote anything more characteristic than these Miltonic words. The impulse which he gave to rational thinking was not wholly spent till it had produced results quite different from those which he believed he had established for all time.

THE NEGRO RACE IN CENTRAL AFRICA.

Les Nègres de l'Afrique sus-équatoriale. Par Abel Hovelacque. Paris: Lecrosnier & Babé. 1889. Pp. 468.

ANY work on ethnology by the distinguished author of 'La Linguistique' cannot fail to merit the attention of all who are interested in that "science of man" which, in its modern phase—since the time of Boucher de Perthes, of Darwin, and Broca—has assumed such a novel importance. The present work forms one of a series, composing the "Bibliothèque Anthropologique," which, commenced as lately as 1885, numbers already ten published volumes, with five more announced as in the press. Their authors—Thulié, Duval, Letourneau, Hervé, Vinson, Lacombe, Bordier, Mortillet, Manouvrier, Sabatier—will be recognized as among the masters of this science in its various branches. Each of them is capable of giving a complete report of the present state of knowledge in his own particular department. If the report in each case involves certain special theories of the writer, this fact, far from being a defect, must be deemed not merely a merit, but a decided advantage to the reader. No account of any inductive science is really satisfactory which is not based on a "working hypothesis" clearly set forth. When we know the author's point of view, we can scrutinize his facts and weigh his conclusions with a confidence which would be otherwise impossible.

Central Africa and its people have lately acquired a peculiar interest. The commercial nations of Europe, overflowing with population, capital, and enterprise, and looking far and wide for fields of trade and colonization, have suddenly become conscious of the fact that the greatest of these yet unexploited fields is just at their own doors. The New World of the coming century is to be found in the very heart of the Old World. In this old New World, moreover, there is an immense population which cannot possibly be "improved off the earth." A climate fatal to the white man protects it; and the race itself is full of vitality, the toughest and most fertile of all races, except perhaps the Chinese. Hence the question of the future of this race, and of its capacity for improvement, becomes of the greatest importance.

Prof. Hovelacque does not include in the scope of his work the people of southern Africa, the great "Bantu race," among whom the explorations of Livingston and Stanley have been chiefly carried on. He considers them to belong generally to "a more elevated type" than the "north-equatorial tribes." These latter, extending, with some interruptions, from Senegambia and the Guinea coast to the regions of the Upper Nile, compose the typical negro race, and are portrayed in his work with a fulness and accuracy which leave little to desire. Beginning with the people of the Atlantic coast, and proceeding eastward, he describes minutely the physical traits, character, social life, arts, government, and religious belief of each tribe. He draws his descriptions from the narratives of the best explorers, carefully weighing and comparing the different reports, until the reader feels satisfied that the picture presented to him is thoroughly trustworthy.

In the second part of the work the whole of the descriptions are summarized, and the author's conclusions are set forth. These conclusions are given, for the most part, in the words of other authorities, whom he cites with general approval. According to these opinions, the most notable qualities of the negro are his light-hearted disposition, his good-nature, his indolence and his improvidence, his fickleness and his vanity. He is untruthful and thievish, but not addicted to great crimes. He is exceedingly generous and hospitable, but is at the same time indifferent to the sufferings of others. He has an excessive curiosity, but little inclination for learning; is intelligent to a

certain degree, but is incapable of permanent improvement or of a high civilization. He is, in fact, a child with the stature of a man. "During childhood," affirms Sir Samuel Baker, "the negro surpasses in intelligence the white child of the same age; but his mind does not develop. The fruit is there, but it does not ripen; the body grows, but the mind remains stationary." "It is now demonstrated by experience," writes Bérenger-Féraud, "that there is a point, very near the semi-savage state, beyond which the negro cannot pass, whether we leave him to wander or whether we cultivate his mind with care." It is a race, declares Vallon, marked with the stamp of immobility and incapable of change.

These opinions are of the kind to which we in America were accustomed in bygone days, when anthropology was a branch of politics. It will be noticed that there are certain inconsistencies in the qualities ascribed to the negro race, whose members are at once intelligent and thoughtless, generous and selfish, inquisitive and disinclined to learn. What is still more noteworthy is the fact that a phase of mental development which belongs to the whole human race is treated as peculiar to the negro. Everywhere—as Broca's eminent successor, Dr. Topinard, has well pointed out—children are notable for their singular eagerness and capacity for acquiring knowledge. This readiness lasts while the brain continues to grow and gain strength rapidly, as it does in childhood. At the period of adolescence this rapid growth ceases, and with it the eagerness for learning declines. Where necessity stimulates to exertion, as in cold climates, or where custom and ambition urge the youth forward, as among the higher classes in civilized countries, the effort for improvement continues—not, as before, by spontaneous desire, but through a direct exertion of the will. In a genial and fruitful region like tropical Africa, this exertion is less required. If, nevertheless, the exertion has been, as the present work shows, really apparent in the negro race to a marked extent, we have evidence of a decided natural capacity and inclination for improvement in this race.

The abundant facts adduced by Prof. Hovelacque show that the negroes have attained a higher grade of civilization than had been reached by the German tribes in the time of Tacitus, though these tribes had then probably occupied the fertile plains of central Europe, under a stimulating climate, for more than three thousand years. The negroes everywhere cultivate the soil, and raise a great variety of products, including rice, maize, millet, sorghum, leguminous plants, indigo, tobacco, and cotton. In some of the mechanical arts they have made notable progress. The tanners of the Soudan are "renowned" for their skill. Weaving is everywhere practised. The women spin the cotton thread, which the men weave, dye, shape, and sew into garments. Pottery, of native make, is everywhere in common household use. Iron-forgers are numerous, and, though their implements are primitive, often display much skill, both in smelting the ore and in working the metal. There is an extensive commerce, with regular markets, and an established currency of shell-money. Flourishing and populous towns, such as the Germany of Arminius never knew, are the centres of this traffic. The country is "constantly traversed by caravans of negroes, carrying their goods to the coast, and bringing to the interior the products of the coast-lands and of Europe."

One of two conclusions is inevitable. Either the negroes have invented all these arts, or they have learned them from others. In either case their natural capacity for improvement is made clearly evident. Nor is there any reason for supposing that this improvement has reached a limit at which it has become stationary. Two of the chief products of their agriculture, maize and tobacco, have come from America, and in less than four hundred years have been diffused through nearly the whole breadth of Africa. The judgment which pronounces the entire population to be dishonest and thievish is at once shown to be baseless and absurd by their extensive commerce and their industrial arts; for without mutual confidence and general respect for the rights of property, no trade or manufacture can exist. As little can we accept the opinions which pronounce these intelligent and active artisans, cultivators, and traders to be thoughtless and improvident children. Such dicta we perceive to be merely the outcome of those race-prejudices which make it so difficult for the average traveller to judge any foreign people impartially.

Prof. Hovelacque, however, is an enlightened and liberal scholar, far above such vulgar prejudice. He is evidently misled by his "working hypothesis." This hypothesis supposes that the negro belongs to a more primitive grade of humanity than the European, approaching nearer to the anthropoid ape. Such was, in fact, the older Darwinian theory, which Darwin himself is understood to have renounced in his later years. The better theory holds that the qualities, physical and mental, of each race depend chiefly on its environment, including, of course, in this term, the influences exerted upon it by other races. It has been mainly through these external influences that the Germanic tribes have been lifted, within two thousand years, from a barbarism lower than that of the negroes to the height of modern civilization. If the climatic obstacles are more serious in Africa, it must, on the other hand, be admitted that the facts recorded in the present work show in the people a peculiar aptitude for improvement, warranting strong hopes for the future of their race.

One evidence of great scientific value remains to be noticed. Prof. Hovelacque is a philologist of the first rank, and he justly considers that the language of a people furnishes one of the best tests of their mental powers. If he had chosen to apply his own learning and discernment to this test, the result would have led him to an unexpected conclusion. Unfortunately, he has had recourse, not to the languages themselves, but to the opinions of travellers who knew nothing more of those idioms than they could pick up in passing through the country. On their authority, he pronounces of the negro that "abstraction is absolutely beyond his faculty of conception." There are, we are assured, "no abstract words in his language. Only tangible things have the power of touching him. As to generalization, as to deducing from the sense of material phenomena any systematization whatever, we must not demand it of him."

How widely the author has been misled by his untrustworthy guides will appear by a glance at the analyses of African languages comprised in Dr. Friedrich Müller's work on 'Linguistic Science' (*Grundriss der Sprachwissenschaft*), the highest authority on this subject. The languages of the Mande (or Mandingo) family, comprising the Mandingo proper, the Susu, Vei, and Bambara, may be deemed typical negro idioms. Every one of these languages has a suffix (*ya*, *nya*, *dza*), of which the special office, we are told, is "to form from substantives, as well as from adjectives and verbs, nouns of abstract signification." Thus from *bong*, friend, we have *bongya*, friendship; from *mo*, kinsman, *modza*, relationship; from *wuru*, brief, *wuruya*, brevity; from *ketu*, to deceive, *ketunya*, deception. In the languages of an entirely different family, the Yoruba, the same result is attained either by a peculiar form of reduplication, as, in the Nupe dialect, from *wo*, dry, *wiwo*, dryness; from *mo*, sweet, *mimo*, sweetness—or by a prefix, as from *ta*, to betray, *ita*, treachery; from *wu*, to teach, *iwu*, doctrine. Another language, the Wolof, pursues these abstractions into refinements rare even in European tongues. Thus from *dunde*, to live, are derived the forms *ndunde*, life, and *dundite*, "the having lived"; and from *sopa*, to love, we get the nouns *nthyope*, affection, and *sopite*, "the having loved"—affection, as it were, in the past tense. The languages of central Africa are of very varied types; but none of them, it may be affirmed, are so low in the linguistic scale as the speech of the civilized Chinese, while many of them show powers of word-formation and capabilities of expression which will easily fit them for literary uses. Thus the language-test confirms, in a striking way, the many other evidences of the good natural capacity and improvable qualities of the central African population.

Finally, reference may be made to a scientific authority far higher than any of those cited on the other side—that of the eminent naturalist and anthropologist, Prof. A. de Quatrefages, who, in his great work just completed, the 'Introduction to the Study of the Human Races,' has demonstrated by physiological data the falsity of the notion that "the negro is a white man in a state of arrested development." Few writers, indeed, have done more than this illustrious leader of science in France to dispel the unscientific prejudice which holds that all barbarous races are proved by the mere fact of their barbarism to be inferior in capacity to civilized races, a prejudice which, twenty centuries ago, would have ranked Germans and Gauls in natural intelligence below Egyptians and Chinese. Accepting the facts of Hovelacque and the philosophy of Quatrefages, there seems no reason why we should not hold that within much less than two thousand years—for events march rapidly in these later times—middle Africa may become (as northern Africa has twice been) the seat of powerful and civilized nations and the centre of a world-enriching commerce.

RECENT NOVELS.

Zit and Xoe. By the author of 'Lady Bluebeard.' Harper & Bros.

Inside Our Gate. By Christine Chaplin Brush. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

A Woodland Wooing. By Eleanor Putnam. Roberts Bros.

Miss Eyre from Boston, and Others. By Louise Chandler Moulton. Roberts Bros.

Two Sides of a Story. By George Parsons Lathrop. Cassell & Co.

Miss Marlow. Philadelphia: Globe Printing House.

A Crooked Path. By Mrs. Alexander. Henry Holt & Co.

A Sage of Sixteen. By L. B. Walford. Henry Holt & Co.

Isaac Eller's Money. By Mrs. Andrew Dean. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

'ZIT AND XOE' is an evolution story, cleverly conceived, and laid out on original lines. The execution is hardly equal to the design, but this is said rather in praise of the latter than

in detraction from the former. To a history of the first human beings, an archaic language would have lent itself more suitably than do the flippant phrases of the period. A sense of jarring occasionally mars the enjoyment of the pretty fable, as one comes upon a paragraph that might be taken from a notebook nourished at a summer boarding-house. Facts in such cases are not strictly verifiable, but the author has clearly testified to his own belief in the early development of feminine complexities of mind. Xoe, first of women, cannot be outdone in subtlety and labyrinthine quality by Henry James's most involuted heroine.

A book by the author of 'The Colonel's Opera Cloak' is sure of a public, and those who venture 'Inside Our Gate' will find wholesome cheer. The book is not a story like the former one—in fact, it is not a story at all, but a chronicle of home life, such as must appeal nearly to all who are set in families, and must give to the solitary a sense of domesticity. One would like, provided one had not maltreated an animal, to be shriven at the hands of so gentle and so humorous a priestess as presides over this home altar. The story of her housekeeping, her children, her maid-servants and their lovers, her cats and dogs and birds, is full of naturalness and charm. A humorous realism gives the book its leading motive, although pathos is not wanting. The chapter describing the scene between the Scotch servant, Tibbie, and her braw wooer, the baker, is as amusing a presentment of Caledonianism as has found its way into print.

After the delicate texture of this book, that of 'A Woodland Wooing' wears a somewhat cheap air. New England eccentricities have been described so often and so well in recent years—better than here, we think, by Eleanor Putnam herself, in an earlier, charming volume—that one grows fastidious, and can enjoy only the cream of the cream. The Woodland part of the book is pretty; the drama and the Wooing lack the distinction one must hope to find in a story by the author of 'Old Salem.'

Mrs. Moulton's book of stories—notwithstanding that "Miss Eyre from Boston" heads the procession, followed by many other Bostonians, like the bright seraphim in burning row, and that the collection is dedicated to five Boston girls—has neither the wit, fibre, nor Attic flavor to be looked for in such high association. In vain do the pages reek with Reveres and Quincys; in vain is the atmosphere rarefied with Amorys and Sargents; the Commonplace, which should shrink affrighted, rears its head in every chapter, and, hand in hand with the feebly Sentimental, minces through the book. There is a great deal about "quivers of pathos," "the woman-heart," "sweeping dead hopes down the gale"; about girls like "flowers o' the peach," and "laces like sea-foam"—all of which has the ring of the days we hoped were dead. Less familiar is the spirit of touching gratitude with which large numbers of young men receive refusals at the hands of the peach-blossom girls. This setting forth of altruism is perhaps destined to have a great influence over our gilded youth, and to secure for the book an otherwise hardly attainable immortality.

Mr. Lathrop's book of stories is something better, but causes one to reflect with sorrow how rare an achievement is one good short story, how thousand-fold more rare a book of such. Many a one which passes muster singly, and gives itself easily to the trivial mood of the hammock, wears a sadly limp appearance in a volume with others of its family, and challenging an hour's attention instead of the passing moment's. Mr. Lathrop's stories show as much invention as many, have more imagination than most, yet such pearls as they afford are strung in unequal fashion along with stones of little value. A quality for which there is no better name than home-made overlays the fancy, and produces often an impression of collapse where one has been encouraged to expect an original flight. The style is clear and flowing. It is the matter of the book, rather than its form, which, spite of able touches, carries a hint of the callow.

'Miss Marlow' is quite the most raw piece of work that has blundered into print in a long time, and a book to make one thank the gods that he is not poetical. The dedication speaks of it as "an indifferent offering," which, under the circumstances, is fulsome praise. The story rises in the every-day atmosphere of tennis-playing, fox-hunting young America. It sets in a lurid light which has shone more often in the Bowery Theatre than on land or sea. But not to be classified at all is the language that the characters speak. The lofty periods are those of a Lord Orville, but a Lord Orville of defective education. This is what a mother says, haranguing her daughter upon the behavior of man in the abstract as a husband: "His life he devotes to her happiness and maintenance, his person he commits to tedious labor, to watch and strive by night and day, in winter and summer, to keep his wife secure at home." Not, however, to force the girl into accepting the particular man who has inspired this preachment, the mother adds, and one can fancy her smacking her lips over her own eloquence, "Because your intellect is pleased, your heart touched, it is not a logical sequence that your life shall be affluent in the blessings of contentment and peace." Is not this near to being funny and to entitling the book to a place among the Portuguese phrase-book classics?

Mrs. Alexander's novels are always exceedingly cheerful reading. Her paths lie in well-lighted places, or, if there is an occasional dip into gloom, the reassuring click of a lantern is always at hand. Her villains are not very naughty, her catastrophes not very distressing. Her heroine is always a person of great energy and good spirits. She is usually involved in a little money trouble and a little love trouble, but she secures a secretaryship, or keeps a shop, with unfailing sunshine in her temper, and emerges triumphant and wealthy on the arm of a lord, who is always dark and has a "grave, sweet smile." But in 'A Crooked Path' the gospel of the debonair has been pushed too far. The sonsy lass whom Mrs. Alexander's readers know so well, commits felony, and trips lightly through life with only the most intermittent remorse. She is never found out, except by the reader and by the man she has robbed, who smiles pleasantly at her and marries her. The reader will be less lenient, and will hope that Mrs. Alexander will henceforth keep to her little sins, where her blitheness is not out of place.

'The Sage of Sixteen' is a charming young girl with a considerate disposition towards all mankind, and an especial turn for philanthropy towards the not very poor, but what are called the half-and-halfs — school-teachers, tradesmen's daughters, "persons one does not know"; the class which in English stories is so difficult of management, so inadmissible, so grateful for a little notice. The sage of sixteen reforms two worldly families to the point of making them invite the half-and-halfs to their houses, and England is happier for her presence. As her experiences form scarcely a novel, rather a girl's book which will assuredly be pronounced "splendid," and perhaps be dramatized by a world that makes a cult of Lord Fauntleroy, it is well to remind the young girls who will wish to emulate Elma Alfreton's example, that they should fix their attention not only on her lofty station in life, but on her unselfish sweetness. Being a book by Mrs. Walford, it is needless to say that it is written with practised grace and is easily read.

If Beresford Hope had postponed to the next century his scathing epithet for Disraeli of "the Asian Mystery," the chances are that he would never have used it. The mystery of the modern Jew in England is undergoing such thorough investigation by the novel-writers that solution must be at hand. In the case of 'Isaac Eller's Money,' Disraeli's answering reproach of "Batavian grace" is not applicable. It is one of the cleverest books of its school, and contains some exceedingly telling portraiture. Here are, of course, sordid Jews and Jewesses. They wear yellow and fine brocade; they sit in the crimson-plush seats of the scornful, and are strictly pachyderms. These are more or less familiar figures, but to them are added a quite original person or two, drawn with a good deal of vigor. The Hebrew æsthete and the Hebrew "masher" of Mrs. Dean are her chief successes. Types of exaggeration they are, and caricatures they would assuredly have become under unskilful treatment; but a cunning hand and a shrewd has wrought, and the result is full of quality. The workmanship of the whole book, indeed, is firm and sinewy, and it will be found to yield an entertaining hour's reading.

CLIMATES AND WEATHER OF INDIA.

A Practical Guide to the Climates and Weather of India, Ceylon, and Burmah, and the Storms of Indian Seas. By Henry F. Blanford, F.R.S., late Meteorological Reporter to the Government of India. Macmillan. 1889. 369 pp., 8vo.

The Meteorological Department of the Government of India was established in 1875, and from that time until within a year or two has remained in charge of its first director—or "meteorological reporter," as he is styled—Henry F. Blanford. During his term of office, a large number of well-equipped stations have been established in all parts of the great peninsula. Annual reports have presented long tabular statements of high value to the specialist, and folio memoirs have contained excellent discussions of Indian data; but the need of a more general account of the results has led to the preparation of this admirable book on the climates and weather of India.

Mr. Blanford is as successful in popular exposition as in scientific administration. We have already enjoyed his text-book, the 'Indian Meteorologists' Vade-mecum,' in which the physical principles that lie at the basis of the science find much greater recognition than has generally been allowed them in English writings; and he has written a valuable primer on the 'Rudiments of Physical Geography' for the use of Indian schools, where so much of the stock material of English books would be irrelevant. His scientific writings are chiefly in the memoirs above named, and are particularly concerned with the winds, rainfall, and cyclonic storms of India. His associations are of a high order, he being a member of the Royal Society, and his brother President of the (London) Geological Society, after a term of service on the Geological Survey of India. It is from such a man as this that we are most fortunate in having a popular exposition of scientific results. The book will at once take place as a standard, and will serve excellently as a source for quotation of material concerning one of the

most interesting meteorological regions of the world. The aboriginal home of the monsoons and the scene of Piddington's studies of cyclones, India is often cited in our text-books; but the statements commonly current are now somewhat stale, and will be greatly freshened by renewed contact with the conclusions of a practical investigator.

Mr. Blanford's book consists of two parts and an appendix of climatic tables. In the first we find chapters on various meteorological topics, for which brief illustrations or numerical tables are given from various parts of India; in the second, the different parts of the country are taken up in succession, and the weather and climates of each described in turn. The author does well to insist on the use of the plural in recounting the wonderful variety of conditions that prevail from the desert plains of the Indus to the humid delta of the Ganges; from the temperate promontory on the south to the torrid lowlands in the north; from the open highlands of Ceylon to the mountain-walled vale of Cashmir. Just as Strachey has lately emphasized the importance of considering the "peoples" of India when describing the wonderfully complex native population, so Blanford calls attention to the variety of its "climates." The book is full of quotable passages. Here are two, slightly altered and condensed. The first describes the climate of the Punjab, the "five-river" region of the north-west:

> Like the rest of India, the Punjab has but three seasons, the hot season from March or April to June, the rains from July into September, and the cold season from October to February. From April to June, as a rule, there is no rain: the hot west wind holds sway, blowing from the sandy wastes of the Indus region. A dweller in the temperate zone can hardly realize the desiccating, truly scorching heat of this wind. The thermometer rises above 120 degrees in the shade. In order to enjoy fresh air at this season one must take exercise at early dawn, for no sooner has the sun risen than the heat sets in again. Then the houses must be closed, only a small door being left for passage. So long as the hot winds blow strong and steady, rooms may be kept in some measure cool by means of grass screens sprinkled with water in front of the doorway, or by some mechanical "thermantidote." Man and beast languish and gasp for air, while even in the house the thermometer stand between 95 and 113 degrees. All green things wither, the grass seems burnt up to the roots, bushes and trees seem moribund, the earth is as hard as a paved highway, the ground is seamed with cracks, and the whole landscape wears an aspect of barrenness and sadness. At length in June the hot winds are followed by a calm, and now the heat is truly fearful. Thermantidotes avail naught, and all things pine for the rains; but no rain, not even a shower, can one hope for till the south and east winds shall have set in. These winds first bring clouds and frequent showers, and finally the summer rains. In July the trees begin a second time to burst into leaf, grass springs up once more, and soon a vegetation is developed that is scarce to be kept within bounds. Grateful as is the coolness brought by the showers, the more oppressively hot and sultry is it when the rain holds off, if only for half a day. The atmosphere weighs on one like a heavy coverlet. Insect and reptilian life is active; of evenings it hums, and buzzes, and croaks all around; frogs find their way into the houses, and, with them, scorpions and snakes, making it unwise to go about in the dark. Woodwork swells, doors and windows can only be fastened with difficulty. Shoes become thickly coated with fungus, books become mouldy and worm-eaten, paper [brittle in the dry season] perishes, linen becomes damp in the presses, and, despite the oppressive heat, one must light a fire to neutralize the dampness.
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> And so on through a feverish October, to a fine, cool season, in which life is worth living. Curiously enough, the most agreeable contrast to this oppressive climate is found nearer the equator, on the table-land of Southern India. Ootacamund, the summer residence of the Madras Government, is in the Nilgiri hills, over 7,000 feet above the sea, where the eastern and western Ghats converge southward. Among all the pleasant memories of more than thirty years of Indian life, as Blanford courteously phrases his recollection of this generally torrid country, he can recall no more charming scene and climate than those of the Nilgiri hills. Many an old Anglo-Indian, whom choice or necessity has led to fix his home in India, has found in these hills scenery as beautiful and a climate as enjoyable as any in the most-favored lands of the Mediterranean shores. Its striking characteristic is the comparative uniformity of its temperature throughout the year. Its mean annual temperature is 55 degrees, the same as that of Simla, the summer residence of the Calcutta Government on the ridge of one of the outer ranges of the northwestern Himalaya; but May, the warmest month, is only 59 degrees, and January, the coolest, is 48 degrees. The daily range is great, as is usual on table-lands, but in 1880 the highest reading was only 77.3 degrees, and the lowest 25.3 degrees. The annual rainfall averages only 45.8 inches, with an average of 143 rainy days. Such a climate deserves the high praise given it.

Other subjects of special interest are the description and charts of the winter and summer monsoons, the samples of daily weather charts issued from Calcutta and Simla, the accounts of the extraordinary rainfall of certain stations, and the history of the cyclones and cyclonic storms, all of which we would strongly recommend to the attention of our meteorologists.

The only serious drawback in the make-up of the book is the absence of an outline map, on which the stations and their outlandish names might be entered. Masulipatam, Coimbatore, Thyet-Myo, and the rest may be familiar enough to Anglo-Indians, for whom truly the book was primarily written; but a work of such sterling value will have readers abroad as well, and to them these names are a mystification. The proof-reading is not beyond praise, as Sir Proby Cautley is printed Cantley (p. 141), and Lieut. Finley appears as Finlay (p. 90), and a brief examination of the climatic tables in the appendix discovers that the headings "monthly" and "daily" are interchanged for Simla (p. 292). But it is only force of habit that leads a reviewer to mention these trifles in a book so generally excellent. We should be glad to see similar accounts of the other colonial possessions of Great Britain.

The Colonial Laws of Massachusetts. Reprinted from the edition of 1660, with the supplements to 1672. Containing also The Body of Liberties of 1641. Published by order of the City Council of Boston, under the supervision of William H. Whitmore, Record Commissioner. Boston. 1889.

THE publication of this handsome volume is a proof that Boston has not yet sunk to the rank of a mere aggregation of men and houses —describable, in summary Ciceronian phrase, as *domicilia conjuncta, quas urbes dicimus.* The members of its City Council are perhaps not greatly superior in virtue to officers of like position elsewhere, but they cannot altogether resist the atmosphere of civic pride which enfolds them and recalls even to the stranger the illustrious history of the place. They have at least allowed a portion of the funds under their control to be applied to antiquarian research by a most competent and devoted commissioner, and no one that has beheld the squalid condition of the city library of New York will be inclined to carp at their probable motives.

Although the records of Massachusetts from 1629 to 1686 have been published by the State, they do not supply the necessary information in regard to the laws. The Body of Liberties enacted in 1641 seems never to have been entered on the records. The compilation of 1812 made by Dane, Prescott, and Story, under authority of the Legislature, and known as "Ancient Charters and General Laws," has been practically rendered obsolete by the elaborate investigations of later scholars. But with the aid of the other publications of the State, and of this volume and its companion, the Revision of 1672, the progress of legislation may now be conveniently studied from the earliest days of the colony. The collection of laws issued in 1649 is apparently lost beyond recovery, but it is possible, by a careful comparison of the collections that have been preserved, to reconstruct it in a nearly perfect form. For the study of the development of the General Court into a Parliament, Mr. Whitmore's introduction is of much value. His notes are principally upon bibliographical and textual matters. The evidence bearing on the rival claims of John Cotton and Nathaniel Ward to the authorship of the Body of Liberties is thoroughly sifted, and substantial reasons are given for the rejection of Cotton's code as spurious. Upon many other points Mr. Whitmore's patient scholarship lightens the task of the critical reader. We will only add that the laws are reproduced by the photo-electrotype process, and that a facsimile of the manuscript Body of Liberties is given.

Although we cannot here undertake any extended comment upon the substance of this volume, it is impossible, when we consider the far-reaching influence of the Massachusetts colony, to refrain from noticing some of the features of its primitive jurisprudence. The Body of Liberties was a veritable magna carta, and seems in fact to have been obtained by the people from their rulers only after something of a struggle. It forms at once a singularly complete Bill of Rights, and a Constitution. In one sense it is only a reproduction of the English "Common-Law Liberties," but it presents them as a code, and it includes some notable additions. The penal provisions are in the main enlightened, and the offences punishable with death are few. This was owing in part to the circumstances of the commonwealth, but chiefly, it seems probable, to the controlling influence of the Hebrew code; yet the spirit of the Dark Ages had not entirely departed, as the following declaration shows:

> "45. No man shall be forced by Torture to confesse any Crime against himselfe nor any other unlesse it be in some Capitall case where he is first fullie convicted by cleare and suffitient evidence to be guilty, After which if the cause be of that nature, That it is very apparent there be other conspiritours, or confederates with him, Then he may be tortured, yet not with such Tortures as be Barbarous and inhumane."

In one respect there seems to have been a retrogression since the time of this code. It was then provided that no man should be rated for any estate or revenue that he had in foreign parts, upon the ground that it would be double taxation. The present law of Massachusetts is not so scrupulous. It is certainly remarkable that cruelty to animals was so early forbidden; the institution of human slavery also was regulated by a number of merciful provisions. Here again the Hebrew law had its effect, and the "Liberties of Servants" seem to contemplate that their term of service should be limited to seven years, and that then they

were not to be "sent away emptie." Very liberal, too, is the provision for political discussion:

"12. Every man whether Inhabitant or fforreiner, free or not free, shall have libertie to come to any publique Court, Councel, or Towne meeting, and either by speech or writeing to move any lawfull, seasonable, and materiall question, or to present any necessary motion, complaint, petition, Bill or information, whereof that meeting hath proper cognizance, so it be done in convenient time, due order, and respective manner."

It is a little strange that with the profusion of capital letters that characterizes this code as well as the other writings of the day, the name of the Deity should be begun with a small "g." In the code of 1660 the usual spelling is employed, and religious matters receive much more attention. It is plain that clericalism was showing its cloven foot, and a mean and meddlesome spirit appears in these laws that was wholly absent from the earlier code. Everything that the ruling caste disliked was denounced as tending to the dishonor of God, and numberless minute and exasperating regulations were introduced and sanctioned by savage punishments, to the confusion of all who were disposed to indulge in damnable or blasphemous heresies or to behave themselves contemptuously towards the "messengers of God's word." To the growth of the clerical influence, no doubt, was due the creation of two new capital crimes—that of being a stubborn son and that of cursing or smiting a parent. But the characteristics of this period have been abundantly proclaimed in modern days, and we content ourselves with calling attention to the conspicuous difference in the spirit of the two codes as a proof of the speed with which the possession of arbitrary power corrupts rulers.

Almost equally striking is the development of legal procedure that had taken place within these twenty years. The earlier code, although evidently drawn up or revised by lawyers, prohibited the employment of paid attorneys. That of 1660, on the other hand, discouraged suitors from obtaining advice from magistrates, and testifies, by the technicality and precision of the system of practice which it contains, to the existence of an organized legal profession. This and certain other features are conclusive proofs of an extremely rapid growth of wealth and commerce, and indeed produce the opinion in the mind of the professional reader that the times were not altogether so primitive as we are apt to suppose. Certainly the system of jurisprudence is suitable to an advanced and complicated civilization. The volume is perhaps of especial interest to few but lawyers; but all who recognize the importance of the history of Massachusetts will be glad that these records have been made permanently accessible.

Korean Tales. By H. N. Allen, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It is astonishing how little is yet known about Corea. Despite the fact that her people claim a civilization nearly as old as China, and see in Kishi, the ancestor of Confucius, the founder of their social order, she is less known than any other of the nations in the Chinese Asiatic family. She has furnished a large contingent of population to the Japanese archipelago, besides being the medium through which the civilization of China reached the island empire. Though over and over invaded by both Japanese and Chinese armies, and visited constantly by people from either country, there are, in the voluminous literature of these neighbor nations, surprisingly few books about the Land of Morning Calm. Western nations until the sixteenth century scarcely knew of her existence, despite the fact that the Arabs traded with the far-off peninsulars. Even when Japan was being so well advertised in Europe in the sixteenth century, and Japanese armies, during this same period, were overrunning Corea, her name, except among the Portuguese, was next to unknown in the West. While a very respectable library of books about Japan, during the period from 1539 to 1637, was formed in the languages and libraries of southern Europe, and in Holland and the North from 1630 to 1853, Corea, except in the narrative of Hamel, was a strange name, suggesting ignorance on the one continent and hermit-like isolation on the other. When Japan was reopened in 1853, her people and country were not unknown to Europe; whereas, even when Corea signed treaties with the United States and Europe in 1883 and later, there was no body of knowledge either to stimulate or to satisfy curiosity. Still more remarkable does it seem to us that, despite the number of merchants and missionaries, travellers and newspaper correspondents, who have entered or traversed the peninsula, an interested seeker after knowledge can, with the severest industry, glean only pitiful fragments of knowledge.

Dr. Henry N. Allen, the foreign secretary of the Corean legation in Washington, tells us in his preface that American curiosity to know about our Western or ultra-Oriental neighbors is very great. Notwithstanding four years' residence in the capital Séoul, and a few journeys into the interior, he has denied himself the pleasure or the labor of writing a book of observations, and instead gives us specimens of folk-lore. He is the first, probably, to translate them into English, though in the appendix to the 'Grammaire Coréenne' of the French missionaries may be found about two dozen Corean folk-tales literally translated into French, without comment or embellishment. Many will regret, with us, that Dr. Allen has not made his collection more comprehensive. Corean folk-tales are especially interesting as showing the peculiarities of the variations in the peninsula of the root-stocks common to the nations of Chinese Asia, and especially China and Japan. Of the seven here collected, "The Rabbit," "The Trials of Two Heavenly Lovers," "The Swallow King's Rewards," are distinctly variations only of the well-known favorites told for centuries on the *kangs* of China and by the *hibachi* of Japan. Two of the tales, "The Faithful Dancing-Girl Wife" and the "Dutiful Daughter," illustrate the political and social life of the hermit nation, while that of "The Adventures of an Abused Boy" reminds us of Japanese counterparts from fairy land. These seven 'Korean Tales' will take the reader into the thought of the people more swiftly and easily than books written about the white-robed people who live under their big hats and smoke such anomalously long pipes.

Indeed, the only fault we have to find with Dr. Allen's work—yet a serious one—is that he has not confined his remarks and general information, valuable and delightful in its place, to the two introductory chapters. Folk-lore ought always to be translated with as little foreign coloring, interpolation, or disturbing element as possible. In his renderings and presentation in English, however, we fear the transfuser of Corean thought has been too benevolently mindful of those Washingtonian inquirers who thought Corea was an island in the Pacific, or could be reached from Europe, in A. D. 1889, by railway. It would have been better, also, to have left out some of the pronounced Americanisms, which do not add to the value of an otherwise excellent book, for which we must be grateful. Nor ought the term "coolies" to be applied to free Asiatics who have no Hindu caste in their system. In further attempts to let the Coreans speak for themselves, the translator will render science, literature, and the reading public greater service than even in his present essay, by more rigid adherence to the native texts. Like the printer, the alien folk-lorist should "follow copy."

A Treatise on Linear Differential Equations. By Thomas Craig, Associate Professor in the Johns Hopkins University. John Wiley & Sons. 1889.

This book should mark, if not make, an epoch in the history of mathematical study in America. If we except Peirce's 'Analytic Mechanics,' published thirty years ago, it is the first special treatise on any of the subjects now recognized as belonging to advanced mathematics that has appeared in this country. And advanced enough it surely is. It assumes on the part of the reader a knowledge of the theory of functions of an imaginary variable which, though not extensive, cannot be derived from any book in the English language, and can only be acquired at a few of our leading universities, or by the study of French or German text-books. Having acquired this preliminary knowledge, which, after all, is neither difficult nor abstruse, the student of mathematical tastes will find in Professor Craig's book all the precision and clearness of the practised teacher. We earnestly hope that the instructors in our leading colleges will find it helpful in redeeming our country from the reproach of being, among enlightened ones, that in which there are fewest students of modern mathematics.

One word ought to be said in appreciation of the publishers who have been willing, at their own expense, to bring out a work of which the returns can never be expected to balance the outlay. In this respect the Messrs. Wiley have continued a policy which they inaugurated in the case of several other works of an advanced character which bear their imprint, and for which they are justly entitled to the thanks of all our students of advanced mathematics.

John Bachman, D.D., LL.D., Ph.D., the Pastor of St. John's Lutheran Church, Charleston. Charleston, S. C.: Walker, Evans & Cogswell Co.

It is only to a very limited circle that this biography makes its appeal. The relatives and friends of Dr. Bachman will, no doubt, value the record of a long and busy life, endeared to them by many kindly traits; and though he died in 1874, there must still be a good many who knew him as their pastor in Charleston who will prize this affectionate tribute to his worth and think it well deserved. The grandson who collected the material for the biography did not live to write it. We should have had from him a more rhetorical and effusive piece of work than this, but, judging from certain fragments, a less agreeable performance, though this has no literary merit, and the intrinsic interest of the subject-matter is not so great as to make us indifferent to the form. There was about as much excuse for writing Dr. Bachman's biography as there is for writing the biography of any clergyman who has pursued his vocation with perfunctory faithfulness, in connection with an avocation which he has thoroughly enjoyed. In Dr. Bachman's vocation there was so little that

was in any way remarkable that the account of this could easily have been compressed into a dozen pages. His ministry was successful in attracting a large congregation, in its encouragement of several young men to enter the Lutheran ministry, and in winning the warm affection of his flock. That a defence of Luther against Roman Catholic aspersions could have been its most brilliant episode, only shows how flat its general level was.

Dr. Bachman's avocation was natural history, on the lines of botany and zoölogy. Ornithology especially attracted him. A list of his publications, given in an appendix, is remarkable for the proportion of scientific to religious matter. Of twenty titles, fifteen are scientific. There is but one sermon—that, happily, against duelling—the only evidence of Dr. Bachman's divergence from the social standards of the community in which he lived. Of his scientific works, the most important was an account in three volumes of the quadrupeds of North America, for which he furnished the text and Audubon the illustrations. His relation to Audubon was, for the reader, the most interesting personal relation of his life. Two of his daughters married Audubon's sons, but died after a brief period. Many of his letters to Audubon are given. They are full of animal spirits, but have more of the boisterous enthusiasm of the amateur than of scientific steadiness and calm. To at least one scientific question—the unity of the human race—he brought a purely theological disposition. He was as firmly convinced as Hugh Miller that the Bible is the final standard by which all scientific statements must be judged; and his conclusions have the value that belongs to such an order of ideas. The judgment of some competent zoölogist and botanist upon his studies and results would have been a valuable addition to the book.

The fact that Dr. Bachman was a resident of Charleston in the stirring times of nullification and secession might lead the reader to expect some interesting disclosures of the inner life of the rebellious little city. But he will find only the most casual mention of those great events. Dr. Bachman, we are told, was "a pronounced Unionist" in the nullification days. But he would not "disgrace his pulpit by preaching a political sermon" when a Fast Day was ordered by the Governor and the other pulpits rang with nullification sermons. He read the Sermon on the Mount! After such an evasion we are not surprised, in December, 1860, when South Carolina passed the Ordinance of Secession, to find him in the Convention, asking the blessing of heaven on the act. Just before, he had preached a sermon on "The Duty of a Christian to his Country," in which "he avoided the questions of the day as much as possible." The doctrine of secession now met with his approval, and there is no sign that slavery ever gave him any trouble. His father had been a slaveholder in New York, and he had carried one of his slaves to Charleston in 1815. When Columbia was burned by our troops in 1865, Dr. Bachman was in the vicinity, and was roughly handled. It was perhaps fortunate for his gray hairs that he was not identified as Chaplain of the Secession Convention. It was a sad wreck of his former congregation that he drew together when the war was over and slavery and secession were as extinct as any of his fossil species of an immemorial past.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. H. D. Witch, Warlock, and Magician: Historical Sketches of Magic and Witchcraft in England and Scotland. J. W. Bouton.
Alcott, Louisa M. Lulu's Library. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
A Reply to Dr. Lightfoot's Essays. By the Author of 'Supernatural Religion.' Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Ayres, Anne. The Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg, D.D. 4th ed. Thomas Whittaker. $2.
Bagehot, W. A Plan for Assimilating the English and American Money, as a Step towards a Universal Money. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Ballantyne, R. M. Blown to Bits; or, the Lonely Man of Rakata: A Tale of the Malay Archipelago. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Ballou, M. M. The New Eldorado: A Summer Journey to Alaska. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bancroft, G. Martin Van Buren to the End of his Career. Harper & Bros.
Barr, Amelia E. Feet of Clay. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Begy, J. A. Practical Handbook of Toilet Preparations and their Uses. Wm. L. Allison.
Beruthsen, Dr. A. A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry. D. Van Nostrand & Co.
Bertron, Mrs. Otilie. Review of Col. R. G. Ingersoll's Attacks upon Christianity. Philadelphia: The Author. 25 cents.
Bilgram, H. Involuntary Idleness: An Exposition of the Cause of the Discrepancy existing between the Supply and the Demand for Labor and its Products. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Bowie, Dr. A. Harvey on the Circulation of the Blood. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Brinton, Dr. D. G., and Anthony, Rev. A. S. A Lenape-English Dictionary. Philadelphia: Historical Society of Pennsylvania. $3.
Burt, Mary E. Literary Landmarks: A Guide to Good Reading for Young People, and Teachers' Assistant. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Campbell, J. A. Unto the Uttermost. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.25.
Carette, Madame. Recollections of the Court of the Tuileries. D. Appleton & Co.
Catherwood, Mary H. The Romance of Dollard. The Century Co. $1.25.
Chambers, G. F. A Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. 4th ed. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Cheney, Ednah D. Louisa May Alcott: Her Life, Letters and Journals. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Coffin, C. C. Redeeming the Republic. The Third Period in the War of the Rebellion in the Year 1864. Harper & Bros.
Cooley, Judge T. M., and Others. Lectures on the Constitutional History of the United States, as Seen in the Development of American Law. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Coolidge, Susan. A Few More Verses. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Coolidge, Susan. Just Sixteen. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Crowninshield, Mary B. Plucky Smalls: His Story. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Curtis, G. T. Constitutional History of the United States, from their Declaration of Independence to the Close of their Civil War. New ed. in 2 vols. Vol. I. Harper & Bros. $2.
Darling, Flora. A Social Diplomat. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Ditz, H. P. Dunleath Abbey; or, the Fatal Inheritance. G. W. Dillingham.
Dumas, A. Marguerite de Valois. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Edwards, H. S. Two Runaways, and Other Stories. The Century Co. $1.50.
Ferguson, Kate L. Cliquot. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Foster, Prof. M. A Text-Book of Physiology. 5th ed., revised. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.
Gilman, B. The Kingdom of Coins. Boston: Roberts Bros. 60 cents.
Grandma's Rhymes and Chimes for Children. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Grier, J. A. Our Silver Coinage. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Harris, J. C. Daddy Jake, the Runaway; and Other Stories. The Century Co. $1.50.
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Jewett, Rev. E. H. Diabology: The Person and Kingdom of Satan. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Kapp, G. Alternate-Current Machinery. D. Van Nostrand & Co. 50 cents.
Lang, A. The Blue Fairy Book. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Littell's Living Age. Volume 182. July-Sept., 1889. Boston: Littell & Co.
Literary Gems. 6 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
Lloyd, Mary. Ad Lucem. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Marbourg, Dolores. "I Will Ne'er Consent." A Novel. Robert Belford.
Mills, Prof. W. A Text-Book of Animal Physiology. D. Appleton & Co.
Mitchell, D. G. Dream Life: A Fable of the Seasons. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Mitchell, D. G. Reveries of a Bachelor; or, A Book of the Heart. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
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Rathborne, St. G. Paddling in Florida; or, the Canoe Cruisers of the Gulf. G. W. Dillingham.
Robinson, Harriet H. The New Pandora: A Drama. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Robertson, J. L. Burns: Selected Poems. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Roe, E. R. Dr. Caldwell; or, The Trail of the Serpent. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Sargent, Prof. C. S. Scientific Papers of Asa Gray. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Selections from the Poetic and Prose Writings of Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, Emerson, Holmes, and (Prose) Hawthorne. 5 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Shakspere's Cymbeline. With introduction and notes. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Smith, Jeannie Oliver. Day Lilies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Stedman—Hutchinson. Library of American Literature. Vol. 9. 1861–1883. Charles L. Webster & Co. $3.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. xx. Forrest—Garner. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stockton, F. R. Personally Conducted. Illustrated. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Tennyson, Lord. Interludes, Lyrics, and Idyls. From his Poetic and Dramatic Works. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
The *Atlantic* Index. 1857–1888. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
The Lost Dispatch. Galesburg (Ill.) Printing and Publishing Co. $1.
"The Quiet Life." Certain Verses by Various Hands. Drawings by E. A. Abbey and A. Parsons. Harper & Bros.
Thoreau, H. D. Walden. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Tissandier, G. The Eiffel Tower: A Description of the Monument, its Construction, its Machinery, its Object, and its Utility. Illustrated. Bromfield & Co.
Verne, J. Le Tour du Monde en quatre-vingts jours. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Wachenhusen, H. The Golgotha of the Heart. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
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Warren, S. Ten Thousand A-Year. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.50.
Waters, Henry F. An Examination of the English Ancestry of George Washington, setting forth the Evidence to connect him with the Washingtons of Sulgrave and Brington. Boston: N. E. Historic-Genealogical Society. New York: David G. Francis.
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Watson, P. B. The Swedish Revolution under Gustavus Vasa. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.50.
Watts' Dictionary of Chemistry. Vols. I., II. Longmans, Green & Co. $14.50 each.
Weir, H. Our Cats and All about Them. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Wells, H. P. City Boys in the Woods, or a Trapping Venture in Maine. Harper & Bros.
Welsh—Edwards. Romance of Psalter and Hymnal: Authors and Composers. James Pott & Co.
Wentworth and Reed. Wentworth's Primary Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Wessely, I. E. Practical Dictionary in Four Languages—French, Italian, German. 4 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
What One Can Do with a Chafing-Dish: A Guide for Amateur Cooks. John Ireland.
White, Dr. W. H. Text-book of General Therapeutics. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Whittaker, T. Jacob and Japheth: Bible-Growth and Religion from Abraham to Daniel. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Wiggs, Anna O. Kathie: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Wilson, Prof. W. D. American Church Law, Considered in Relation to the Law of the Church of England and the Administration of the Civil Law in the United States. James Pott & Co.
Woods, Kate T. The Wooing of Grandmother Grey. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Woods, Mrs. K. T. A Fair Maid of Marblehead. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Wordsworth, Rev. J. Nouum Testamentum Domini Nostri Iesu Christi latine secundum editionem Sancti Hieronymi. Part I. Gospel according to Matthew. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Wordsworth, W. Select Poems. Edited, with notes, by W. J. Rolfe. Harper & Bros.
Wright, Henrietta C. Children's Stories in English Literature. Charles Scribner's Sons.
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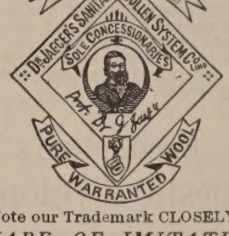

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 24, 1889.

The Week.

By appointing Carroll E. Smith, editor of the Syracuse *Journal*, Postmaster of Syracuse, President Harrison has increased the number of New York editors whom he has subsidized with important public office to six, and the journals which have been muzzled thereby are the New York *Tribune*, the New York *Press*, the Utica *Herald*, the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser*, the Owego *Times*, and the Syracuse *Journal*. The only member of this list that has objected to the charge of being muzzled is the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser*, which declared, with much indignation, that the assertion that its conduct as a newspaper had been affected by the appointment of its managing editor as Collector of the Port, was "ridiculous and insulting." Yet we notice that this very paper is effusively warm in approving Mr. Smith's appointment, saying that it is "one of the very best that the Administration has made in the State of New York," and giving this reason for thinking so: "Mr. Smith has rendered long, faithful service as a hard worker in the Republican ranks, and as the editor of one of the most influential journals in the service of the party. *He has always been ready to do the bidding of the Republican party*, and has done so promptly, courageously, efficiently, and unselfishly." Could an editor who *was* muzzled by office write a more servile defence than that of a purely partisan appointment, after a purely partisan removal, by a President who had solemnly pledged himself to consider "fitness and not party service" in making appointments, and to make no removals save "in the interest of the public service"?

Among the things which Mr. Smith has done at the "bidding of the Republican party" has been the writing of its platforms for several years. He was the author of the strong civil-service-reform planks of 1885 and 1887, in which a demand was made for the "enforcement of the civil-service laws of the State and nation by all officials, not only in the letter, but also in the spirit." Yet when he attended "Tom" Platt's Convention last month, he did not scruple to turn his back upon these emphatic and specific utterances, and to write the meaningless demand of the platform for the "purification and elevation of the civil service." He is now purifying and elevating it in person by taking in it a public office as a reward for his own partisan services; for his Buffalo contemporary expressly states that it is in return for these, and not because of his fitness for it, that the position has been conferred upon him.

The appointment of Gen. Green B. Raum as Commissioner of Pensions is a much better one than had been anticipated, in view of the sort of men who have been most talked about for the place. He does not go in as the representative of the Grand Army machine, but as a man who, in the Internal Revenue Bureau years ago, showed himself a capable executive officer. The careful Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* says of him: "He is not only an able lawyer, but a man of excellent judgment and wide experience in the administration of public affairs. He is one of that class of men who don't believe that sentiment should be indulged when it runs counter to law. He is also one of those men who have the capacity to do their own thinking, the industry to perform their own work, the courage to adhere to their convictions, and the persistency to carry them out. There is one class of enterprising citizens with whom Gen. Raum will not be popular, namely, the pension agents, particularly those who have heretofore been potential at the Pension Office. These gentlemen will find that Raum will be Commissioner for the Government and General Agent for the soldiers, and that everything will be done in accordance with the letter and spirit of the law." If Gen. Raum lives up to these promises, he will rescue the Pension Office from the demoralization into which President Harrison threw it last March by the appointment of Tanner. As for Tanner himself, it may be hoped that we have now heard the last of him and his tiresome mouth, from which issued on Sunday two columns and a half of words.

In the recent silver-ore decision, after many months of deliberation, Secretary Windom puts the ruling solely on this ground: "Upon examination I find that the decisions and practice of this Department have been uniform for a number of years." Certainly they have been. But why did you not apply the same rule in the worsted controversy, where you overthrew a "uniform" practice of nearly half a century? The explanation is, that you thought Cleveland's defeat and a Republican House a mandate to rerate pensions and customs-taxes as the beneficiaries asked. But you have discovered that the country will not tolerate the doings of Tanner and Tichenor.

Secretary Noble has given out for publication the text of his first official letter to Tanner, and we trust that he will follow it with such others as he may have. It gives the public a chance to see what Tanner's policy really was, and the revelation is very instructive. Tanner had boldly asserted that he was the Secretary's superior officer, and had marked the letter in which he took this remarkable ground "Unofficial." Mr. Noble declined to treat it in that light, declaring it to be official, and answering it in an official and authoritative manner. He naturally had little difficulty in overthrowing Tanner's claim to official superiority, and, after doing that, he took up the merits and consequences of some of Tanner's official acts. This part of his letter is very interesting. It gives the first complete list of the clerks in Tanner's Bureau who had their pensions rerated. There were ten of these, and they received altogether in back pay $16,735. The Secretary goes over some of the cases, pronounces the reratings of them to be "wholly illegal and unwarranted," and treats them as representative of the whole.

No less interesting is the part of Secretary Noble's letter which refers to the financial consequences of Tanner's course. He says:

> "It may be that this Government is strong and great, and has at its command a surplus that no other nation has ever had; but if sums of money to the amounts above mentioned may be granted without any further consideration of fact or law than seems to have been given in these cases, it will depend solely upon a single officer's disposition whether the resources of the Government shall be sufficient for its maintenance or not. There are more than enough of these applications already in the field and increasing daily to exhaust indeed the surplus, of which so much has been said in connection with this matter, and I am informed that the applications for reratings are greatly on the increase, and now reach the amount of from seven to eight thousand a week."

President Harrison is the man who ought to take that sermon to heart. He, and not Tanner, is the man who is responsible for the extraordinary situation therein described, and he is likely to be the chief victim of it, for the seven or eight thousand veterans who have been petitioning each week for a rerating of their pensions will blame him, and not Tanner, when their petitions are denied.

It is curious and interesting, as a psychological study, to see how closely Mr. Halstead of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* follows the lines of the London *Times* in the Pigott affair in apologizing for the credence he gave to the Campbell forgeries. He towers far above the London *Times* in the manliness and promptness of his apology, but he maintains, as Mr. Macdonald maintained, first, that it was not unnatural he should think the document genuine, because it was just such a document as a man like Campbell might have been expected to sign; secondly, that the offence the signature seemed to prove was just the kind of offence Campbell's party are constantly committing; thirdly, that Campbell must bear part of the blame for not exposing the forgery sooner, just as Parnell was to blame for not bringing an action in a court of law, thus wickedly leading the *Times* to suppose that he had no defence; fourthly, that the forgery is really of no consequence, and leaves the main controversy just as it stood before. In the Parnell case, there was an additional plea, that as Pigott, the forger, was also an Irish Nationalist, his offence should really be charged against the Parnellites as that of one of their own fra-

ternity. So, also, it may come out that the author of the Cincinnati forgeries was an unusually wicked Democrat, and Campbell must be considered a quasi-confederate of his, and morally responsible for him.

The growing prosperity of the South, and the confidence felt by capital in the permanence of that prosperity, are illustrated by the recent success of Gov. Seay of Alabama in placing an issue of new bonds. During the period of carpet-bag rule there were issued in 1873 small bonds to the amount of $1,000,000, which bore 8 per cent. interest and were receivable for State and county taxes, and yet stood at about 30 per cent. below par. Soon after the political overturning and the inauguration of a Democratic Governor in 1874, these bonds began to rise, and before long stood above par. A few years later the Governor was authorized to substitute for them 6 per cent. bonds, and such of these as were not taken in exchange by the holders of the old eights were sold at a premium of 2 per cent. The 6 per cents were retirable at the option of the State after ten years, and, that period having expired, the last Legislature authorized the issue in their stead of 4 per cents, which the Governor has recently placed at a premium of more than 1 per cent. The reduction in interest charge has aided in a reduction of the State tax within a few years from six mills to four, and the financial condition of the State is now in every way most encouraging. And yet Alabama is one of the States which some people have been trying to persuade Congress were so poor that they could not support their own schools.

No more encouraging statement of the progress of popular education in the South has appeared for a long time than an article by Col. James H. Rice, State Superintendent of Education for South Carolina, published in a recent issue of the *South Atlantic*. He says that "there is a more general interest among the people on the subject of common schools than at any previous period," as shown by the erection of modern and costly school-houses in all the chief towns, and the daily improvement of the schools throughout the country districts, where also schoolhouses of modern make are being built. The last Legislature took two steps of great importance to the development of the system, in the appointment of a Committee on Common Schools, and the passage of a bill providing for local taxation for schools to supplement the State fund. "The situation, as I see it," says the Superintendent, "is encouraging in every aspect." Although there is still great ignorance and much poverty, "the State and its communities are on the rising tide," and "our people in the country need and demand at least six-months' terms." The best feature of this statement is the fact that from first to last there is no suggestion of any need for depending upon others to secure the improvements still needed. "The people have at last discovered that they must help themselves," says Superintendent Rice, and he closes with this appeal: "Let the next Legislature provide for and insist upon a six-months' term throughout the State." The ill-informed theorists at the North who are still insisting that the Southern people are unable to support good school systems, should learn something from such a presentation of the facts in the State where the difficulties to overcome were the greatest.

Mr. N. J. Bachelder, the Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration of New Hampshire, has sent out (under date October 14) a preliminary list of abandoned farms in that State which shows a condition of things closely resembling that of Vermont. The list embraces 115 farms. "These," says the circular, "are unoccupied farms, and have been reported by the Selectmen of the various towns to have fairly comfortable buildings. They comprise but a small part of the abandoned farms of the State." He adds—and this is an important matter—that "in most instances these farms have not been abandoned because the soil has become exhausted, or from a lack of natural fertility, but from various causes appearing in the social and economic history of the State, which will be more fully discussed hereafter." The Commissioner's discussion cannot fail to be interesting. We hope he will show what effect, if any, the tariff legislation of the country has had on farming in New Hampshire during the past quarter of a century; for if it has not had any effect, it has come lamentably short of its promises. If it has had any effect, we should like to know what it is. Meanwhile, we commend again to Mr. Henry George's followers the rare opportunity offered to them to acquire land and "fairly comfortable buildings" on the easiest terms.

In last week's issue of the *Standard*, Mr. Henry George answers the charge of plagiarism recently preferred against him in the *Twentieth Century*. The substance of the charge was, that all the leading and essential ideas of his 'Progress and Poverty' were published in the year 1850 in a book written by Patrick Edward Dove, entitled 'The Theory of Human Progression.' Mr. George says that he never saw Mr. Dove's book until three years after his own was published, that the two books are different in character and scope, that Herbert Spencer's 'Social Statics' bears a closer resemblance to Mr. Dove's book than his own does, but that Mr. Spencer's was published in the form of separate essays before Mr. Dove's, and finally that all of them are antedated by a work of Prof. William Ogilvie of King's College, Aberdeen, published in 1782, in which the single tax was advocated on the ground of the inherent right of every human being to an equal share of property in land. Even Ogilvie was preceded by one Thomas Spence, who held and advocated, and published in 1775, the same doctrine. The substance of Mr. George's defence is that this idea has been floating around the world for centuries as common property, and therefore that no charge of plagiarism can rest against anybody for taking it up and dressing it anew. This is, indeed, the truth, but it will be a new truth to most of Mr. George's followers, and we fancy that few of them would accept it from anybody but himself.

One of the delegation of American mechanics which visited Europe the past summer in connection with the Paris Exhibition, writes to a contemporary that in visiting the "Ashbury" car-shops near Birmingham, he found that establishment engaged in filling a contract for 8,000 journal-boxes for the Pennsylvania Railroad. We think this must be a mistake. It is not possible that protection in the United States is thus being betrayed in the house of its special friends. A meeting of the Home Market Club ought to be called immediately and the subject prayerfully considered.

There is a state of things in Wall Street which might turn out to be extremely grave had not one of our esteemed morning contemporaries visited it with timely exposure. It appears that a certain banking-house, whose head is also Vice-President of the United States, has been lending money at 10 and even 15 per cent. to needy borrowers. The firm has been doing this indiscriminately instead of making out a select list of borrowers, as they might have done, and lending to them at 6 per cent. and letting the rest go begging, which would have been the proper thing to do in a tight money market. That the firm, or at all events other firms, would have followed the latter course but for the Vice-President's intervention, is made tolerably clear by the *Times*, which says that "the highest Federal official from this State is openly accused of tugging at the strings that tighten the purses of the lenders." Such conduct deprives our contemporary of the power of comment. It says:

> "We have no comment to make on such a policy, if he be really following it. Every shrewd man is apt to make the most of the current situation, which, with this country, is a terribly artificial one, but we feel for the *organs*."

These "organs" are not the same kind as those referred to by Sairy Gamp, when she described a man whose lamentations at the birth of his seventh heir were such that the neighborhood "thought his 'owls was horgans"; but we are reminded of that bit of history by the *Times's* editorial paragraph on the money market.

The members of the Ballot-Act League of Massachusetts, who are devoting themselves to the spreading of information concerning the requirements and working methods of the new ballot law, which is to have its first trial next month, say that they find great interest in the law in all parts of the State, and believe there is a determination among a great majority of the people that it shall have a fair trial. There are some indica-

tions that unscrupulous politicians are planning various kinds of evasions, and possibly are seeking to raise complications which may cause confusion and delay in its workings; but these are not at all formidable. There are also indications that the facilities afforded by the law for independent nominations will be used to a considerable extent, chiefly for nominations to the Legislature. Inquiries have come from all parts of the State as to the meaning of certain parts of the law, and as to the best way to help forward its successful use on election day. These are signs of popular interest which are most encouraging for complete success when the trial is made.

The democratic spirit which rates a man according to his ability, instead of the length of his father's purse, has always been strong in American colleges, and it has been a common thing for a poor youth to carry off the highest honor which his classmates have to award in competition with a rival who had all the advantages which wealth and powerful connections can give. Of late years there has been some apprehension lest the growing proportion of rich boys who go to college might develop something in the nature of an aristocracy of wealth, and poverty might prove to be an obstacle in such contests. The choice by the Harvard Seniors as class orator of a man who is not only so poor that he has had to work his own way through college, but who is also a negro and the son of a man who was a slave, indicates that the democratic spirit is still strong in the institution, and is an encouraging sign for the future of the University. Mr. Clement Garnett Morgan, the young man in question, has had a very honorable career in Cambridge, standing well in his class by hard exertion, and particularly excelling in declamation, for which he took the Boylston prize a year ago. His election as orator is said to have been received with very unusual enthusiasm.

The Episcopal Convention proceeds with its work, on the whole, placidly, and very moderately as to pace, though its remaining time is brief. On Monday the Lower House put aside decision of the "color-line" question by a vote so close as to call for a division (on the same day of the news that the Harvard Seniors had chosen a colored man to be class orator, and, more surprising still, that Yale had a colored man on the foot-ball team). The House of Bishops, by an emphatic vote, has struck out of the report of the Joint Committee on Liturgical Revision what has been called familiarly "the pause-rubric," which it was proposed to place immediately after the Prayer for the Church Militant (when the Communion Service was to follow), and which read as follows:

> "Here the Priest shall pause for a space in order that such as are so minded may withdraw."

This is of some importance to Episcopalians from its bearing on the dead-set which has been made of late against "non-communicating attendance," that is, persons remaining through the whole Communion Service who do not partake of the consecrated elements; a movement that has puzzled outsiders, who cannot understand why any solemn religious service should be thought to be not edifying. Apparently the Bishops have no sympathy with the new notion. On the other hand, the House of Deputies has differed with the Bishops on the question of a new rubric in the same Office, in these words: "There shall be no celebration of the Lord's Supper except there be some to communicate with the Priest." This is not surprising, since, so far as we have observed, nobody has pointed out how the Priest may be expected to know whether there be some to communicate with him or not. In fact, the rubric appears to be what we may call in appropriate language "the corrupt following" of the Church of England, which has a rubric substantially the same. But the Church of England provides means for the Priest's knowledge in a companion rubric as follows: "So many as shall intend to be partakers of the Holy Communion shall signify their names to the Curate, at least some time the day before." The two together completely cover the ground, but to impose the prohibition, without the provision, is apparently a *brutum fulmen*, as a reverend deputy entitled it in debate. The Memorials of Deceased Members indicate that the Convention's theology needs revision, since they translated the departed to "glory," to "the Church Triumphant," "to the family of the redeemed in heaven," "to a residence with God," etc., etc. We believe that even the Roman Catholic Church, with all the power of infallibility, never attempts to perform so much as this by mere memorial resolution.

The Convention, in some of its alterations of the Prayer-Book, is illustrating freshly the misfortune of allowing works of literature to be remodelled by a popular debating assembly. The fine deprecation of the Litany, for instance: "From lightning and tempest; from plague, pestilence, and famine; from battle and murder, and from sudden death," has been spoiled by prefixing "From fire and flood," and inserting "earthquake" before "lightning and tempest." This has ruined the delicate rhythm of the passage, to begin with, but, beyond that, the multiplication of particulars has lessened its significance and abased its dignity. The Convention seem not to perceive that the original form was only approximate, and therefore poetic and suggestive, and that by turning it into something like a catalogue they rob it of its beauty. So far as principle is concerned, they might as well go on, after either "flood" or "tempest," to deprecate wetness, chill, and dull skies. In liturgics the boundary between the sublime and the ridiculous is almost certain to be crossed in the descent to small things. Moreover, in this case, apart from all other considerations, the likeness between lightning and fire, and between flood and tempest, supplies sufficient argument against this unhappy innovation.

The trouble in the American Board of Foreign Missions, touching the refusal of the Board to send out missionaries who believe in a period of probation after death, came to a crisis on Thursday. A Committee of Fifteen was appointed last year to ascertain and report the opinions and feelings of the churches and theological seminaries indirectly on this matter, and it made its report on the 16th, but there was for practical purposes nothing in it. It had sent out 1,593 circulars, and had received only 570 answers, and only 325 favored any change in the present mode of constituting the Prudential Committee of the Board—the real bone of contention, as the malcontents who demand freedom in their intercourse with the heathen demand representation on it. The Committee contented itself with reporting the facts—the most significant of which was, that the largest contributors to the funds of the Board were among those who took no notice of the circular. The members expressed no opinions of their own. A motion to continue the Committee, with a view, we presume, of extracting opinions from it, led to some exciting speeches from the opposition before an eager and excited audience, but the party in power cut off debate by making no response whatever. One of the speakers, Dr. Griffis, brought out the fact that not a single Congregational minister in Boston could go abroad as a missionary under the Board, owing to the test of orthodoxy imposed by the Prudential Committee—which seems a curious state of things, and one which would certainly puzzle the heathen a good deal.

The Board closed the "incident," as the French would call it, on Thursday, amid more passionate protests from the malcontents, the voting strength still curiously enough remaining with the conservatives, who seem to treat the minority with what would be called in a secular meeting silent disdain. There are several features in the matter inexplicable to the outside world. One is the refusal of two-thirds of the churches and theological seminaries, and these the largest contributors to the funds, to express any opinion about the policy of the Prudential Committee towards the missionaries. Another is the firm belief of the malcontents, in spite of this fact, that the falling off in the income last year, compelling a draft of $82,000 on a legacy to meet current expenses, is due to the dissatisfaction of the churches with this policy. The third is the absence from the debates of any mention on either side of the morality of presenting to the heathen, whose spiritual welfare is the chief concern of the organization, as Christian doctrine, doctrine which is not held by the whole Christian world, or even by the whole of the denomination which the American Board represents. It must be the duty of somebody to be frank with the heathen about the doctrine of future probation. Whose duty is it? The point may be evaded with the African savages, but cannot be evaded with the acute and civilized Hindus and Japanese.

EDITORS, MUZZLED AND UNMUZZLED.

THE New York *Press*, whose editor was appointed by President Harrison Superintendent of the Census, has done the public a service in showing that any editor who is appointed to office must either "abandon or muzzle his paper." As it is the rule for such editors not to abandon their journals, it follows that those who continue in control must muzzle their papers. The reason why, from the very nature of the case, the editor who is appointed to office must muzzle his paper, was so clearly stated by the *Press*, in its comments on the removal of a Democratic editor from the Syracuse Post-office, that we reprint this judgment of an expert:

"If Northrup had not been the editor of a Democratic paper, it might be said that President Harrison could well have afforded to retain him for his full term, as President Cleveland retained the Republican whom he found in office. But, being the editor of a prominent Democratic paper, Mr. Northrup was responsible for the adverse criticisms which that paper passed upon the Administration. Every one can see the embarrassment of the situation. The Democratic editor ought to have either abandoned or muzzled his paper, or else resigned his post-office."

A close reader of the Republican newspapers of the country during the last few weeks has seen a striking illustration of the way that office-holding muzzles the editor, in the treatment by the muzzled and the unmuzzled of one of the most important matters now pending—the filling of the vacancy on the bench of the United States Supreme Court. It is well known that President Harrison desires to fill this place by the appointment of his old law partner, Attorney-General Miller. It is equally well known that the only thing which will deter him from "pleasing himself" in this matter is the presentation of evidence by the press of his party that such an abuse of power would be scandalous. The exigency demands the most earnest protests against the threatened wrong from every Republican editor who would save the nation from having the highest judicial honor bestowed upon a commonplace Indianapolis lawyer, simply because he happened to become the law partner of General Harrison many years ago.

There are Republican editors who see their duty and discharge it—editors who do not hold office and do not seek it. One such is the editor of the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, who says, regarding this matter:

"There is more than one jurist in the Republican ranks whose elevation would be received with universal approval, and whose name would be a tower of strength to the Administration. Such are not the men who are now most frequently mentioned in connection with the place. It ought to be, it probably is, unnecessary to remind the President that this office is not personal; that it is, in the highest sense, national; and that every citizen, and particularly those of the legal profession, has a right to criticise freely. In the light of history, duty demands a careful choosing on the ground of fitness alone. In the lower light of expediency, nothing will more greatly strengthen this Administration than the selection of Supreme Judges who are admitted by universal consent to be worthy of the honor."

Another such editor controls the Minneapolis *Journal*, and, in commenting on the recent report that the Attorney-General was preparing to make Washington his permanent home, the *Journal* said:

"If the Attorney-General proposes to make Washington his permanent home, what bearing does this have on the theory that the President intends to put him on the Supreme Bench? Unfortunately it seems to have a direct bearing, and to indicate that the President's law partner is to be assigned to the vacancy. The President will have no more important nominations to make during his term, and he is not likely to more seriously disappoint the people in any appointment he may make than he will in this instance if an obscure lawyer of Indianapolis, who would never have been heard of if he hadn't been Benjamin Harrison's business partner, is elevated to the Supreme Bench."

A third editor with a mind of his own is at the head of the Milwaukee *Sentinel*. "Should Not be Nominated" is the title of a vigorous leading article which recently appeared in the editorial columns of the *Sentinel*, and which says bluntly:

"There is one very good reason why Mr. Miller should not be nominated by President Harrison for this place. Whatever may be Mr. Miller's fitness, he is known to the country only as President Harrison's law partner. In no other aspect has he been viewed by the people outside of his own State. There was criticism of his appointment to a Cabinet office because, as far as the country could see, he would never have been thought of but for his partnership with Gen. Harrison. Whether it should be true or not that his nomination for the Supreme Bench was due to the President's high estimate of his qualities, the country would certainly, not knowing Mr. Miller's qualifications, take it for granted that the appointment was purely personal. While there might be nothing scandalous in the appointment, there is no doubt that it would tend to damage the Administration, and consequently the Republican party. We doubt if the President has made up his mind to nominate Mr. Miller. But in view of the growing belief that he has, it is time for the Republican press to express its views on the subject."

Of course, it is true that "it is time for the Republican press to express its views on the subject." But unfortunately a large proportion of the leading Republican newspapers cannot express their views, because such expression would involve "adverse criticisms upon the Administration," and it would be unseemly for an editor who is an office-holder under the Administration to make such criticisms, and exceedingly risky for an editor who is seeking office to indulge in them. The result is, that the editors of the chief Republican newspapers—like the New York *Tribune*, the Utica *Herald*, the Burlington (Vt.) *Free Press*, the *Iowa State Register*, and the Burlington (Ia.) *Hawkeye*—are silent upon this subject because they hold office already, while the editors of still others, like the Rochester *Democrat*, are equally silent because they are seeking office and must behave as discreetly as though they had already got it.

There may have been people who thought that the Attorney-General's namesake put it too strongly when he declared, in his inaugural address on the 4th of March, 1841, that "there is no part of the means placed in the hands of the Executive which might be used with greater effect, for unhallowed purposes, than the control of the public press," and affirmed that "golden shackles, by whomsoever or by whatever pretence imposed, are as fatal to the freedom of the press as the iron bonds of despotism." But a few months' experience of such "control of the public press" by the grandson of William Henry Harrison has demonstrated that the old soldier was entirely right. A journal which has itself furnished an office-holder confesses that the editor appointed to office must "muzzle his paper"; and what such muzzling means is apparent when one contrasts the outspoken deliverances of the unmuzzled editors of the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, Minneapolis *Journal*, and Milwaukee *Sentinel* with the silence of the office-holding and office-seeking editors in presence of this threatened judicial scandal.

THE LATIN AWAKENING.

M. LEROY-BEAULIEU has called attention, in an interesting article in the last *Économiste Français*, to the important political and social fact that the "Latin races," as they are rather absurdly called—that is, the people who speak languages derived from the Latin—are at last waking up from the lethargy of the last two centuries, and have again begun to emigrate. Ever since the tide of Spanish and Portuguese adventurers ceased to flow to South America and the West Indies, and of French adventurers to Canada, towards the close of the seventeenth century, the Latins have steadfastly clung to their homes, and left to the English the task and opportunity of filling up the vast empty spaces opened up to Europe by the discovery of America and Australasia. France is the only European Power which, during the past hundred years, has shown any uneasiness at the wonderful spectacle of Anglo-Saxon colonization. One of the first things to which the Bourbons addressed themselves when they got back their throne, was to found a colony in Algeria, for the purpose of starting once more the stream of French emigration. It failed almost completely, for reasons which we have no space to enumerate here. It has been demonstrated by fifty years of experiment that Frenchmen will not go abroad to French colonies if they can help it. It is indeed questionable whether France has had since the Revolution any population to spare for emigrating, even if the people had the emigrating spirit. During the last twenty years she has had even to draw heavily on Italy and Belgium to meet the demands for manual labor of her own agriculture and manufactures. Spaniards have practically ceased to emigrate for one hundred and fifty years, so have the Portuguese, while the Italians and Hungarians until now have never emigrated at all in modern times. The result has been that the peopling of all the vacant spaces of the earth to which the Germanic races did not take a fancy literally ceased nearly two centuries ago. South America has remained nearly stationary, while North America and Australasia have been rapidly filling up.

All this seems now likely to change. The conscription for the great continental armies, with the heavy taxation necessary for their maintenance, combined with the wonderful cheapening and quickening of travel and the increased knowledge of foreign countries diffused by the newspapers and by the growth of popular education, is apparently rousing the Latin races into an emigrating activity which promises, if it continues at the present rate, to make a great modification in the relations of the Old World

to the New, and it may be said to have first shown itself since 1880. In that year the whole Latin emigration to all countries was not over 80,000, and most of this went to Anglo-Saxon countries. Since 1885 this has been completely changed. Here are the returns for 1888:

LATIN RACES.	No. of emigrants.
Italy	207,795
France	23,339
Belgium	7,794
Spain	37,202
Portugal	17,518
Total	293,648

GERMAN AND BRITISH.	No. of emigrants.
Germany	98,515
United Kingdom	279,928
Total	378,443

Besides these there were 70,000 to 80,000 Scandinavians, and about 40,000 Austro-Hungarians and 8,000 Swiss. Now where did these go? Not, as in times past, almost all to North America and Australia. Here are the returns of immigration for 1888 to North and South America respectively:

SOUTH AMERICA.	No. of immigrants.
Argentine Republic	155,632
Brazil	131,837
Uruguay	17,407
	304,876

NORTH AMERICA.	No. of immigrants.
United States	525,019

In other words, the stream of immigration into South America is rapidly attaining the same proportions as that into North America. It is not unlikely to equal it between now and 1892. The rate at which the Italian emigration has grown since 1884 is very instructive on this point. It ran in this way: 1884, 59,459; 1885, 78,961; 1886, 87,423, 1887, 133,191; 1888, 207,795. The French within the same period has grown from 6,000 to 23,000, but it has really been larger, as there is a good deal of concealed emigration to escape conscription which finds no place in the Custom house returns. It is not likely to be large in our time, unless some fresh and overwhelming calamity should overtake the country.

The bearing of these figures on the work before the Pan-American Conference hardly needs to be pointed out. The tide of population which is now pouring into South America is settling on a soil even more fertile than our own, and under governments which in economical matters are more enlightened than ours. South American production and consumption are, therefore, likely to grow with extraordinary rapidity. The notion that by some hocus-pocus we can persuade such communities to carry on one-sided trade with us—that is, to buy from us without selling to us—might as well be abandoned at once. If we do not enter into natural business relations with them, either the ties which now bind them to Europe will be strengthened, or they will adopt our notion of being sufficient unto themselves and put up a Chinese wall in the shape of a high tariff. Of the latter we do not believe there is much risk. The former is certain if we persist in the ridiculous and puerile plan of trying to please them with subsidized mail steamers.

"THE GRAND ARMY."

THE sober-minded and self-respecting members of the "Grand Army of the Republic" are placed just now in a very awkward position. If they come out openly against the folly and absurdity of those who are speaking for them with regard to the Pension Office, they will inevitably have the air of reflecting on the patriotism and good sense of their comrades, and of depreciating the services rendered to the country during the war by the surviving veterans. On the other hand, to allow, without a word of protest or explanation, the assault of the pensioners on the Treasury to be carried out on the plan now in operation of treating service in the war as a pecuniary speculation, is to involve all members of the Grand Army, the real fighting men as well as the glib skulkers, in common obloquy and even disgrace. The alternative is a painful one, no doubt, but there are plenty of veterans who could well afford to meet it by stamping with reprobation the attitude towards the country and the Government taken up by Tanner and his followers. Silence is not always golden. There is a time to speak as well as to hold one's tongue, and it seems to the ordinary observer as if a real Grand Army man ought just now to be using his tongue pretty freely in defence of the soldiers of the late war.

Several things are occurring which should, we think, fill honorable men who served in the army from high motives with a good deal of honest shame, and which they should not witness in silence. One is the appearance on the scene, as their chief representative in making demands on national gratitude, of a noisy man in the person of Tanner, who does not appear ever to have distinguished himself on the field. He was, when wounded, a straggler, away from his regiment, and was lying down under an apple tree reading, in what was apparently a safe place, when a suddenly opened artillery fire took his legs off. He was mustered out of the service in one year after his enlistment, when only eighteen years old, and has since then in no way distinguished himself in civil life, except as a persistent office-seeker and voluble talker. It is not a reflection on him, however, to say that it seems to the rest of the world an extraordinary and somewhat humiliating circumstance that out of a million and a quarter of survivors of the war, there is nobody better than Tanner to state the claims of the veterans on the country. Surely there must be still extant among them some one who could champion their cause with better titles to public respect both as a man and as a soldier than his are.

Another thing which must be mortifying to the more self-respecting element of the Grand Army is the way in which the present controversy is stripping the soldiers who fought in the war of all poetic drapery in the eyes of the younger generation of Americans. Men over forty who saw the thin and ragged battalions which came back from the war, or visited the army in the field, know well that there is no buncombe in the stories of the suffering and self-sacrifice of those days; that the Union was really saved by the devotion of men who were ready to die for it or did die for it. But the younger men who are now rapidly coming into possession of the country and its affairs, who know nothing of the war but what their fathers have told them, are fast losing all their old and hallowed illusions about the motives which took the bulk of our troops to the field. "Veteran" is becoming in their eyes a synonym for "bummer" or "dead beat," and they begin to listen to the clamor for pensions very much as they listen to the arguments by which the street casual enforces his demand for a quarter on a cold night. It is getting to be difficult to make them believe that men went to the war in a glow of patriotic fervor, and not in the hope of filthy lucre. Any one who thinks this an exaggerated statement must remember that we have within a few months witnessed the appearance on the scene, on behalf of the veterans, of the argument that dishonorable discharge, no matter for what—cowardice, theft, drunkenness, or fraud—ought not to bar a man's claim to a pension; or in other words, that when the day comes for the nation to reward its saviors in cash, the scamp who was drummed out as a disgrace to the service ought to receive just the same consideration as the man who always stood fast in the fighting line, and was, both in battle and on the march, cheerful, obedient, faithful, and uncomplaining. Did any body of men ever before submit in silence to the operation on their own person and character of such a *reductio ad absurdum*?

The work of demolition, however, has gone even further than this. The views which some of the veterans and their friends are giving out as to the nature and object of military service in a free State, really give a *bouffe* air to the war and its results. The notion, for instance, that if the army saves a country, it ought to be allowed to treat the revenues thereof as the private property of the men; that laws regulating pensions ought not to be construed or administered like other revenue laws, but simply as general directions to spend liberally; that it is proper for an army, after being mustered out of the service, to form itself into a political party for the purpose of securing large dividends for the members out of the national exchequer—all these present a modern national army in an absolutely new light, and point to the old Italian plan of carrying on war by contract with a Boss fighter, agreeing to pay him a fixed sum for victory, and exacting large bonds as security against defeat or delay.

The crowning touch in this strange process of self-depreciation appears in the *Tribune* of Tuesday, in the shape of a letter from a Vermont clergyman, the Rev. E. J. Ranslow, a member of the Grand Army, which is endorsed by Gail Hamilton, Mr. Blaine's *alter ego*. He pleads the cause of the deserter in terms that would delight Offenbach:

> "A boy, accustomed to all the comforts of home, enlisted in an old regiment, April, 1864. In May he is pushed through the slaughter of the campaign that began at the Wilderness, and continued to the great surrender. Now patriotism and courage will endure a great deal, but not everything. While there seems to be a chance for life, men will stand up and be shot at. But when one battle follows another in quick succession, until there seems to be no chance at all for escape; when, in addition, the air is full of rumors of gross incompetence, and the story told and believed that men are being use-

lessly slaughtered by drunken and incompetent officers, is it strange that this lad, with certain death before him, as he verily believes, and a homesickness which has become acute nostalgia, should leave the field of Cold Harbor with the belief that he is justified in embracing the first opportunity to desert? For my own part I will remember the battles which he bravely fought, and defend him to the best of my ability against the sneers of those who never fought at all. It is a place for mercy to rejoice against judgment."

Of course no army organization could confine this privilege of deciding when he had fought enough to *one* "boy accustomed to all the comforts of home." Every "boy" in the field in the front of a determined enemy thinks the humblest home a wonderfully comfortable place. In all wars there are seasons of frequent reverses and great depression. At such times, too, the air is sure to be "full of rumors of gross incompetency," and the camps full of "homesickness and acute nostalgia." It is precisely for such seasons that military discipline was invented; that cowardice and desertion were first stamped with the deepest reprobation by all the conquering races of the world. The fate of great nations and of great causes depends, at such crises, on the spirit infused into the soldiers, not only by the fear of punishment, but by the expectations of people at home. No people which sent "boys" to the field with liberty to run away when the "homesickness" had developed into "acute nostalgia," has ever figured long in the pages of history or ever done much for the world. The reason is, we have said, that the right of one boy must be the right of all, and an army composed of nostalgic boys would, of course, dissolve after the first defeat, and leave the newspapers to repel the enemy. It is high time, we repeat, for our rational and manly veterans to speak out, if they mean to maintain the hold of the armies which saved the Union on the reverence and affection of coming generations

A WORD WITH SUBSCRIBERS TO THE FAIR FUND.

THE *World* suggests the following as a proper form for the subscription to the Guarantee Fund of the Exposition:

"We, the undersigned, severally subscribe to the Guarantee Fund of the World's Fair to be held in New York in 1892 the sums set opposite our respective signatures, and bind ourselves to pay the same or any part thereof upon demand of the Finance Committee, upon such terms and conditions as the Committee shall hereafter prescribe."

We suggest, however, as imperative the addition of the following clause:

"Provided, always, that the use of the Central Park, or any part thereof, for the purposes of Exposition, now forbidden by law, is not at present, and shall not hereafter form, part of the plan of the Committee."

It is hardly necessary to remind intending subscribers to the fund that the plan of taking an indeterminate portion of the Park has not been abandoned. The slow progress and uncertain results of the canvass of the property-holders outside the Park now going on make it extremely unlikely that the Committee will be provided with any site outside the Park in time for the meeting either of Congress or of the Legislature. Even if they knew exactly to-day what lots they could and what they could not get with the consent of the owners, and in what spots they would place their buildings and grounds, they would probably have, with regard to some portions of the ground, to go through a process of condemnation for public use which, if resisted, as it would be in the courts, would inevitably prove tedious. Consequently, they are by no means likely to have any clean-cut scheme ready to submit to Congress in competition with Chicago and other places, unless they offer the Central Park.

We fear that the temptation to do so, as the easiest way out of their difficulties, will be overwhelmingly strong, unless a check is put on them by the subscribers to the fund in the way we mention. We do not think it is hypercritical to say that no good citizen ought to be asked to sign any paper, under the existing resolutions of the Committee on Sites, without taking notice of the fact that the Committee's action, as it now stands on the record, is a proposal to commit an illegal act. A decent regard for public opinion and for the law of the land would have imposed on the Committee the duty of mentioning in their resolution the existence of the statute which now makes their plan with regard to the Central Park a misdemeanor punishable by fine or imprisonment. They ought, in these days when law needs so much respect and support, to have made their proposal expressly conditional on their ability to procure a repeal of the statute. Until this is done, their invitation to people to sign their paper is, in form, an invitation to enter into a "conspiracy to commit a crime," as defined by the Penal Code of this State—a most interesting little work. We grant that in one sense this is a small matter, but in another and a very important one it is a great matter. The total ignoring of the law by all the promoters of the Fair showed a state of mind about the Park which calls for increasing vigilance and caution on the part of its defenders. Any one who now signs any of their papers, without annexing to his name a qualification in behalf of the Park, may be sure that he is making himself in some degree a party to its destruction.

We say "destruction" because we have not the smallest doubt that the seizure of the whole of it is contemplated by the promoters of the Fair in a not unlikely contingency, and one which some of the most influential of them regard with favor, or at all events without dislike. Finding themselves on committees charged with high executive functions, their personal pride and credit, as is not unnatural, are enlisted in making the Fair a success, *coûte que coûte;* and they look on the Park very much as a warrior would who found it impeding his attack on an enemy's stronghold—a place to be cut and slashed as much as the occasion may require. This would be a deplorable state of mind on the part of leading New Yorkers, even if they were sure to confine themselves to their favorite slice, the part north of the Reservoir. A lovelier scene than this North Meadow is not to be found in America. The tens of thousands who use it in summer as a play-ground must all their lives long have memories of it such as no city in the world to-day, we venture to say, can supply to its young people. Any one who desires to cover its lawn with buildings and roads, and let loose on it vast crowds of sightseers to trample it out of recognition, and ruin its trees and shrubbery, which are the product of thirty years of care and labor, is not only "little to be envied," as Dr. Johnson said of the man who could "walk unmoved amid the ruins of Iona," but is "fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils," and especially "spoils."

One of the oddest things to us about the attack on the Park is the indifference it reveals in so many estimable and public-spirited men to the part the Park has played in sowing among us the seeds of civic pride—the lack of which has proved such a curse to the city. Our population is composed of so many heterogeneous elements, is divided by so many lines of race, language, religion, tradition, tastes, and sympathies, that common municipal interests and satisfactions have almost wholly died out among us. We have no public monuments but the Park, of which everybody is proud. There is nothing in our municipal government which excites affection or admiration, by which any young man's imagination can be fired or any old man's memory softened, except the Park. In fact, there is a great deal both in the personnel and the machinery of the government which makes us all hang our heads for shame. Into this municipal darkness the Central Park has brought light. It has proved a great public work in which every class of the population glories, an ornament which we can show to foreigners without apology or explanation. It has furnished reformers with hope and encouragement in working for other improvements—docks, pavements, and cleanliness—and even in working for better administration in every department. It has shown the possibility of carrying out municipal enterprises which need long periods of persistent attention and artistic oversight for their completion, and, in truth, the possibility of spending the money of a pure democracy, without let or hindrance, on things which commend themselves mainly by their beauty. In all these ways the Park has proved of great political as well as social and æsthetic value. In fact, it might be said, without exaggeration, to have laid the foundation among us of a real municipal life. To those who think in this way, of course, the plan of converting it into a huge, desolate Fair-ground in honor—of all men in the world—of Christopher Columbus, has something absolutely barbarous as well as absurd about it. It seems like the proposal of a Goth or a Vandal to use the pillars of the Pantheon to make lime.

COLLEGE LIFE FOR WOMEN.

THE subject of the life which women lead within college walls has lately been under discussion in the *Critic*. The question whether the common-household plan, which prevails with more or less modification in all the separate colleges for women, is better or worse than the plan of scattering students and teachers about in separate houses, is one that necessarily divides itself into two parts, which are

not kept sufficiently distinct in the *Critic's* discussion: better or worse, is it meant, from the point of view of the greatest well-being of the student or of the teacher? There is never any anterior reason for supposing that the interests of both parties in a relation will be met by one and the same arrangement. The larger question, whether the plan of educating men and women together is not best of all, is answered, for both student and teacher alike, by affirming that the only way to obtain the naturalness and the strong inspiration of real social life is for men and women who are engaged in like pursuits to associate together. The conventual or the monastic character of the arrangement begins with the establishment of separate colleges, and the question of how the women or the men shall be housed after the separation has been effected, is a question of secondary importance.

But in the present transition stage between the mediæval custom of seclusion and the free and natural common life which we may look forward to in the future, there is no doubt that the household plan has immense advantages for the woman student over anything that could possibly be substituted for it. Miss Wheeler's contention is, that it would be much better for young women if they resided in homes while taking their college course of study. The poetic enchantment with which the word home is invested is the source of a curious fallacy. An ideal home is an admirable place, but not every house in which a family lives is an ideal home. No one feels a general admiration for "people," but no sooner have "people" retired into "homes" than it is too frequently taken for granted that they are turned into ideal human beings. It may be sad, but it is nevertheless true, that a great many girls go to college, having received an accidental spark of life from some remoter ancestor, who come from families in which mercantile pursuits, fashions, and religion are absolutely the only subjects which ever occupy the minds of their members. The great transformation which a college course may effect upon such young women is immensely facilitated—brutal though it may seem to say so—by securing a complete separation between her and her family.

But even if the home life is all that could be desired, there are two simple reasons why it is often well for a girl to be removed from it. The principal causes why women often carry on their lives on a lower plane than they might attain to are the trivialness and the inordinate self-sacrifice to which they fall victims. Even the best of homes are too often full of petty worries and petty interests which render impossible the free, calm life which the college student ought to live. The sudden sweeping away of all the trivial details and the unavoidable annoyances which attend housekeeping on a small scale, and the plunge into the homogeneous intellectual atmosphere of the college family, is often the cause of a sudden change in the entire mental plane of a young person's life.

Again, no nice young girl is capable of resisting the claims of other members of the family upon her sympathy and her actual practical aid in the thousand and one events of the day, even if she is not assigned her regular share in the family burdens. That brilliant young Englishwoman, Emily Watson, who died a few years ago from overwork, arose at five o'clock in the morning to do her own studying, and spent *all* the hours of daylight in teaching her younger brothers and sisters. A distinguished German, writing on female education, says that girls, if educated at all, must be educated in the house, and not at regular schools, because it is absolutely necessary to the proper development of their characters that they should be where they can rise from their books at any moment to hand a glass of water to any member of the family who may need it. This view of the functions of women we have outlived in this country, at least in theory, but many women are still, in practice, of so self-sacrificing a temperament that they need to be artificially guarded against themselves. For them the proper conditions for healthful study can only be obtained by separation from the family.

But the question whether women who go to college had better live in their own homes or not, is not a question of very much practical importance. Those young women who have the double good fortune to live in an ideal home and to have a college of high standard come and establish itself at their doors, are quite sure not to fail to take advantage of their happy lot. But they are necessarily very few in number. Baltimore and New York are the only large cities in which colleges for women exist; and even in a large city something must be done with students who come from a distance. However great a value one may attribute to home life at its best, there is a naïveté in supposing that separate homes are found for the students when they are put into separate boarding-houses, which is very amusing. The ordinary unsupervised boarding-house is as dreary a place of residence as can well be imagined, and totally destructive of that gayety and spirit with which studying must be carried on if health is to be maintained at a high level. If there is nothing better to be had, college women will take the boarding-house and be thankful to get that; but if ideal conditions are to be aimed at, the common hall, spacious and light, peopled by those who have common aims and common hopes, is vastly to be preferred.

But the question assumes a very different aspect when it is the interests of the teacher that are concerned. For the student, college is merely a four-years' episode; the teacher must seek out such conditions as it is good to spend a lifetime in. The student is thrown into intimate association with her equals if the household plan prevails; the teacher is too closely pressed upon by her inferiors. The bad effect upon ministers of a forced association with the half-educated persons who usually form the greater portion of their parishes, has often been commented upon; but that would be incomparably worse if they had not the isolation of their own homes to fall back upon. The teacher needs the feeling of dignity and of independence that she can secure only if she carries on a separate household of her own, and there ought not to be any incompatibility between her salary and this plain requirement of her well-being.

How, then, can the needs of teachers and students both be satisfied? There is a third estate—intermediate in station between teachers and students—consisting of the fellows and the graduate students. If they resided with the college family, they would furnish the stimulus of contact with something better than themselves which undergraduates need, and the teachers might be freed from the chief irksomeness of their position. It is a fundamental principle of the science of ethology—that science of which Mill hoped to lay the bases, but which still awaits a founder—that character is far more readily influenced by that which is a little higher than itself than by that which seems to be beyond its reach. The teachers cannot but seem somewhat remote and hard of comprehension to the younger students; the fellows are far more capable of inspiring them with enthusiasm, and, as Prof. Cooke said at the last Harvard Commencement dinner, in an institution of learning we cannot prize too highly the ennobling virtue of enthusiasm. The liking for hard work and the entire absence of boyishness that have from the beginning characterized the students of the Johns Hopkins University, have always been attributed by the keen observer to the presence among them of a large body of fellows and graduate students. In women's colleges, a community of students of both grades, together with such teachers, perhaps, as had a special liking for and sympathy with the young, would form an ideally constituted society; and such of the teachers as had high scholarship or large contact with the world for their chief aim would be saved from a fatiguing contact with immature minds. There is no question of restraint for college women, of course, in any college which deserves the name; and a small sprinkling of better minds, together, it is to be understood, with frequent formal social contact with a larger intellectual circle, would suffice to leaven and to reform a large amount of immaturity.

SANTA CATALINA ISLAND—II.

PORTLAND, Ore., September, 1889.

THE most serious drawback to the delightful rambles on Catalina Island is that one always has to keep an eye on the possibility of running across a "rattler." The first evening of my two weeks' sojourn I was sitting on the hotel piazza drinking in the salubrious night air, when the conversation of a group of men attracted my attention. Two of them were representatives of an English syndicate who were trying to buy the Island, and have since succeeded, I believe, in bagging it for $600,000. The reason why one of these ubiquitous English syndicates (who seem to "want the earth" at present) coveted Catalina Island, is, according to the Los Angeles papers, to be found in the fact that it abounds in silver ore, which, though not rich enough to be worked in this country, where labor is so expensive, might be carried as ballast on vessels returning to England, and profitably reduced to metal there. The agents were interviewing a resident as to the advantages and disadvantages of the island, and one of them, *inter alia*, asked about snakes. "Not a snake on the island," was the answer. This was such curious and interesting information that I jotted it down in my notebook. Next morning after breakfast, I took a walk up one of the hills, and, just after passing a little wooden building, I came across a young Englishman in a white flannel suit who was cautiously prying along the road on both sides. "Lost anything?" I asked. "No," was the reply, "I am looking for rattlesnakes. Killed one a few days ago right here, and don't like them quite so near my house." He was greatly amused when I told him how his countrymen had been "stuffed" at the hotel on the preceding evening. "The island swarms with snakes," he said. "They have never been interfered with, and have been allowed to multiply for several centuries, until they have become as abundant as ground squirrels. Only the other day a party moved their tent away from a spot over on that hill because a snake family had established a previous claim on the neighborhood. However, you need not be afraid of walking along the cañon or up the grassy sides of the hills, for they avoid the grass and haunt only the naked rocky hillsides, exposed to the

full glare of the sun, where they can be easily seen."

I soon found that the simplest way to steer clear of rattlers is to hunt for them. I spent several hours looking for them in the most likely places, because I wanted to study the nature of the beast and get a few rattles, but not one did I see. There is no doubt, however, that they exist in large numbers, and the sooner they are exterminated the better for the future prospects of the island as an all-the-year-round health resort. However, it must be said that there are few instances of men having been killed by snakes in California, while the dreaded scorpions, centipedes, and tarantulas are hardly more dangerous than hornets. According to Dr. Weir Mitchell, who has made a special study of this subject, a rattlesnake bite in the extremities rarely causes death in this country, and he has known of nine dogs being bitten by as many different snakes, and but two died. He considers them a much maligned animal, and says they have always seemed to him averse to striking. This agrees with what the late T. S. Van Dyke says in his 'Southern California': "At least a dozen times I have either been about to step directly on one, or have stepped over it, or else have set my foot directly beside it. In no case have I been struck at by them, though I have made them strike very savagely at a stick." "Hunters take no precautions against them, and children run bare-legged through the bush everywhere without thinking of them." Still, the nervous might carry in their pocket some permanganate of potash, which Dr. Mitchell considers the most potent external antidote, that has saved many lives.

It might be worth while to introduce on Catalina Island some of the "road runners" so common on the mainland—a bird, looking somewhat like a large pheasant, which runs along the roads, seldom rises on its wings, and is said to live on snakes, lizards, centipedes, and similar delicacies, and is nevertheless pronounced a good gastronomic morsel by those who have the courage to eat it. It might also be good business policy to import a few of the Arizona cowboys, who, after making the rattlers strike, catch them by the tail and swing them like a whip till the head flies off. But cowboys are objectionable neighbors on other grounds, and it would be better, all things considered, to give the freedom of the village to a dozen pigs, who would soon make rattlers scarce about camp, and who might be allowed to run wild and clean out the whole island.

There would be a precedent for this in the wild goats which were turned loose by Vancouver on this and other Pacific islands, a hundred years ago, and which have now multiplied to thousands. These wild goats form one of the most characteristic attractions of Catalina. They are hunted on horseback, and are often seen in large herds, feeding along the hillsides. It is not very easy to get near enough for a shot, but still one or two are generally brought back as the result of a morning's ride; and the next day there is always "venison" with jelly on the hotel bill of fare. If it were a little more juicy and less insipid in taste (the young ones only are eaten), it might deserve that name. Barring an occasional hunt, these wild goats lead an ideal life, which the happiest mortal must envy them—no wild beasts to prey on them, and plenty of grass-grown hillsides to climb and browse upon. They are more fortunate than their cousins, the wild goats and half-wild sheep on the neighboring island of San Clemente, which, though almost as large as Catalina, is more barren, and is said to have no water at all except the heavy morning dews which the animals sip in with their breakfast of wild clover.

To those who find goat-hunting on horseback too arduous and risky a sport, Catalina offers a variety of entertainments in its bathing facilities and the rare opportunities for botanic, mineralogic, and archæologic research, besides fishing, watching the pelicans and flying-fish, and visiting the seal rocks. Bathing in the placid bay lacks the excitement given by plunges into foaming breakers, and it must be admitted that small pebbles do not make as agreeable a beach as sand. Yet those who can swim will enjoy a bath here as much as anywhere. There is a drawback in the thought that only sixty miles to the south, at San Diego, a young man, while in bathing, a few years ago, suddenly disappeared, being doubtless carried off by a shark. However, no shark has ever been known to eat more than one man at a time, so that if several go in together, each one has a fair chance of escape. Small sharks are occasionally seen in the bay of Avalon, but no accident has ever happened. Bathers are occasionally stung by a kind of animal called a stingaree, which causes a wound that must be cauterized, and is said to be almost as dangerous as a rattlesnake bite. But then we cannot expect to have everything arranged to suit us.

The charms of Catalina's flowers to lovers of beauty and botany I have already referred to, but I must not forget to mention that the thrill of delight on coming across the first Mariposa lily will mark an epoch in their experience. Amateur mineralogists may go prospecting for silver ore. In some places they will find patches of coal-black soil, besides igneous rocks in abundance, and other evidences of former volcanic agency. But the greatest treat awaits the archæologist, who may dig in the site of the graveyards, or the former village, part way up the main cañon, for Indian relics. The objects most frequently found are the pestles and mortars of various sizes, in which the squaws ground their grain and acorns, and strings of shells. These shells were used by the Indians as money, and Catalina Island was the place where most of them were found. The Yankee, who has succeeded the Indian at Avalon, still makes money out of these shells. There are a number of varieties strewn along the beach, but the largest and most beautiful is the abalone shell, the inner surface of which is often equal to the finest mother-of-pearl, while the outer surface can be made equally attractive by persistent polishing. The professional abalone hunters, who have their stores at Avalon and ship large quantities to the East, to be made into buttons, jealous of competition, will tell you unblushingly in spring that these animals are only caught in the winter; but after a low tide you may see them rowing in with a whole boat load of them. It is interesting to watch these men at work. One of them plies the oars, and the other has a long pole to stick into the unsuspecting abalone, which immediately shuts up shop and holds on so tightly to the pole that the man at the other end easily twists the shell off the rock and hauls it in; whereupon the search for another begins. The Californians seem to consider the abalone possibly useful as well as ornamental, for there is a tradition (probably manufactured by an ingenious Catalinian) that a Chinaman one day, while bathing, put his foot into a live pair of shells, and was held till miserably drowned by the returning tide. If this story becomes known at Sacramento, a law will probably be passed forbidding abalone fishing. Besides serving as a trap for Mongolians, the abalone has also a gastronomic use, for it makes the finest soup I have ever eaten—superior to the best terrapin.

Of the fish which abound here the best flavored are the large sardines, of which a whole boat-load is easily caught with one haul of the net. There are literally miles and millions of them along the coast, and it would doubtless be a profitable industry to can them, although the oil would have to be imported, for California olive oil is too much in demand and too expensive to be used for such a purpose. But there is a serious objection to these sardines—they spoil the fishing; for the large fish have their sardinian breakfast so handy that they refuse to bite unless tempted by a special delicacy, such as a piece of lobster. In April even this ruse often fails, for then the water is filled with spawn, and when a fish has spawn to eat, he turns up his nose even at lobster. To one solely intent on catching the fish, it must be most provoking to see hundreds of them, of all sizes, swimming about his tempting crawfish bait without paying any more attention to it than if it were a pebble.

But the lover of nature can here enjoy scenes which make him oblivious of the ignoble excitement of catching fish. Catalina Island has one of the most enchanting salt-water aquariums in the world. Row out into the ocean a few hundred yards, and you will get a glimpse of a submarine garden more wonderful than anything to be seen on shore. The water is calm and as clear as crystal, showing objects fifty or seventy feet below as distinctly as if you could touch them. Kelp, anemones and sea weeds, green, purple, and yellowish, and of various forms, wave about slowly in the current. Abalone shells cling to the rocks, and jelly fish float along, expanding and contracting rhythmically. The waving sea weeds are covered everywhere with a bluish mass looking like jelly. It is the spawn, the favorite food of the hundreds of fish in sight, whose life, swimming calmly to and fro, seems to be a perpetual picnic, like that of the goats on the green hillsides. But they have their enemies everywhere—in the water, in the air, and on shore. When the spawn is gone and the sardines have migrated, the fisherman and the tourist cast their hooks and pull in dozens in a morning; although once or twice an hour they are surprised by a twenty or thirty-pound monster who swallows the hook and simply walks away with it, heedless of the tiny line which seeks to hold him. The chief excitement of ocean fishing lies in this that one never knows what kind of fish one is going to land next. More than twenty varieties are caught here, including rock cod, sheepshead, whitefish, barracuda, mackerel, etc. The most fascinating of all is a bright red fish, which haunts the rocks, as beautiful as the Chinese gold fishes kept in glass globes, but very much larger. It is almost too beautiful to kill, but it has an ugly mouth, and is good to eat, so up it comes en route to the frying-pan.

The fisherman is the least formidable enemy of these fish. The pelican and the seal are wholesale butchers in comparison. The large pelicans, with their huge, ugly bills, with which they can scoop up a dozen sardines or smelts at one fell swoop, are very abundant at Catalina Island, but at the present rate of extermination by tourists they will soon be scarce. Their wing bones make good and novel pipe-stems, and their skin, with the soft white and gray feathers, is ornamental; and that settles their fate. They are very stupid birds, and slow, and not a bit afraid of human beings, which makes them easy victims. Tourists kill them from the beach or on boats, and, after skinning them, throw the carcass overboard, where it is immediately pounced upon and disputed by a dozen greedy gulls. The seals occasionally

visit Avalon Bay on their fishing excursions, ingeniously swimming a dozen abreast in a semicircle, and driving the fish before them till they are cornered. Sometimes the terrified fish, in their eager flight, jump on the beach, where they may be picked up alive. No one should fail to pay a visit to the seal rocks and see these creatures "at home." The rocks are at the southern extremity of the island, about six miles from Avalon, and can be reached by row-boat or by the steam-tug which almost daily takes down a party. A row-boat is preferable, because the seals allow it to approach nearer than a puffing tug. On the way down observe the splendid precipitous rocks, to the sides of which some wild goats may occasionally be seen clinging like flies. The boat passes projecting rocks and rugged promontories, on which a few pelicans and seals are basking; and between them are several large curved beaches of smooth pebbles, three or four feet high, and fifty feet wide, to which every winter's storms add a foot or two. As we approach the southern end of the island the swell of the outer Pacific becomes perceptible, and at the same time the seal rocks rise up before us. The hundreds of sea-lions lying on them appear to be fast asleep, but suddenly a sentinel raises up his head, watches us a moment, and then utters a cry of alarm. Immediately the whole army is awake, and gradually assume an erect position, barking hoarsely as we approach them. Among them are some formidable monsters, large and heavy as oxen, and were they not known to be perfectly harmless, it would seem a most harzardous undertaking to row right up to them. With every stroke of the oars they become more excited and noisy, and finally, when we are within forty or fifty feet of the rock, they plunge headlong and pell-mell into the water. For a moment they are invisible, and then they are seen collecting in a body in a sort of pool between the rocks, sticking up their snake-like necks and heads, and barking louder than ever, the younger ones bleating just like sheep. But gradually, as we move away a little and throw out our fishing lines, they become convinced that our intentions are peaceful, and then, with many a groan and snap at their neighbors, they climb back clumsily to the summit of the rocks, the biggest ones securing the best places. Seal rocks are always good fishing ground; but why is it that the fish do not learn to avoid places where they hear the loud barking of their voracious enemies? In this respect their instincts would appear to fail them.

HENRY T. FINCK.

THE NEW STANDARDS OF WEIGHT AND MEASURE.

PARIS, October 2, 1889.

OF all the congresses that mark the year 1889, perhaps the one that scores the most complete results in the achievement of its object was that held last week at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures. Fourteen years ago this curious and little-known institution did not exist. It may be remembered that in May, 1875, an international convention was signed in Paris between sixteen countries: Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Argentine Confederation, Denmark, Spain, United States, France, Italy, Peru, Portugal, Russia, Sweden-Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, Venezuela, for the purpose of insuring unification of weights and measures. Many of the contracting countries were provided already with copies of the standard metre and kilogramme after the originals deposited in 1799 at the French Archives. But these copies were found to differ from each other; besides, they could not be relied on as identical with themselves from one epoch to another. These differences were due to the imperfect chemical preparations employed in their composition, and to their form, liable to atmospheric influences and the action of time. The whole work had to be begun over. Science, in its constant progress towards precision, made a rectification imperative. Geodesy in particular urged it. As long as no two nations agreed on the acceptation of the metre, the exact knowledge of the configuration of our planet was an impossibility; for when a four-metre measuring-staff, used by geodesians in the survey of a base, is the starting-point of a sixteen-kilometre observation, it is easy to realize how the slight discrepancy gets multiplied, and how discrepancies arise between the calculations of two scientists belonging to two different countries.

At the close of 1875 the National Assembly of France adopted the convention, and conceded for the use of the institution the property on the hills of St. Cloud above Sèvres, known as the Pavillon de Breteuil, once a summer residence of the Princesse Mathilde. The budget of the Bureau was fixed at 100,000 francs a year. Each nation was to contribute in accordance with its population. Later, international gossip was frequently kept alive, for several countries were delinquent in paying their quota. Turkey never brought in a sou, but—there is a god for Turkish finances—its share of the contribution was made up by the others. When the committee, composed of fourteen scientists chosen in every country, under the presidency of Gen. Ibanez of Spain, had been appointed to take the direction of the Bureau, the first question was: Ought one to make a new metre and a new kilogramme, or is it better to accept without restrictions the old standards of the Archives, and, without copying them servilely, remake upon them the new international metre and kilogramme? The works of Delambre and Méchain, who measured the meridian from Dunkirk in the north of France to Barcelona in Spain during the Revolutionary tornado, served for the first acceptation of the metre among the allied nations in 1799. It was afterwards acknowledged that the metre of 1799 might be a trifle short—for that matter, Méchain himself admitted before his death certain inexactitudes in his survey which it was then too late to repair. In 1875 the unanimous opinion recognized that to establish a new and slightly truer measure was not of so much importance as to make one that should be uniform for all—or, rather, whose copies should be rigorously determined by comparison with the new standard. To insist on the metre representing exactly its theoretic definition was to expose it to constant modifications as the progress of geodesy went on; a standard ought not to be liable to frequent changes.

This point being admitted, a new metre and a new kilogramme were made—that is, copies as exact as possible of the old standards in the Archives; only, the new ones are made of better material and of improved form, so as to insure greater guarantees of conformability. For a whole year the question of composition was discussed. The idea of quartz was entertained for a while, but ultimately a composition nine parts of platinum to one of iridium, to add resistance and solidity, was adopted. The standards in the Archives are of platinum. While rendering full homage to the knowledge and skill of the scientists of the last century—Lenoir and others—it must be admitted that, owing to the resources of the modern laboratory, the experiments made on the material of the new standards which revealed such improvements in the treatment and purification of platinum, would have been impossible a hundred years ago. The shape of the new kilogramme was very little modified, but that chosen for the metre is peculiar: a rod, two centimetres in thickness, not exactly square, but grooved on the four sides, presenting in its section somewhat the shape of the letter X. This form combines with a minimum quantity of material a maximum rigidity. The bar is one metre two centimetres in length—the *metre* being indicated by two fine marks at each end. This metre is called "à traits," differing from that of the Archives, called "à bouts," which measures exactly one metre, no margin being allowed for wear and tear. After the signing of the convention, in 1875, Servia joined in. Hence, if Austria-Hungary, Sweden-Norway are not counted singly, the observatory of weights and measures had to prepare nineteen copies of the new metre and kilogramme. This is the lengthy work just brought to a close, and which formed the object of the Congress mentioned above, when the copies were distributed to each of the adhering nations.

The scientific installation at the Pavillon de Breteuil realizes the last word in the art of precise mechanics. First of all, no better spot could have been chosen as a site for laboratories intended for experiments which the slightest trembling of the soil caused by the rumbling of vehicles would hinder. Here an unbroken stillness reigns. The visitor who has walked up the steep avenue and rings at the gateway closing from the outer bustle this temple dedicated to science, has already lost sight of the fact that he is not more than a few minutes' walk from the Seine and its puffing *bateaux-mouches*. The villa, so tried by the guns pointed from Mont Valérien at the time Breteuil was occupied by a Prussian battery, has been entirely restored, and is now occupied by the resident director, and his assistants, Mr. Benoit (French), Mr. Thiesen (German), together with the half score of attachés who complete the scientific corps. Facing the villa are the laboratories of manipulation and the rooms devoted to the studies of observation. These latter are built with very thick walls, and are lighted by sky-lights so disposed as to prevent the rays of the sun from penetrating; corridors isolate them from the exterior. These dispositions tend to insure as near as possible evenness of temperature, which for certain of the operations is a condition of success.

The works of the Bureau are divided into two sections—that pertaining to the standards of length, the other to the standards of weight. In the former took place all the comparisons of the national standards with their prototype. Each metre had to be studied not only in a normal atmosphere, but also under varied degrees of heat and cold. The *comparator*, intended to compare two metres, *in air*, is essentially composed of two microscopes sealed on heavy piles of monolithic stone mounted on deeply laid masonry. Micrometers like those used with astronomical instruments are attached. Below is the carriage bearing a metallic box with double lining in which are placed the two bars in course of observation. A lid closes the box, to avoid sudden variations of atmosphere, and special glasses disposed on the surface permit the operator to watch the thermometers placed inside. Moreover, an appropriate mechanism enables him, while keeping his eye on the microscope, to raise or lower, to

displace longitudinally or transversely the bars according to needs. The *comparator* serving to measure dilatations is likewise armed with movable carriage and fixed microscopes and micrometers; only, instead of one box the carriage has two at work. These two boxes stand three feet apart—independent, so to speak—and can be submitted to different temperatures. Thus, to measure the dilatations of a bar of iridized platinum it is placed in one of the boxes, while in the other is placed another bar called *comparative*. This latter is kept in an even temperature; the other is cooled and heated, passed in turn through a series of thermal experiments. It contracts and expands alternately, and its length is compared with the bar of comparison. One of the difficulties of this process of measurement is to preserve an even temperature. This is done by heating the liquid into which the compared staff dips by means of a continued current of hot water passing through the double lining of the tank. The heated water leaves its reservoir at an invariably even degree, and can, through a special process, be kept for hours at about 40° of heat. With this apparatus the difference between two metres can be measured up to a few thousandths of a millimetre, if the marks are traced with sufficient accuracy to stand the considerably magnified power by which they are seen. The *universal comparator* serves to compare all the subdivisions of two metres. It extends up to two metres in capacity, and contains a two metre standard rod divided throughout into centimetres, over which are disposed a couple of movable microscopes. Movable also are the microscopes serving to study the subdivisions of the metre experimented on. A geodetic *comparator*, upon which staffs of four metres can be observed, completes this remarkable collection of instruments, some of which are encased in elegant mahogany fittings.

The geodetic staffs are completely distinct from the standard proper, and have not been the object of any international agreement. Still, several of the staffs belonging to geodetic institutes or geographical services of different countries have been deposited at Breteuil to be finally regulated by the standard metre.

In the section of weights can be found the most perfect set of scales existing in the world. The house of Ruprecht of Vienna constructed the most of them. Upon these scales the errors in operations are brought down to such an infinitesimal quantity that it makes one dizzy to think of it. A kilogramme is weighed to one hundred-millionth part of its value. The operator works at a distance to avoid the influence his near presence might have on the scales, through the atmospheric perturbations. He stands at a distance of some twelve feet. Having the day before set the required weights in proper position in the glass cage of the instrument, he now, by the aid of an ingenious mechanism, places the weights upon the trays, lifts the clutch that holds them motionless, lets loose the balance frame, and measures its oscillations through the spy-glass. This spy-glass looks on a mirror bearing a subdivided scale; so, while the balance slowly oscillates, the operator follows through his glass the reflected image, notes the successive elongations, and deducts the real point of equilibrium between the two. Without leaving his position, the observer can change the weights from the right tray to the left, and vice-versa.

Now that the chief work at the observatory is completed, the door is not to be closed. Breteuil remains the depository of the new international standards, and its dwellers hold themselves in readiness to furnish further experiments asked of them; the researches of science are endless. LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

GEN. ROCHECHOUART'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, October 3, 1889.

WE left Rochechouart after his mission to Bernadotte and on the eve of the battle of Leipzig. Rochechouart took such a brilliant part in this engagement that the Emperor Alexander made him a colonel. He entered the city with his new epaulettes. "I shall never forget," he says, "the emotion which I felt in crossing the battle-field and seeing 15,000 corpses in a limited area. You will judge from this of the number of dead and wounded in those two days of slaughter. But for the infamous treason of the troops of Baden, Saxony, and Würtemberg, the victory would have been even more hotly disputed." It is rather amusing to hear Rochechouart speak with so much indignation of the "treason" of the German contingent of the French army. These Germans had become unwillingly a part of the "grande armée"; they left Napoleon as soon as they found a chance. They left him, to be sure, in the very midst of a great battle, and turned their arms against him at the most critical time; but they really owed no allegiance to him. He was in their eyes the enemy of Germany. At any rate, if anybody had a right to blame them, it was not a Frenchman who was fighting a French army and was on the staff of Alexander of Russia.

Alexander met Bernadotte at Leipzig and embraced him. The King of Saxony came to pay homage to the Emperor:

"Bernadotte said: 'Sire, here is the King of Saxony who offers you his respectful homage.' The Emperor Alexander feigned not to hear, and asked: 'Where is the Queen of Saxony?' 'She is at the head of the stairs waiting for your imperial majesty, but here is her august consort who wishes to be presented to you.' 'Let us go and see the Queen.' With such severity did the Emperor Alexander treat this old King, victim of his affection for and devotion to Napoleon—a very laudable devotion, since it lasted to the end, notwithstanding the defection of his troops. I remained stupefied at the if not cruel, at least ungenerous attitude of the Emperor of Russia towards the crowned old man."

Rochechouart, you will observe, had curious notions of his own. It did not strike him that the Emperor of Russia, obliged to wage a difficult and long war against Napoleon, who had invaded his country, had no special reason for showing much interest in his enemy's allies and friends. The King of Saxony was treated as a prisoner of war and sent to Berlin, where he remained till the end of 1814. Prince Talleyrand became his advocate at the Congress of Vienna, and finally he recovered his kingdom.

After the battle of Leipzig, Rochechouart joined his Emperor at Meissingen, where he remained two days. The dowager Duchess had two charming daughters, one who married afterwards the Duke of Clarence (who became William IV.); the other, who married her cousin, Prince Bernard of Saxe-Weimar. The Emperor Alexander went to Frankfort by way of Schweinfurt and Homburg; he remained in Frankfort two months, during which he made a visit to Darmstadt. The Grand Duke was "an original, a kind of bear. As for his son, he is very insignificant. When he was presented to Napoleon, he stood without saying a word. The Emperor, seeing his singular uniform, asked him: 'What is this uniform?' '*Mon réchiment, zire*' (with the German accent). 'Ah! and how many men has your regiment?' '*Che sais pas.*' 'Who is this great fool?' said Napoleon, turning to the person who accompanied him." These were the words of the Emperor Alexander to Rochechouart when he sent him to Darmstadt to announce his visit, not as a sovereign but as a relative. The Grand Duchess was Alexander's sister-in-law.

The Russian headquarters crossed the Rhine at Bâle on the 3d of January, 1814; on the 26th of January Rochechouart was at Langres, where he heard the news of the death of his brother Louis, who had been killed in the battle of Brienne, near Bas-sur-Aube. He fell in the night on a French vanguard, who fired and screamed, "The Cossacks!" Louis Rochechouart was struck by eight balls, and died almost instantly. After they had entered the French territory, Rochechouart and his friend, Colonel Rapatel, who was also in the Russian ranks, spoke often of the reëstablishment of the Bourbons, and at Langres they saw several Frenchmen who had come from Paris—Comte Alexis de Noailles, Comte de Wall, Comte de Virieu, the Marquis of Quinsonnas. They drew up a sort of a memoir on the subject of the restoration, which Rochechouart presented to the Emperor Alexander at Langres. The Emperor said: "I approve of you and understand you, but we are not yet so sure of success that we can come to a decision. Wait till the next battle, which cannot be long postponed. You cannot doubt my interest in the august family of your ancient kings, but I can do nothing without my allies. Meanwhile, let the French declare themselves. If they do, many difficulties will be lessened."

Letters were sent to King Louis XVIII. in England and to his brothers. The Comte d'Artois was already in France, having entered by way of Bâle. Soon after the battle of Brienne a congress took place at Châtillon-sur-Seine, with a view to negotiating for peace. The allied sovereigns had not yet decided to dethrone Napoleon, and they continued to give him the title of Emperor. One moment it was thought that peace would be signed at Châtillon:

"A few of us friends were together—Rapatel, Armand and Jules de Polignac, Alexis de Noailles, and myself. Pozzo [the Corsican Pozzo di Borgo, a great enemy of Napoleon] came to announce to us the signing of the treaty; but, suddenly getting up and striking the table with his fist, he said, with his Italian animation: 'No, all is not ended; the Corsican has not signed!' This epithet of Corsican, thrown out thus suddenly, seemed to us very comical, especially as coming from another Corsican."

Pozzo was right. Napoleon refused at the last moment to accept the conditions of the allies; he was blind and rushed to his fate. The Emperor Alexander thus far had allowed Prince Schwarzenberg to conduct all the operations; he was tired of his delays, and took himself the command of his army of 300,000 men. He met and fought Napoleon at Arcis-sur-Aube. Napoleon suffered great losses, and conceived the bold idea of throwing himself on the communications of the allies. His manœuvres have been much admired. He separated for a moment the Emperor of Austria from his allies, but this separation was of no use to him, but the contrary, as it deprived Napoleon at the critical moment of the protection of his father-in-law and of Metternich.

Napoleon was given up to the Russians and to the Prussians, who were more hostile to him than Austria. Alexander was determined to push directly on Paris. He felt that the solution was in the French capital. He was not mistaken.

"The Emperor Alexander arrived in the Buttes Chaumont, at two o'clock in the afternoon; there he contemplated Paris. One heard

towards Montmartre and Vincennes a terrible fire of musketry and the continual reports of a formidable artillery. The Emperor left his horse so as to enjoy better the magnificent spectacle under his eye. He asked me to name for him the principal monuments. After a while his handsome face became thoughtful; he asked no more questions; he was absorbed in a profound meditation. What were his thoughts? God knows; he seemed to hear neither the guns, nor the musketry, nor the hum of the great city which lay before us."

He was interrupted by a bearer of proposals sent by Count Nesselrode; an immediate suspension of hostilities was decided on; Alexander ordered that no Russian soldier should enter Paris for the present, and that the firing should cease. Rochechouart had to carry the order. He put a white handkerchief at the end of his sword, and succeeded all alone in reaching Count Langeron, at Montmartre, who had already occupied the barrières Rochechouart, des Martyrs, Blanche, and Clichy. A few days afterwards the Emperor gave Rochechouart one of his orders, with the mention, "In recompense of his behavior at the battle before Paris on the 18th of March, 1814."

The first evening which Rochechouart spent in Paris was spent in a small inn at Belleville.

"We were," he says, "numerous and all French. Gen. Comte de Lambert, whose division occupied Belleville, Gen. Comte de Damas, who commanded the brigade of grenadiers of the guards, which had taken Montreuil, and my four companions [Armand de Polignac, Montpazal, Rapatel, and Boutot]. The garçon, much astonished to hear us all speak French during our supper, without uttering a word of Russian, could not conceal his surprise, and, folding his arms, said to us: 'Ah ça! for Cossacks, you don't speak French badly.'"

The next day Alexander appointed Rochechouart *Commandant de place* of Paris and Gen. Sacken Governor. Rochechouart, by order of the Emperor, with three battalions of Russian guards and two guns, took possession of the Hôtel de Ville of the Élysée, and made all the arrangements with the Prefect of the Seine for the location of the Russian troops. The Prefect was M. de Chabrol. Rochechouart himself, with his staff, took the hôtel of the Place Vendôme, where the *Commandant de place* of Paris has always resided and resides at the present moment. A great review of the allied armies took place on the Place Louis XV., now called Place de la Concorde. The exhibition of these enormous forces contributed to keep Paris completely quiet, and produced a great impression on the Parisians. The word of Tacitus is always true: "Viso milite quies." Napoleon soon afterwards signed his abdication at Fontainebleau, and took the road to the island of Elba, protected on his way by officers of the allied army.

The nomination of a Frenchman as *Commandant de place* in Paris was an act of courtesy on the part of the Emperor Alexander, who wished to prove that he was animated by the most conciliatory spirit. Rochechouart's mission was not an easy one: he had to organize a military police to patrol the capital, to maintain order in a city occupied by thousands of foreign troops belonging to various nationalities. He has been blamed for taking the statue of Napoleon down from the Vendôme Column, but he had no initiative in this respect; the order was really given by the Prefecture of Police, and signed with the name of Baron (who afterwards became Chancellor) Pasquier. The statue was melted and the bronze was employed for the new equestrian statue of Henri IV., now on the Pont Neuf (the old statue of Henri IV. had disappeared during the Revolution).

After the return of Louis XVIII., Rochechouart left the service of Russia. The Comte d'Artois promised to have him admitted into the French service with the rank of *maréchal de camp* (equivalent to the present grade of brigadier). Rochechouart confesses in his memoirs that he behaved in this matter with too much levity. After all that Alexander had done for him, he ought to have asked his permission, which certainly Alexander would have given; he contented himself with sending his resignation in writing, by the hands of Gen. Sacken. He did not even offer to accompany Alexander back to the frontiers of his empire. He says candidly that it seemed "too hard for him to leave again his country, where he had found such an agreeable existence." Sacken gave the letter of resignation to the Emperor, and two days afterwards said to him: "The Emperor is not pleased with you; he dismisses you with the grade of honorary general-major, but will not see you to receive your adieux." Alexander was perfectly right, and showed his usual kindness as much as his dignity.

The readers of these curious memoirs will find in the latter parts many interesting details on the Hundred Days, on the flight of the King to Ghent, on the second Restoration of 1815. The most dramatic pages are those which Rochechouart wrote on the execution of Marshal Ney, as he was the person charged with all the details of the execution. It must be said to his credit that he writes with much humane feeling about this terrible event. Rochechouart had honest instincts, but a narrow mind; his mediocrity gives, perhaps, all the more value to his testimony; he says very plainly all he has to say. We do not doubt that his memoirs will take rank among the documents concerning the Empire and the Restoration. After 1815 his life became very uneventful; he died on February 28, 1858, at his château at Jumilhac.

Correspondence.

REFLECTIONS AFTER A TOUR OF RESEARCH IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: During some recent visits to Virginia I have heard curious instances of callous conscience among people of literary appreciation and above want. The venerable Dr. Slaughter, historiographer of the diocese of Virginia, lost invaluable MSS. and volumes during the war. Afterwards a friend of his, visiting a fashionable lady in Philadelphia, was shown several of the rare books, the historiographer's name in them being proudly pointed out as enhancing their value. Mr. Thomas Nelson Page received a letter from the West informing him that the Nelson and Page family papers were in possession of the writer of the letter, who proposed, if the family did not purchase them, to utilize them in magazine articles. During the war the Will Book of 1743 disappeared from King George County Office (Va.), and a letter was afterwards received from New York saying that the volume would be restored if a certain amount were paid. The Board of Supervisors did not feel warranted in making the appropriation, but why they did not have the holder of the book arrested I do not know. There is little doubt that the law would reach the receivers of the Nelson papers and of the King George records. But such offers came soon after the war, when the Southern people had a morbid impression that they could gain no redress in Northern courts for injuries incident to the struggle they had brought on.

It is probable that in a majority of cases articles of this description were carried off without dishonest intent. Two years ago Dr. Loring of Salem wrote me that an humble neighbor had shown him an old land record, certain entries in which caused him to inform me of it. By this means a valuable volume, covering landed transactions in Stafford County, Va., for two years, was restored and litigation possibly prevented. The Clerk of Stafford informs me that another volume had also been returned. I regret to say, however, that there has been no return as yet of the papers abstracted from Virginia which are of especial importance to historians.

By the loss of the King George Will Book of 1743, containing the record of the will of Washington's father, the substance of that document becomes irrecoverable. The original has been stolen, the record stolen (the volume for 1744 was left), and no copy seems to exist. What Augustine Washington bequeathed to his son George is now among the unknowable things. But that is less heavy than the removal of both the original and the record of the will of Col. John Washington from Westmoreland Court-house. I have just searched for it there myself, and the clerk has continued the search, but without result. An invaluable document seems to be hopelessly lost. There is, indeed, a bare possibility that the search has been in the wrong region. Bishop Meade does, indeed, say that the will is in Westmoreland Court-house, but he does not imply that he saw it there, mentioning that he got it by aid of a friend. Now, the Rev. Dr. E. C. McGuire, writing in 1836, says that the will in question was then at Mount Vernon, with the endorsement, "The Will of Lieutenant-Colonel Washington." Dr. McGuire married a daughter of Robert Lewis, Washington's nephew and private secretary, and his statement is of sufficient weight to cause the heirs of Judge Bushrod Washington, who inherited Mount Vernon, and the Vice-Regents of Mount Vernon to institute a general search. For even if the document referred to was a copy of the will, it would be of high value in directing rightly the researches now employing Mr. Whitmore, Mr. Waters, and others.

Bishop Meade, supposing the will would always remain for inspection, preserved little more than its pious preface. He almost ingeniously omits mentioning the locality of the "large property in England" therein devised. He does not describe the seal. Fortunately, this seal has been preserved on another document—preserved under protection of another name not understanded of the autograph annexer—and I shall soon publish it in facsimile. But all light on the problem of Washington's genealogy must remain uncertain, unless the will of Washington's great-grandfather can be discovered. To some this may appear a small object to pursue; but it reaches far beyond any question of individual descent and into regions of serious history. For instance, there has been discovered by Mr. Alexander Brown of Nelson County, Virginia, the indictment, in Bermuda, 1648, of one "George Washington" for calling the King a rogue. It would be very interesting to know who that rebellious George of the early seventeenth century was, and whether he found his way to Virginia. History, Emerson tells us, is the history of a few good heads; and, since Sir Francis Galton's work on 'Hereditary Genius,' genealogy has a scientific as well as historical dignity. In this direction the autograph collector seems to possess views in advance of the average Congressional mind.

Grievous are the difficulties encountered by the student of American history through want of a bureau for the preservation, classification, and indexing of historical manuscripts and

documents. In writing the life of our first Attorney-General and second Secretary of State, I had to gather his fragments, so to say, from six different States—as widely separate as Massachusetts, Virginia, Pennsylvania, California, Kentucky, and Maryland. Had I been writing of an English or French statesman of equal eminence, I should not have had to leave London or Paris. All who have engaged in researches of this kind know of invaluable papers, resources of our national history, now mouldering in old trunks, scattered, or bought up in Europe, and lost to this nation. Senator Evarts, on certain statements of this kind made to him, urged on the Joint Library Committee of Congress the formation of such a bureau. There was printed a forcible report written by our excellent Librarian of Congress, and I am informed that the Committee unanimously agreed to recommend the scheme. It is to be hoped that another session will not pass without Congressional action on this urgent matter. It would cost but a trifle, and the advantages would be incalculably large. Historians and collectors would have a place to which their manuscripts might be bequeathed, with the certainty that they would be put to the best use. The collections now owned by the nation, but hardly available for research—such as that of Peter Force—would become of double value. If it be objected that a nation ought not to do anything merely magnanimous, or simply for culture, it may be considered that a moderate fee for copies would make such an institution a source of revenue.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE PAN-AMERICAN CUSTOMS-UNION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in the *Nation* of October 3, "European Opinions on the Pan-American Congress," has reminded me of a communication of mine to a leading German journal in St. Louis on the same subject under date of April 8, 1889, a translation of part of which may perhaps not prove quite uninteresting to the readers of the *Nation:*

"The late Richard W. Townshend of Illinois, who was the prime mover in the convocation of the Congress soon to meet, was an intimate friend of mine. When, two years ago, he submitted his plan for a Congress of all the States of this continent for the purpose of forming a union as regards customs, commerce, coinage, standard measure, arbitration, etc., to the House of Representatives, he sent me his resolutions and speeches on the subject, and asked my opinion upon it, remarking that his plan was principally built upon the German Customs-Union, and that he should feel much obliged to me if I would communicate to him some details of its origin and development.

"I gave him briefly a history of this Customs-Union, but called his attention to the articles on this subject in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' and in Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Political Science in the U. S.' My judgment of his plan was, however, not favorable. Beautiful and grand in theory, it would in my opinion be, I remarked, wholly incapable of being realized. The German Customs-Union, I observed to him, was the very slowly ripened fruit of nearly two generations. Infinite difficulties had to be conquered before it could expand to a certain importance. In fact, Germany had only reached unity of weights and measures and coinage, common patent laws and laws for the protection of literary property, after a bloody civil war (1866) and the great Franco-German war (1871), and after the establishment of the new Empire. A perfect Customs-Union was even at present not attained, since Hamburg and Bremen were yet out of it. (Both cities have entered it only during the present year.) And these difficulties had arisen among a people of the same race, the same language, and the same manners and customs. But what obstructions would have to be overcome between States like our own Union and countries the population of which consisted of the descendants of Spaniards and Portuguese, of creoles and pure Indians!

"What, however, would certainly make his plan a failure, was our high tariff, even if the Democrats should succeed in lowering it somewhat. Central and South America were principally countries producing raw materials, and would buy manufactured goods only in countries which would receive their products free, or under a moderate tariff. The Republican party could not surrender its protective tariff, for, without the support of the rich manufacturers and monopolists, it would soon perish. Besides, there existed, particularly in the South American republics, commercial treaties with England, Germany, and France, beneficial to all parties, which could only be abolished after the lapse of years, even if there was a disposition to set them aside.

"Townshend, in a continued correspondence, admitted in a great degree the force of my objections, but still thought that it would be worth while to make an attempt. Last fall, in a conversation with him on this subject, I called his attention to another matter. Even if a customs-union, I said, for this continent could be agreed upon by a treaty, it could not be carried out successfully under existing circumstances. It would require the enactment of a great number of rules and regulations, the execution of which could only be intrusted to an experienced, well-trained, and conscientious corps of officers, such as was by general consent to be found in Germany. Such a corps could hardly be found even in our own country, owing to the constant change of officers and the influence of politicians; but would it be possible to find such officers in Chili, Peru, the United States of Colombia, in Paraguay, Uruguay, the Argentine Republic? Townshend was somewhat surprised, and replied that he had not thought of that; that it seemed to present some difficulty.

"There is, in my opinion, a solution of this last problem, which, however, I did not communicate to Townshend, which would give to his idea an immense popularity—that is, to have a stipulation in the treaty that all offices in the administration of the Customs-Union should be filled everywhere with citizens of the United States, or with Irishmen who have taken out their first naturalization papers." G. K.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., October 14, 1889.

CHAUTAUQUA TEXT-BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I believe the points in "Marcel's" criticism of Chautauqua methods well taken, and do especially agree with his statement that the Chautauqua method is the study of *books*, not the study of *subjects*.

There have lately come to my notice the "tailor-made" Chautauqua text-books in Physics and Chemistry. That an intelligent conception of the study of chemistry or physics can be obtained from the rapid perusal of these books is evidently impossible. And not alone in physics, as used in its limited sense in this text-book, but in none of the physical sciences, can the Chautauqua methods do else than give misty and even false notions of these studies. One can read Xenophon in the parlor as well, possibly, as in the class-room; or one can discuss the abstruse questions of political economy with his *confrères* or *consœurs*—as the case may be—in the enchanted "Circle" as well, perhaps, as when seated about the round table at the political-science seminary; but one can never smell H_2S in the parlor—unless, mayhap, the base-burner is in need of better draught, and then the Chautauqua scientist recognizes only a vile odor; nor can one determine the modulus of iron's elasticity by considering, at whatever length, a printed list of "queries."

The absurdity of Chautauqua science, to my mind, appeals so strongly to a believer in true scientific study, that, from his rather narrow standpoint, all else emanating from such a fountain of error and ludicrousness must seem as valueless. A little knowledge is indeed a dangerous thing, but when that little knowledge is grossly incorrect, if such a paradox can be, it is rendered doubly dangerous. Science demands the laboratory and study of the *subject* in hand, not the parlor table and the study of a prescribed *book*.

VERNON L. KELLOGG.

LAWRENCE, KANSAS, October 13, 1889.

THE MULTIPLICATION OF OATHS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It was to the scandal of the clergy in an age of corruption that oaths were multiplied throughout Europe by the very class whose especial duty it was to have discouraged their use, namely, the priests. As a religious test, an oath was brought within the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts, and, being exacted on the most ordinary occasions, became a source of great revenue to the Church. As was aptly said by an historian of the time, the command of our Lord, "Swear not at all," seemed to have been transformed by worldly lawgivers into "Swear on all occasions. Omit no opportunity of insisting upon an oath." While at an earlier period the followers of Christ had faithfully obeyed the precept of their master, refusing to swear, and even suffering martyrdom rather than transgress, the time had come when, from motives of avarice, their own teachers persuaded them that this injunction was not to be literally interpreted.

It is to the credit of the English Government that many superfluous oaths which were formerly required in that country have lately been abolished. It is also to the credit of some of our own people that an effort to that end was made under the late Administration. In the tariff bill proposed by the Democratic Committee of Congress in February, 1888, it was provided (sec. 12), "That all fees exacted and oaths administered by officers of the customs under or by virtue of existing laws of the United States, upon the entry of imported goods and the passing thereof through the customs, and also upon all entries of domestic goods, wares, and merchandise for exportation, be, and the same are, hereby abolished; and in case of entry of merchandise for exportation, a declaration, in lieu of an oath, shall be filed in such form and under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury."

Judging from the article entitled "A Crop of Oaths" in your No. 1261, the "party of moral ideas" (and, strange to say, there are some good people who still claim this title for it) appears to be going in the opposite direction, and following the example of the degenerate fathers above referred to. M.

LOCKRAM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to ask through your columns the origin of the use of the word *lockram* or *lockrum*, as meaning a long, rambling, *incredible* story? Using it in that sense the other day—in the company of several cultivated persons—I found myself called to account. No one of them had ever heard it. It was in very common use when I was a young girl, and I did not suppose it had become obsolete.

Webster says that *lockram* is a sort of coarse linen made in Locronan, in Bretagne, and took its name from the town in which it was manufactured. In "Coriolanus," act ii, scene 2, *Brutus* says, speaking of *Coriolanus:*

> "The kitchen malkin pins
> Her richest *lockram* 'bout her reechy neck,
> Clambering the walls to eye him."

It is evident that in this case *lockram* does

not mean coarse linen, but some showy gaud—perhaps a ribbon; and these two references are all I can find. I should be glad of further information.—Yours, very truly,

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, October 16, 1889.

Notes.

MR. GORDON L. FORD of Brooklyn has in press a number of interesting unpublished agreements between Washington and his overseers and workmen, throwing much light upon the management of his estates as well as on the "labor question" of colonial Virginia. The agreements are copied from the originals in Washington's writing, and all date before the Revolution. In this volume will also be included a correspondence that Washington had in 1774 with a number of merchants and others concerning a scheme he entertained of importing German Palatines to settle upon his Western lands, and one of Washington's advertisements for runaway servants. Very little of this material has been published heretofore, and 'Washington as an Employer and Importer of Labor' will present a new phase of his character. The edition will be limited to 500 copies.

The 'Salon of Paris' for 1889 will be shortly issued through J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway. Like its predecessors, it will illustrate the principal works by the photogravure process, one hundred plates being promised in various colors, and the majority of them full-page. The Holland-paper edition will be limited.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'Foods for the Fat: A Treatise on Corpulency, and a Dietary for its Cure,' by Nathaniel Edward Davies; Pierre Paris's 'Manual of Ancient Sculpture,' and M. Collignon's 'Manual of Mythology,' edited by Jane E. Harrison; 'The Maid of Orleans,' by W. H. Davenport Adams; 'Crime: Its Nature, Causes, Treatment, and Prevention,' by Sanford M. Green; and 'With Gauge & Swallow, Attorneys,' by Albion W. Tourgée.

A handsome illustrated edition of R. D. Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone: A Romance of Exmoor,' is about to be published by Burrows Bros. Co., Cleveland, O.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Cathedrals and Abbeys in Great Britain and Ireland,' the text by Richard Wheatley, D.D., the illustrations forty or more in number; 'London: A Pilgrimage,' text by Blanchard Jerrold, with Doré's designs; 'Thomas Nast's Christmas Drawings for the Human Race'; 'The Odd Number,' translations by Jonathan Sturges; and Constance Fenimore Woolson's 'Jupiter Lights.'

Fresh announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons are a reprint in book form of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston's article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' on 'The United States: Its History and Constitution'; 'Among Cannibals: Four Years' Travels in Australia, and Descriptions of Camp Life with the Aborigines of Queensland,' by Carl Lumholtz; 'Strange True Stories of Louisiana,' by George W. Cable; 'Sforza: A Story of Milan,' by W. W. Astor; and 'Biblical History,' Prof. C. A. Briggs's much-debated address before the Union Theological Seminary last month.

A facsimile of the first edition of John Bunyan's 'Country Rhymes,' recently acquired by the British Museum, is to be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son conjointly with Elliot Stock, London. The Rev. John Brown of Bedford furnishes an introduction giving the history of this little volume.

White & Allen announce 'Folk-Lore and Legends of Various Nations'; 'The Sleeping Beauty,' illustrated by Geo. W. Brenneman; and 'Off the Weather-bow on Life's Voyage,' by Miss E. N. Little.

Two well-known series will be continued in 'Three Vassar Girls in Russia and Turkey,' by Elizabeth W. Champney, and 'Zigzag Journeys in the British Isles,' by Hezekiah Butterworth, of which Estes & Lauriat are the publishers.

D. C. Heath & Co. issue directly Hoffmann's 'Tales from History,' and Freytag's 'Aus dem Staat Friederichs des Grossen.'

T. Fisher Unwin's list for the present season embraces 'The English Novel in the Time of Shakspere,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'God in Shakspere,' by Clelia; Ibsen's 'A Doll's House,' with portrait and photographs, and 'The Lady from the Sea,' translated by Eleanor Marx; 'A London Plane-Tree, and Other Poems,' by the late Miss Amy Levy; Sir William Jones's 'Sakuntala, or the Fatal Ring,' edited by Prof. Rhys-Davids; 'The Barbary Corsairs,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'The Butterfly: its Nature, Development, and Attributes,' by John Stuttard; 'Edward Thring, Teacher and Poet,' by the Rev. H. D. Rawnsley; and 'The Diary of the Parnell Commission,' revised upon the *Daily News* by John Macdonald.

Other English announcements are a complete edition of Gay's 'Fables,' by W. H. Wright, with many illustrations and notes, and a biography; 'The Literary Remains of Albrecht Dürer,' edited by Prof. W. M. Conway, and published by the Cambridge University Press; and still another life of Edward Thring, by the Rev. J. H. Skrine. We had supposed the authorized biography of this lamented teacher to have been committed to a Canadian friend.

There are few more sombre and impressive books relating to Ireland than the illustrated two-volume edition of Carleton's 'Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry,' published in 1843. The country has changed much for the better since those days. What was then a true picture of the condition of the Irish peasantry is not true to-day. Nevertheless, Mr. Walter Scott has exercised a wise discretion in adding to his "Camelot Series" a volume of 'Stories from Carleton.' Carleton's reputation suffered in his later works more than that of most authors who have written themselves out. But there is in his stories the impress of truth and genius, and we have here some of the best of them. No one is likely to shake off the impression left by a perusal of them. Mr. Yeats's preface is a worthy introduction to the book.

Well-appointed helps for the study of English literature multiply with great rapidity. The most elaborate of a group now on our table is 'Burns's Selected Poems,' edited for the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan) by J. Logie Robertson. It is divided into Songs and Poems, and has been kept free of offence by exclusion and by a slight expurgation of what is admitted. A biographical introduction, a chronology, notes, and a full glossary, and a very careful and tasteful typography, make this edition worthy to be prized. Of Wordsworth one has his choice between the 'Selections' made by A. J. George (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) and the 'Select Poems,' edited by W. J. Rolfe in the familiar series of the Messrs. Harper. Mr. George follows the poet's last revision, and he observes the chronological arrangement (plainly marked in the table of contents). The sonnets are massed by themselves, as are the notes, which are truly useful. Mr. Rolfe's system is also chronological, but he occasionally appeals in the text from the later to the earlier Wordsworth, as in the case of the "Laodamia," and he distributes the sonnets. The Boston edition has the better print. The editor of Scott's 'Marmion' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), Mr. Thomas Bayne, acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Rolfe's collation of this poem. His print is excellent, and his notes copious and scholarly. Shakspere's 'Othello' and 'Cymbeline,' both edited by K. Deighton and published by Macmillan, are of the series intended for use in the schools of India, and consequently go to an extreme in explication. Prof. Homer B. Sprague has made an unlovely book of 'Macbeth' (Chicago: S. R. Winchell & Co.). The introduction and the notes are largely eclectic. There is an index of words, phrases, and topics.

After some wanderings, Miss Anne Ayres's 'Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg, D.D.,' reaches a fourth edition and takes the imprint of Thomas Whittaker. Some changes have been made which the author hopes will be final.

The newest volume in the '*Gentleman's Magazine* Library,' edited by Mr. George Laurence Gomme (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is devoted to a collection of bibliographical notes—on special books, often very ancient, and on special subjects, with a sample of what old almanacs have of amusement and instruction for the student of popular manners and beliefs. The volume is well fitted for deliberate browsing.

It is not many weeks since Hawthorne's 'Marble Faun' was the subject of a long communication directed to a comparison of this romance with its sources in the author's diaries. We have now before us an exquisite edition of the same work, in which the text is supplemented by abundant and uncommonly fine illustrations from nature or the real object (mostly), in photogravure (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The statues, the paintings, the churches, the classic ruins, the catacombs, etc., etc., referred to in the text are shown to the life in thickly set plates. The entire apparel of the two volumes is worthy of the best productions of the Riverside Press. A scarlet guard to the delicate binding of the covers is reinforced by a scarlet case. Altogether, the edition is sure of a sale at this season and at any season.

Except that there are no illustrations, the two dainty volumes of Dr. Holmes's 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table' just issued by the same house would deserve the same praise as the foregoing. The covers are here a smooth, dark green in the best of taste. The size of the volumes is well calculated for the hand. A somewhat tall and narrow page is built up in clear type with broad margins.

T. & W. Johnson & Co., Philadelphia, have begun this month the publication of a *Law Student's Monthly*, "a periodical containing prize essays from the various law schools." No. 1 leads off with "The Law Relating to Mercantile Agencies," by Joseph W. Errant of the Chicago bar.

The actual predominates over the ideal in the newest issue, No. 13, of *Sun and Shade* (New York: Photo-Gravure Co.). A copy of Cabanel's portrait of Miss Catharine Lorillard Wolfe; a portrait from life of Henry George, with one of Lieut. Zalinski surrounded by vignettes of his dynamite gun; a beach scene, "Cockle-Gathering"; a charming group of palmettos on the Gulf Coast; the portal of a well-known Broadway office-building; "The Varnish Maker"; and an Italian fancy picture, "Gossip at the Well," make up an unusually varied and attractive number.

The sixteenth part of the new 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Gotha: Justus Perthes; New

York: Westermann) reaches the United States with a sheet which takes in the region west of Lake Michigan as far as Montana and Wyoming. What is noticeable is that the two Dakotas are indicated. Indian reservations are in red. The minor names of places produce a dizzying effect from their parallelism and fineness of letter; but more could hardly be expected from the scale.

De Portefeuille, a politico-literary journal published weekly at Amsterdam, with here and there an illustration, has, with the number for October 5, very much enlarged its form, with some loss, to be sure, in handiness. It is attached to the fortunes of the Liberal party in Holland.

We have received a letter from Dr. Dörpfeld, Director of the German Archæological Institute at Athens, in reply to Mr. W. J. Stillman's article on "Prehistoric Chronology" in No. 1250 of the *Nation*. Dr. Dörpfeld denies in detail some of the statements there made with regard to the ruins of ancient buildings at Mycenae and Tiryns. We regret that the distance of the disputants, and the time which has elapsed, and the general obscurity of the subject, added to the pressure on our columns, make it impracticable for us to reopen the controversy.

—In the *Publishers' Weekly* for September 28, in a letter on "Authors' Rights," reprinted from the New York *Journal of Commerce*, Mr. W. C. Prime states his views concerning literary property without mincing words. He thinks that the moral principle underlying the whole subject of copyright is so plain that any child educated in an honest family can understand it; and he enunciates the following as "plain principles, which no honest man will dispute":

"The author of a work is, by moral law, as completely the owner of that work as the grower of a bale of cotton or a bag of wool is owner of his produce.

"No manufacturer has the right to take to his own use the cotton, the wool, or the literature, without first consulting the owner and making a contract of purchase with him.

"It is no excuse in any of the cases to say, 'If I don't steal it, some other man will.'

"It is no excuse to say the owner is a foreigner.

"It is no excuse to say, 'I will pay him something if I make money in my business out of his goods.'"

Concerning the relations of publishers with authors, Mr. Prime contends that "when a publisher proposes to himself or to an author to give the author a share of the profits of his book, he admits that the author has a property in his book"; and "if a publisher, or any man, takes and sells for his own profit in his business that which he admits is the property of another man, without first obtaining the owner's consent, he violates the moral law and is not doing an upright business."

— In the same number, in an account of the failure of the Chicago publishers, Belford, Clarke & Co., we get a curious illustration of the "if I don't steal it, some other man will" justification of literary piracy. Mr. Belford ascribes the misfortunes of the firm "mainly to the non-existence of an international copyright law," explaining that "when the system of piracy came into vogue, we, like other houses, had to adopt it in sheer self-defence; but the publication of English works has increased a hundred-fold, and the result has been that if we reprinted a work from the other side, fifty other houses were doing the same thing with the same work, and no one but the printer and binder reaped a cent of profit." An examination of their catalogue, on the contrary, would lead one to believe that an international copyright law would have served the good purpose of preventing this concern from coming into existence at all, for nearly their entire list of publications consists of works which they were able to appropriate because there were no *legal* barriers to prevent it, and their final collapse seems very like an instance of poetic justice.

— It has for some time been thought not unlikely that Shakspere's dark beauty, the "woman colour'd ill" of the Sonnets, might prove to be Mary Fitton, daughter of Sir Edward Fitton, and one of Queen Elizabeth's maids of honor. According to this theory, it was Shakspere whom Mary Fitton threw over for William Herbert, by whom she had a child, the birth of which was the occasion of Herbert's imprisonment in the Fleet. Mr. Thomas Tyler and the Rev. W. A. Harrison have been following up this line of research, and several pieces of evidence that they have discovered have been made known in print. The *Academy* of October 5 contains the last. While many facts have pointed to Mary Fitton as the dark beauty, it has hitherto been impossible to prove that she was, in fact, dark. No hint at her complexion was to be found. But lately Mr. Tyler, who desired to have a portrait of her for his forthcoming book, bethought him of her effigy upon her father's tomb at Gawsworth, and went down to Cheshire to sketch it. To his great delight, he found that, as was not uncommon in Elizabeth's time, the statues on the tomb were colored. The eyes and hair of Mary Fitton were plainly black, as were those of her sister, Anne, though their brother was fair. It seems strange enough that this piece of evidence should have been sought after for a considerable time before any one hit upon the simple plan of going to look at the tomb. Mr. Tyler's drawing will be of interest to everybody, for no one can be quite without curiosity to see what Shakspere's "evil angel" was like. The *Academy* describes her thus:

"Mary Fitton was a full-faced, bonny woman, with large, speaking eyes, and a loosish mouth, somewhat of the type of Chaucer's 'Wife of Bath,' as men imagine her. Her hair is brushed high off her forehead, and turned over a comb or wire underneath it, while a scarf or kerchief covers the rest of her hair. She wears a ruff. The sculptor has made her flat-chested, and some one has broken off her hands and the tip of her nose."

Mr. Tyler's book will be published by Mr. David Nutt. More than half of it is already in print.

— Mr. F. Legge, discoursing, in the *National Review* for September, on "The Origin of Modern Occultism," develops a fruitful idea touching the wonderful religion of Mme. Blavatsky and her enigmatic followers. This fancy, he contends, is derived, almost in its entirety, from a work by the late Rev. C. W. King, entitled 'The Gnostics and their Remains, Ancient and Mediæval.' By way of demolishing what Mr. Legge has demonstrated with a conclusiveness which few will dispute, the apostolic Col. Olcott has girded up his loins and stepped into the arena. In the issue of the *National Review* for the current month, he contrives to occupy ten pages with a true believer's history of "The Genesis of Theosophy"; and the history is one by which, like a good soldier, he has, beyond gainsay, established his intrepidity, if nothing else. According to the Colonel, the main revealers of the new faith to Mme. Blavatsky are certain far-off "Brothers," patriarchal in longevity, thanks to the efficacy of magic. Not sitting in the seat of the scornful, we leave it to others to suggest that motives of prudence have been at work in representing these "Brothers" as denizens of some secluded region, of whereabouts as yet undisclosed, safe in the bosom of the Himalaya Mountains. Their existence, it appears from the Colonel, was, however, announced somewhat prematurely. "I shall henceforth," he says, "try to abstain from even speaking of them, except to those who are prepared and anxious for the truth." Clearly enough, either they or he have blundered in policy, and likewise in prevision. As one of them travelled through the upper air all the way from Northern India to Col. Olcott's apartments in this city, abstractedly or otherwise leaving his turban behind him on his departure, it may, we should think, be surmised that he would hardly have made so long a journey if he had foreseen that he and his mates were destined to be ignominiously hushed up. Be this as it may, from that time forward, it is observable, the Colonel seems to have complacently washed his hands of his remarkable visitor, though retaining his headgear; inasmuch as, for aught that appears, he did not so much as make inquiries whether the ancient sage caught a catarrh in the course of his weary flight homeward.

—As to the doctrine of the "Brothers," none but the most imperfect and confused notion of it can be collected from what has been published about it by Mme. Blavatsky, Mr. Sinnett, Col. Olcott, or any or all of their nebulous communion. Is it that they are still dazed by the effulgence of the new light that has shone upon them? As every one is aware, the foolish things of the world have been chosen to confound the wise; and hence it is, presumably, that though not one of these illuminates has given proof of anything like even a moderate acquaintance with the Hindu religions and philosophies, they profess to have accepted them and aim to disseminate them. In the whole hierarchy there is, evidently, not a single Oriental scholar. While sprinkling their effusions with East Indian words, it is very rarely that they explain them at all correctly; and it is rather exceptional with them to know their orthography. Sanskrit and the Hindu vernaculars are to them all one. To go no farther, for evidence of what is here asserted, than Col. Olcott's paper now before us, we find in it *chelâs*—not, as he has it, "*chelas*"—spoken of as Sanskrit, though it is Hindî; and he puts "*sanyassis*" with an *n* wanting and an *s* interpolated, to say nothing of his neglect of diacritical marks, etc. Where, too, did he learn that "*mahatmas*"—rightly, *mahâtmâs*—means "perfect adepts," instead of simply "venerable persons"? That Sanskritists have not yet troubled themselves to expose the crudeness, not to say the crass nonsense, that has lately been vented about Brahmanism and Buddhism, is not to be wondered at; and yet the disagreeable task should, in the public interest, be undertaken by some one. To what extent the new-fangled Theosophists are dupes, and to what extent they are conscious impostors and charlatans, we shall, in good time, have opportunity of judging. In the meanwhile there can be no question that their crazy deliverances betray the grossest ignorance, and that these deliverances find acceptance, with minds of a certain cast, chiefly by reason of their extravagance and impudence, let alone their vesture of mysterious jargon. But does Col. Olcott do well in not cultivating friendly relations between his co-disciples and the thaumaturgic "Brothers," saints wrapped in frost and devotion in their Himalayan hermitage? Probably he does at least for the present; since, as we gather from his words quoted above, his tactics are, that introduction to nonentities should be reserved as the beatitude of hopeless gulls or advanced lunatics. Here, for once, we discern,

in the gallant Colonel's proceedings, something that savours of the wisdom of the serpent.

—For the last four or five years Dr. Maurice Bloomfield, Associate Professor of Sanskrit in the Johns Hopkins University, has been busily at work preparing a critical text-edition of the "Kāuçika Sūtra," a ritual book of the 'Atharva Veda.' This work, undertaken for the American Oriental Society, was completed during the past summer. The typographical part had of course to be done abroad, for there are no Sanskrit types in this country. The printing was, however, not done in free-trade England, for the cheapness of labor in protected Germany operated in favor of the latter country. As the International Congress of Orientalists was to meet in Christiania and Stockholm in September, a half-dozen copies of the work were struck off in Germany, so that it might be presented to the Congress, though the plates are yet to be shipped to this country, and the work will be issued from the press of the American Oriental Society in New Haven. It was most natural that the editor should desire to have in his hands one of these copies, the first fruits, as it were, of his brain-travail for so long a period, and, accordingly, two copies (large volumes of over 500 pages each) were mailed him, one for his own private use and one for the President of the University. The sheets had been merely stitched together, with a paper cover containing the title of the volume and a dedication to the Congress of Orientalists. There was no press-mark, and of course no value could be attached, *for the book is not yet published.* By some occult calculation of values, however, a tax of $1.25 was levied on these volumes by the customs inspector. The editor appealed against this exaction to the powers that be in Washington, and was rewarded for his pains with a cool refusal from Secretary Windom to adjust the matter. While other Governments undertake the cost of publishing learned books which, from the nature of the case, can appeal to but a limited circle of readers, looking to scholastic distinction as a source of national pride, and therein finding their reward, *advance sheets* of the largest work in the Sanskrit field ever undertaken by an American (if we except Prof. Whitney's share in the divided editorship of the 'Atharva Veda') have been held for the payment of customs duties.

—The American Eclipse Expedition to West Africa left New York on the man-of-war *Pensacola* on October 16. Unfortunately, the *Pensacola* cannot carry sufficient coal to steam more than ten or twelve days, even with careful economy on the part of her engineers, which will necessitate sailing for the greater part of the distance. Prof. Todd, who is in charge of the Expedition, had hoped to reach his observing station at least a month before the eclipse takes place; but Capt. Yates, commanding the *Pensacola*, expressed his opinion that St. Paul de Loanda will not be reached before December 1. The eclipse occurs on the 22d of the same month, and the preparations for observing it are very extensive. Several instruments never before used in an eclipse will be employed, and a number of mechanical devices to facilitate the rapid changing of the photographic plates have been newly applied. The apparatus is very valuable and varied, and much of it has been lent by six or eight of our leading Eastern colleges. While the party will land at St. Paul de Loanda, the capital of Angola, the eclipse is not total there, and as soon as possible the expedition will proceed to the observing station. From a study of the region, and from private letters received by Prof. Todd from Angola, he thinks the most probable point for establishing his station will be at Muxima, a small trading-post on the Quanza River, about fifty miles from its mouth. A ruined fort nearly eighty feet above the town will afford an advantageous location for the instruments, and a line of small steamers upon the river will convey the party and the apparatus to this point.

— Angola, especially near the coast, is rather dry and arid, although the banks of the Quanza —the only navigable river south of the Congo —are tropically luxuriant in vegetation. Properly Angola includes those possessions of the Portuguese on the west coast which extend from the Congo southward to Cape Frio. Its boundaries in the interior are not well determined, but there are military posts extending perhaps 1,500 miles from the coast. The whole area is estimated at about 312,000 square miles. A plan was once considered to construct a line of forts entirely across the continent to connect Angola with the Portuguese colony of Mozambique in the east, but this has never been accomplished, although the country has been somewhat explored. Angola is subdivided into four districts—Ambriz, Angola proper, Benguela, and Mossamedes—while the authority of the Portuguese is paramount only in Angola itself. Outside they have fortified places, and the native chiefs are in some sense vassals, but not always to be depended upon. The Expedition numbers fifteen specialists, not only in astronomy, physics, and meteorology, but in anthropology, biology, osteology, ornithology, geology, and other branches of science. Among the members of the party generally a cheerful determination to outwit the dreaded African fever was manifested. While it is undoubtedly prevalent, and peculiarly fatal to foreigners in many localities, careful and healthful living mitigates its severity to a considerable degree. All possible courtesies and facilities have been offered by the Portuguese authorities, and very satisfactory results from the observations are anticipated.

A SOUTHERN FIRE-EATER.

Recollections of Mississippi and Mississippians. By Reuben Davis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

Our titular characterization of Mr. Davis is not intended to cast upon him an injurious reflection. It merely states a fact. In the course of his narrative Mr. Davis speaks of himself as a representative of the class known as "fire-eaters," and it does not appear that he objects to being so named and known. He has given us a very interesting and valuable book, a memoir that will serve the future historian of ante-bellum times to a remarkable degree, as revealing both a type of character and a state of society that had much significance among the proximate causes of the pro-slavery rebellion. Except its personal aspect, the book contains little that is new or strange. Even such well-known lives as those of Andrew Jackson, Thomas H. Benton, and Henry Clay bring us into the same circle of wild social lawlessness, into acquaintance with similar personal traits. But if we have had before an account of these things from the inside, written with absolute sympathy and complacency, it escapes our present recollection.

The book is very readable. It is written in a fresh and vigorous style, and we may not object to its floridity. This is part of the self-revelation; the style being, as we know, the man. A sentimental strain recurs at least as often as the chapters end. This, in connection with the author's story of his bouts and brawls, suggests

> "the mildest-mannered man
> That ever scuttled ship or cut a throat."

The naïveté of the story is its greatest charm. We must go to Benvenuto Cellini for an equally unconscious mixture of murder and religion. The author has not a suspicion that he is not a strictly moral and religious man. He passes without violence from the most proper moral and religious generalizations to the most astonishing recitals of his own barbarities, or those of others which he heartily approves. The general type showed in him at its best. He was frank, generous, simple, straightforward, chivalric, honest, quick to sympathize with outraged feebleness or innocence presented to him in a concrete way. In a different order of society one can imagine that he might have been a model citizen.

The absence of dates from his narration is irritating to exasperation, and we must go elsewhere to find the year of Mr. Davis's birth. He was born in 1813 in Tennessee, of Virginian parents, who removed to Alabama when he was five years old. His father was a Baptist minister, who "never doubted that it was his duty to knock down any rascal who happened to deserve such discipline." At sixteen he left home and crossed the near border into Mississippi to study medicine in Hamilton, then the county town of Monroe County. He writes of the Mississippians of that time, that

> "Although a God-fearing people—for infidelity was unknown — there was nothing straight-laced about their religion. . . . Their creed was generally simple: A man ought to fear God and mind his business. He should be respectful and courteous to all women. He should love his friends and hate his enemies. He should eat when he was hungry, drink when he was thirsty, dance when he was merry, vote for the candidate he liked best, and knock down any man who questioned his right to these privileges."

In 1832 he passed from medicine to law, and began its practice at Athens with a young wife, and but three dollars in his pocket. What a passion there was in the community for litigation is shown by the fact that in four years he had saved $20,000. At the spring term of the County Court in 1835 he brought four hundred and eighty suits. Made District Attorney, a frequent source of embarrassment was that in criminal suits the murderer was a personal friend, "for whom he had respect and friendship," and whom he thought "justifiable under the circumstances of the killing." Once, when he had witnessed the murder, his embarrassment was so great that he went into court with $500 in his hand with which he asked the Court to furnish counsel for the prosecution. When another friend, shortly after, killed his man, Davis resigned his office and tendered his services in his defence. He pulled him through. "Since that day," he writes, "I have defended over two hundred cases tried for murder, and never had the misfortune to have my man hung." Could any statement be more expressive of the quality of mercy in the administration of justice? It is very clear it was not strained.

Davis himself had never a doubt of a man's right to defend his person or his "honor" at the risk of another's life. With him it was a word and a blow, and if the blow was not first, it was nearly simultaneous. He could not have been more than seventeen when he had his first personal encounter. There was a question of precedence of claim upon the attention of one of the ladies at a ball:

> "I no sooner withdrew my adversary from the ladies than I challenged him to defend himself, and assaulted him with my pocket-knife. . . . This action I have never regretted,

holding that a man has a right to defend his honor whenever and by whomsoever assailed. Had I submitted tamely to this insult, my whole future career would have been blighted by it, and I should have lost all claim to the respect and good opinion of my fellow-citizens."

In 1841, or thereabouts, he had a characteristic encounter with Judge Howry, "an able jurist and most accomplished gentleman." Some difference arising on a point of law, the Judge, offended by his pertinacity, fined him fifty dollars, whereupon, "in a perfect blaze of sudden fury," he threw his pocket-knife point foremost at the Judge, to the end that he might order him to jail—for which insult he meant to shoot him down. The court was suddenly adjourned, and Davis and the Judge were dragged off in different directions by their friends. Later in the day they met at their hotel, and Davis asked an explanation, which was refused. Then Davis slapped the Judge's face, and the Judge seized a claw-hammer and gave him three tremendous blows upon the head, while he hacked away blindly at the Judge's throat with his knife, which he had recovered. Again separated, Davis sent the Judge a warning not to appear unarmed, as he would attack him at sight. He, however, concluded not to do so, when reminded of a remarkable dream he had had the night before, which seemed a warning of his death.

"The court met that evening. I had put on a fur cap, with the back part before to conceal my wounds, and the judge wore his overcoat with the collar well drawn up, to hide the tokens of combat on his person. . . . I did not meet Judge Howry for seven years after this affair. . . . I promptly replied [having been approached in a friendly manner] that I thought nothing of the affair; that Howry was a gentleman, and that our difficulty was casual and without malice. Although it had been a death struggle, it had been about almost nothing."

The point of view and the local color come out strongly in the characterizations of Davis's contemporaries, which are very numerous. Davis was very soon "Old Reube," and it is Tom this and Charlie that and Jim or Jack another. "There was Joe Davis, elder brother of our revered ex-President, who was beloved by all who knew him. He was admitted arbiter of every question of honor, and his decision was always final." The mentions of Jefferson Davis are very slight, but always ardently enthusiastic. The impression given is not that which has been general at the North, where Davis has been thought of as the opposite of Lincoln, in his coldness and his inability to make himself an object of wide popular affection. We are told that "there was something about Davis which captivated the imagination and exalted him into a hero, dearer than all others to the popular heart." A very impressive account is given of the inauguration of Davis, following hard on the surrender of Fort Donelson, in which the narrator saw the beginning of the end. "From that day of evil omen he trod firmly and steadily the path that led him to his cell in Fortress Monroe, where, in his dauntless captivity, he was crowned with the passionate love and reverence of millions who had followed him to ruin and defeat."

In the description of his friends, our author's preliminary adjectives of copious praise are often in amusing contrast with the particulars that afterwards appear. He regrets how little the real character of Col. McClung, Jefferson Davis's Lieutenant-Colonel in the Mexican war, has been understood, and then he pictures him eating his solitary lunch at a restaurant, with a large duelling pistol on either side of his plate, a bottle of wine and a bowie-knife between them, in which attitude, and with a corresponding temper, he encountered him with two friends, and barely brought them off alive. Early in the war Breckinridge was often at Davis's headquarters at Bowling Green. "He was a goodly sight, sitting on stool or table, with a glass of old shuck in his hand, and that grand voice vibrating through the tent like a deep-toned bell."

There is some general praise of temperance, but it is evident that none of Mr. Davis's recollections make him happier than those of the five gallons of mint-julep at one sitting, and of many a night when he and others drank together till the morning broke. "What nights those were! How brave and generous, how gay and jovial; what wit and humor sparkled with the wine!" A drunkard's grave was the end of many a brilliant fellow. There is one lively picture of the Mississippi Legislature, in a body, gloriously drunk, parading the streets of the capital in the small hours of the morning, singing a jolly song. The hospitality was boundless as the drink. When Davis was in Congress, he invited the whole county to a party at his house. He spent as easily as he earned. He was always going security for a friend, until he reckoned that he had lost $75,000 by this genial disposition.

In the Mexican War he received a colonelcy, but he speaks with bitterness of that experience. It "broke his life in two," and he dates from it the misfortunes of his subsequent career, which consisted, so far as he reports, of political disappointments occasioned by the enmities which originated with his brief command. He had had no military training; his regiment was reduced by almost constant sickness and never got a chance to fight. And so it happened that where Jefferson Davis got much glory, he got only curses for his pains. After many disappointments he was finally elected to the National Legislature, and took his seat in the Thirty-fifth Congress in December, 1857. He had no definite convictions, but he went with the tide, and this was setting strongly towards secession. Quitman said to him at once: "You must move up, Davis, or you will be left behind." He answered: "No, not left behind, because wherever Mississippi goes she takes me with her." After that, he tells us, he kept pace with the rest, but he had the frankness to say, everywhere, that war was in sight.

The policy of the leaders was to decry the chance of war, partly because they thought secession could be accomplished without a fight, and partly because they thought secession without war would be more popular. The impression is very strong, in general, that the popular feeling had to be much forced and juggled with in order to bring it into line with the wishes of the chief conspirators. Mr. Davis's account of his two Congressional terms, and the course of secession and the war, is much too brief. He characterizes few of the men he met in Washington, but his account of Giddings is one of the most elaborate in his book, and is, despite its misconception and misrepresentation, a fine tribute to the "noblest Roman of them all":

"I never saw a more remarkable man, nor one who was inspired by a spirit of more concentrated bitterness. He was very old and infirm, but his hatred for the South and for slavery glowed like the hot fire of youth in his veins, and seemed potent enough to vivify with new energies his exhausted frame. The hoarded hate of a lifetime gleamed in his sunken eyes, and gave ferocity to a voice that was like the growl of a tiger about to spring upon his prey. I used to watch him with the sort of fascinated interest which the display of strong and sustained passion is sure to create, and I remember how the alertness of his attitude and the suppressed passion of his face used to suggest to me the idea of some fierce creature crouching for a spring. To this day I believe that it would have given him pleasure to behold the South desolated with the sword and with famine and with pestilence until neither man, woman, nor child remained. He had poured out so much tenderness upon the slaves that there was not a drop of pity in his heart for even the innocent babes of the slaveholders. Owing to the infirmities of his great age, he could not make a long speech without bringing on convulsions, but he was always in his place, suggesting and planning every movement and the soul of every aggressive measure. Instead of moderating the stormy passions of the younger men, the glare of his furious eyes woke up responsive fires in both friend and foe."

He contrasts Tom Corwin with Giddings, greatly to the latter's disadvantage. Corwin is "that good man." "He would gladly have saved the Union and averted war by any possible concession." In 1859, when there was a long fight over the Speakership, Davis spoke four hours in the fiercest manner of his set to kill time—a device necessary for the defeat of Sherman. Corwin replied to him in such a way that many a time afterwards his words came back to him like a prophecy, "especially in the dark days when defeat followed defeat and destruction was upon us."

Davis's part was henceforth a leading one in the secession movement. Immediately after the election of Lincoln, it was upon his motion that a convention was called "to secede the State of Mississippi by separate action, such action to take effect *eo instanti*." This was at a special conference to which there came a telegram from South Carolina, asking advice—whether it should secede at once, at the then imminent Secession Convention, or make its ordinance inoperative till the 4th of March. Davis moved they be advised to secede at once. Returning to Washington, "I spent much of my time," he says, "in consultation with Mr. Floyd, Secretary of War, who had been for twelve months, and still was, engaged in sending to the Southern arsenals all available arms under his control." As one of the committee of thirty-three appointed December 10, 1860, to consider the danger, serving against the wishes of Jefferson Davis, he soon proved that he was actuated by no conciliatory spirit. Making himself "the mouthpiece of a wronged and outraged people," his tone was admirably calculated to put the Northern men upon their mettle. Later he moved that the Committee adjourn and report that "no remedy remained but the final appeal to the God of battles." It was at his rooms on the 14th that a manifesto was prepared and sent to all parts of the South, declaring "that argument was exhausted, and that the whole action of the Committee showed a determination to go to the extent of emancipation," though non-extension had been the boldest word. On the 15th he proposed a resolution merely "to show the hopelessness of any agreement": "Be it resolved, that the Constitution of the United States of America recognizes property in the slave, and that it is as much the duty of the general Government to give protection to that species of property, both at sea and on land, as to any other species of property known to our institutions and laws." Corwin's vote as chairman defeated the resolution, on which there was a tie—fifteen to fifteen. This, it seems, was not a "possible concession."

"With a fierce pang of renunciation," as he crossed the Potomac on his way to Mississippi, January 5, looking back on the Capitol, he saw the Stars and Stripes drooping in the still, cold air. Appointed Major-General in place of Jefferson Davis, who had resigned in order to preside over the Southern Constitutional Convention, eighty companies

were accepted and ordered into camp at his instigation. So little general apprehension was there of the task in hand that this measure was denounced as a piece of useless and wicked extravagance, but it was justified by the event. After a brief term in the field, he went to Richmond to represent his district in the Confederate Congress. "Every step taken up to that time had been, I thought, defeated by tardiness of movement and inadequate preparation, and I could discover no indications of an improved system for the future." He never could. He was all the way along entirely out of conceit with the Southern conduct of the war. On the Military Committee of the House he urged the concentration of the whole available force of the South into two invading columns. Meeting with no response, he resigned from the Committee, and assumed the rôle of Achilles sulking in his tent. After a speech denouncing the whole military policy of the Government, which gave great offence to the Administration, so that afterwards he had no influence, and indeed no personal intercourse, with the heads of Government, he felt himself "a mere spectator in the final acts of our tragedy."

Of the twenty-five years since the fulfilment of his prophecies, there is no account—only a foregleam, in the course of the narrative, of a second marriage which brought children to a childless man, and of his separation from the Democratic party in 1878. His fiery blood was slow to cool, and in 1873 he was shot down in a court-room brawl. His impressions of the new South would have been a welcome addition to his book, but we must not ask too much. An excellent photograph, with eyes like gleaming bayonets, and a mouth like an iron clamp, is an exact reflection of the man who reveals himself to us so frankly in the pages of his book.

MEDIÆVAL ANECDOTES AND JESTS.

L'Esprit de nos Aïeux: Anecdotes et bons mots tirés des manuscrits du xiiie siècle par A. Lecoy de la Marche. Paris: C. Marpon & E. Flammarion. 18mo, pp. xvii, 306.

TWENTY years ago M. de la Marche attracted attention to a long neglected source of mediæval history by his work on the French pulpit in the middle ages ('La Chaire Française au Moyen Âge,' Paris, 1868). It was the custom then as now for preachers to enliven their sermons by the insertion of anecdotes, many of which are valuable for the history of manners and customs, and many others are of interest as throwing some light upon the question of the diffusion of popular tales. Sermons in which anecdotes (technically called *exempla*) occur are not older than the thirteenth century, and Jacques de Vitry, the historian of the Crusades, who died in 1240, is said to have been the first to introduce these stories regularly into sermons. His own are crowded with them, three or four often occurring in succession in one sermon. They were subsequently collected into books by themselves, and served as storehouses from which subsequent preachers drew, often without any acknowledgment of their source. Nor was the use of anecdotes or illustrative stories confined to sermons alone. They were profusely employed in treatises designed for preachers and in expository works; one of the most famous of the class of treatises being that of Étienne de Bourbon, 'Tractatus de diversis materiis prædicabilibus,' partially edited by M. de la Marche in 1877 for the Société de l'Histoire de France, under the title, 'Anecdotes historiques, légendes, et apologues tirés du recueil inédit d'Étienne de Bourbon.

In order to bring this interesting material to the notice of the general reader, M. de la Marche has made a selection of 150 stories, chiefly from the two preachers mentioned above, Jacques de Vitry and Étienne de Bourbon, and from a collection in the Library of Tours, MS. 454. These furnish, respectively, thirty-six, seventy-two, and twenty-eight stories, the remaining fourteen being taken from other preachers of the thirteenth century. The author has arranged his material, according to the various classes of society, into seven chapters: the secular clergy, monks, kings and queens, lords and gentlemen, citizens and people, women in general, and students and their masters. This arrangement is that adopted by some of the old collections of *exempla* and by Jacques de Vitry in his 'Sermones Vulgares.'

The contents of the collection may be broadly divided into two classes: historical anecdotes and jests; the former of great interest for the student of mediæval culture, the latter for the student of folk-lore. Sometimes the two classes blend, as in the anecdote (47) of the King Philippe-Auguste, who met one day a rogue who asked for alms on the ground that he was a relation. "On which side are you my relation?" asked the King. "On Adam's side," was the answer. "Well, give him a penny," said the King to his servants. "That is not a royal gift," remarked the beggar. "My friend," replied the King, "if I gave as much to all my relatives on that side, I should have nothing left for myself." It was the same king who once had a fever, and wanted to quench his thirst with wine, but his physician refused to give him anything but water reddened with wine. "At least," said the King, "let me drink the wine first and the water afterwards; the mixture will be the same." The physician at last consented, but when Philippe had drunk the wine, he pushed the water away and said: "Now I am no longer thirsty."

We must not rely implicitly on the historical value of all the anecdotes, as, for example, the story of Saladin (50), who on his death-bed asked a Jew which was the best religion. The Jew naturally answered his own, but acknowledged that if he abandoned it, he would choose Christianity. A Pagan made the same reply, and finally a Christian declared that if he forsook Christianity, he would hasten to choose—Christianity. After this Saladin did not hesitate to be baptized. The same Sultan, just before his death, commanded his shroud to be borne through the cities and towns of his empire with these words: "The great Saladin, lord of twelve kingdoms, takes nothing else with him from this world."

Many anecdotes show the cruelty with which the poor were treated, as where (78) a rapacious provost ordered his servant to seize the cow of a poor widow. He had no sooner uttered his order than the judgment of God smote him, and for the rest of his life he could only pronounce the words, "Touche la vache." The bailiff of a powerful lord went so far (79) as to advise his master to lay a tax upon the sun in his domains, and charge his serfs a shilling for each piece of cloth they bleached. The unjust judge is ridiculed in the widespread story (88) of the woman who was told to "grease" the judge's hand, and obeyed the injunction literally. Women as usual come in for more than than their share of bitter raillery. In one anecdote (115) a woman would not confess her sins to the priest, so he rang the bells, convoked the people, and said he was going to show them the most precious relics that had ever been preserved of any mortal except the Virgin—those of a woman who had not sinned—and announced his intention of enclosing her in a golden shrine. The sinner was naturally put to confusion and confessed her heinous deeds. A preacher (118) did not hesitate to say that the efforts which Pilate's wife made to save Christ were solely to oppose the salvation of mankind. The story of the "Matron of Ephesus" is not wanting (123), while the custom of wearing false hair and painting the face affords matter for several amusing stories.

Under the class of jests may be included also those stories which are found everywhere in popular literature, such as the "Matron of Ephesus" just mentioned. Among these are (31) the legend of the Monk Felix (in Longfellow's 'Golden Legend'), the Cranes of Ibycus (81), the priest who prided himself on his voice, and who made one of his parishioners weep—because he reminded her so of her lost donkey (13); the young hermit who was told that women, whom he saw for the first time, were geese, and later cried for one of those geese (33), a story made famous by Boccaccio; the Jew who was converted by seeing the Christian religion withstand the evil example of its professors (51), also in Boccaccio; the king who bought the advice, "In all your actions consider to what end they may lead you," which maxim, written on all the royal linen, saves the king's life by terrifying the barber who had been bribed to kill him (61), also in the 'Gesta Romanorum,' c. 103.

Many other stories equally interesting we must pass over. Much of the contents has already seen the light in the author's edition of Étienne de Bourbon, but the extracts from Jacques de Vitry are mostly inedited. They will soon appear in Prof. Crane's complete edition of that author's 'Exempla,' to be published by the English Folk-Lore Society.

MORSE'S FRANKLIN.

Benjamin Franklin. By John T. Morse, jr. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

LEST the reader should not discover that this latest Franklin biography is largely a perfunctory piece of work, the author tells us that it is, and almost in so many words. This was quite unnecessary. That any one could produce a life of Franklin—of all men in the world—which could be read listlessly and with flagging interest, is well-nigh incredible; and that Mr. Morse himself, after the skilful treatment of his subject in his volume on John Quincy Adams and other members of this series, should come so near doing it, is indeed a disappointment.

Yet this is a volume which should not be passed over by readers who are interested in obtaining an adequate idea of Franklin's life and career; and it is precisely because many readers may find the temptation to do this a strong one that attention should be directed to several important portions of Mr. Morse's narrative. The first of these is his chapter on the Hutchinson letters, which, though avowedly a brief summary of the affair, is certainly one of the most adequate and satisfactory to which the reader may be referred. In this episode there are at least two distinct phases to be considered, namely, its moral quality as affecting Franklin personally, and its practical bearing as related to current political conditions. As regards the former, Mr. Morse very wisely does not reëcho the "elaborateness and vehemence of the exculpations put forth" by some previous writers. "Yet," he urges, one "would wish to know from whom these letters came to Franklin's hands, the information then given him concerning them, and the authority which the giver might be supposed to have over them." Upon these essential

matters, he adds, "there is absolutely no evidence." Scarcely less important is it to appreciate the real political bearing of these letters. It was through Hutchinson's suggestions that the sending of the troops to Boston and other similar measures had been determined on. The revulsion of feeling against the Loyalists of New England constituted for many years after the Revolution, and indeed down to a comparatively recent time, a kind of mist through which it was for the most part impossible to obtain anything but a blurred and distorted view of their standing and influence. Therefore it is in every way pertinent for Mr. Morse to remind his readers that Hutchinson, a native of Massachusetts, as well as an officer of the Government, was a man of such standing that "the English Government had a perfect right to rely upon the soundness of his statements and opinions."

Another point which Mr. Morse's account makes plain is, that Franklin, in his diplomatic endeavors abroad, had much more of a hostile influence to contend with than was represented by Arthur Lee alone. The embittered feeling which in Lee's case was so prominently manifested, was abundantly shared by Samuel Adams and a large following in New England, as an examination of the correspondence of Arthur Lee renders clear. Mr. Morse very justly observes that Samuel Adams "felt towards Franklin that distrust and dislike which a limited but intense mind often cherishes towards an intellect whose vast scope and noble serenity it cannot comprehend." Inestimable as were Samuel Adams's services in other directions, the thwarting influence which he exerted in America, while his great kinsman, John Adams, was chafing with jealousy of Franklin abroad, needs to be borne in mind in estimating the weighty results actually achieved by Franklin. Mr. Morse has, however, one comment on Mrs. John Adams which is likely to provoke inquiry in the minds of his readers. After quoting language used by her in 1775, eulogistic of Franklin in the extreme, he remarks: "The time came when her husband would not have *let* her speak thus in praise of Benjamin Franklin." We fear that Mr. Morse underestimates the independence and original force of character of Mrs. Abigail Adams.

On the subject of the Treaty of Peace with England in 1783, and the negotiations leading to it, Mr. Morse has an advantage over his predecessors, in being able to avail himself of the new and important materials brought to light within the last few years. Of these he makes good use, and this portion of his narrative may be commended as a lucid as well as compact statement of this whole series of events. It will be well worth the trouble involved if this chapter shall serve to induce his readers to study this transaction in Mr. Bigelow's eighth volume of Franklin's works, to which the repeated references given by Mr. Morse will be a direct aid. It is noteworthy that Mr. Morse, in common with nearly every recent writer, holds, in the matter of the interesting Vaughan episode, to the view maintained by Mr. John Jay in his examination of his grandfather's career, rather than to that maintained by Mr. Bancroft. Mr. Morse forbears, however, from treating this subject with any detail, since, as he announces, the volume on Jay, soon to appear in this same series, "will contain a very full and accurate presentation of this entire affair, drawn from those sources which have only very recently become public, and which go far to remove former questions out of the realm of discussion."

Mr. Morse pathetically claims the sympathy of his readers in view of the fact that, for the period ending with 1757, any modern account of Franklin maintains but an unequal competition with the immortal Autobiography of Franklin himself. It is also to be remembered that the publication, only two years ago, of Mr. McMaster's volume, devoted distinctively to Franklin "as a man of letters," removes from among the materials now available some of the most important and attractive. In many instances, however, Mr. Morse has added to the interest of his volume by quoting from Franklin's own letters or other compositions. The famous letter to William Strahan in 1775 is printed at page 203, yet it would have been well, perhaps, to add in connection with it that a later letter of Franklin to Strahan, which has recently come to light and is printed in Hale's 'Franklin in France,' makes the letter of 1775, as Mr. Hale says, "more inexplicable than ever."

It is a pleasure to state that the index, as is usual with this valuable series, is admirably complete and a distinct assistance in the use of the book. It is perhaps in accordance with a certain familiar usage that Franklin's grandson appears in this index with no other given name than Temple; but the more accurate form, William Temple Franklin, is to be preferred as being less misleading. A more distinctly incorrect citation of a name is that of Gov. Hutchinson's great-grandson, Peter Orlando Hutchinson, whose first name Mr. Morse, at page 182, makes Thomas. In general the work is marked by that accuracy which is characteristic of these useful volumes.

Grammatik der Attischen Inschriften. Von Dr. K. Meisterhans. Zweite vermehrte und verbesserte Auflage. Berlin: Weidmann.

It is not "the unexpected that happens" this time. On the appearance of the first edition in 1885, the work at once became an authority, quoted and referred to on all hands, and it was a moral certainty that its author would have to issue a second and enlarged edition. In its new form the size and number of the pages are both increased, the former slightly, the latter considerably, as we now have 217 pages against the 109 of the previous edition. The index is about twice as extensive as the first one, and the *Inhaltsübersicht* has 90 sections instead of 50. It need not be said that Meisterhans has diligently and, as he says, *gewissenhaft*, made use of the work of the last three years in his line; and those teachers who read in the *American Journal of Philology* for December, 1886 (pp. 540 and 542), about O. Riemann's articles reviewing the work of Meisterhans, and who there read that these articles were "indispensable for those who use that indispensable book," will be comforted to know that, though they may not have had access to the *Revue de Philologie*, Meisterhans in this new edition has made special acknowledgment of Riemann's recensions, so that whatever he deemed valuable in those "indispensable" articles will be found incorporated here. Of course, too, other authorities are brought up to date; and we have, for example, the second edition of G. Meyer's Greek Grammar referred to instead of the first.

If the "shining light of one of our great centres of enlightenment" spoken of by the reviewer of Prof. Allen's revision of Hadley's Grammar—the one who said: "With Greek it is different: you either know it or you don't know it; and if you know it, that is all there is to it"—will make some use of this book and compare it with the grammars in use, he will *perhaps* begin to doubt his dictum. And the "modest schoolmaster" likewise spoken of there will find light let in on various points that may have perplexed him. Many a plodding pedagogue, with all his industry, fails to find anywhere a reason for the changes he is compelled to make in familiar statements. He cannot be a specialist in the various lines of research. Most likely he is very far from being a specialist in *any* of these lines. He may even be filled with despair when he finds specialties so minutely subdivided that a question addressed to one of the most illustrious of our scholars is referred by him to "a specialist in diphthongs." But with all this he may like to have an intelligent idea of the reasons for all these changes. We will undertake to point out here the conflicting statements to be found in regard to a few of the matters that the weary schoolmaster has to present to his pupils in their elementary stages.

If he was brought up under the old edition of Hadley's Grammar, he learned ἄστεος as the genitive of ἄστυ, and was told in a note that ἄστεως occurs, but less often. In Goodwin's Grammar he finds ἄστεως in a note, and it is said to be poetic. Krüger and Kühner both give ἄστεος, and the latter devotes a note to ἄστεως, telling how extremely rare it is. But Liddell and Scott give ἄστεως as the Attic form; and the new Hadley gives it in the paradigm in good fat black type, and a note says that ἄστεος is poetic. If he can get hold of the 'Thesaurus,' he finds that the volume containing ἄστυ bears the date of 1831–1856, and ἄστεως is there given as the Attic form, with Rangabé referred to as an authority. Maybe he does not just exactly know who Rangabé was or is. Meisterhans, however, comes to his help, and quotes among his authorities the same work of Rangabé that Dindorf quotes in the 'Thesaurus,' and 1842 is the year of its publication. Well, our schoolmaster thinks, slow work that! Proof of the correctness of ἄστεως given in 1842, accepted by Dindorf in the 'Thesaurus' not later than 1856, and yet the new Hadley of 1884 is the first grammar he has found it in, and Kühner in 1869 rejected the proof and retained ἄστεος. Nay, the fight for recognition is harder than that, for, see: he takes Von Essen (one of his bosom friends by this time) and "strikes after" (as a German would say) ἄστυ in Thucydides. He finds the genitive singular given three times, all in the form ἄστεος. The text of Engelmann's translation gives this form in all three places, and so does Krüger's text. Stahl, on the contrary, has ἄστεως in the two instances in the eighth book, so that in 1874 this form received that much recognition; but then Classen, with Stahl's example before him, gives ἄστεος throughout, and this in 1878. So the matter does not seem to be settled yet. We learn from Meisterhans that ἄστεος is not found in inscriptions at all, only ἄστεως. How the doctors do differ!

What paradigms are dearer to the heart of the "gerund grinder" than γένος and βασιλεύς? They are both of them good old standbys—that is, if there are any such. The old Hadley gave only γενῶν as genitive plural. In Goodwin γενέων or γενῶν is found. So in Kühner, who says γενέων occurs very often even in Attic prose. Krüger gives both. But the new Hadley gives only the form in -ῶν, and is fully borne out by Meisterhans, the form -έων not being found in inscriptions. But if we go by this, we must write γένει in the dual, instead of γένῃ, and πόλει instead of πόλεε, and this innovation has not obtained any sort of foothold yet, so far as we know. Then, as to βασιλεύς, Prof. Allen's reviewer objected to seeing βασιλῆς treated with so little respect as to be "shoved aside into a note." Reinach had

already told us (p. 279), on the basis of Wecklein's investigations, that -ῆς was the correct form till towards 350 B. C., and had said that in Thucydides *il faut partout rétablir* -ῆς. Meisterhans gives the same data. Of making many grammars there is no end, and it remains to be seen how soon a new crop of boys will learn βασιλῆς as the nominative plural, and find βασιλεῖς in a fine-print note, and so "skip" it.

But how shall inscriptions, texts, and grammars walk together, except they be agreed, as they certainly are not now? To be taught that βασιλῆς is the right form, and to be constantly meeting βασιλεῖς, is too unsettling a matter for schoolboys. The demand will no doubt become more and more imperious that the forms handed down to us by the copyist shall be corrected in conformity with the testimony of the rocks. Some years ago we heard a very noted German professor criticise Stein's text of Herodotus, because he paid so little regard to accepted facts ascertained from inscriptions.

One of the additions in the new Meisterhans is the first paragraph under Conjugation, §61, 1, in regard to η or ει as the ending in the present middle. Unfortunately the trumpet gives a somewhat uncertain sound in this case. "Die 2. Pers. S. Med. (primär) scheint seit dem iv. Jahrhundert auf -ει geendigt zu haben." *Seems*, and only one example given, is not very encouraging, especially as we had noted the omission of anything on this point in the first edition, and were on the lookout for it. Still, the only conclusion to be drawn is that prior to 378 the ending had been η. The matter is not without interest. We were all brought up on "λύῃ or λύει." But Prof. Allen in his preface states that, "in the interest of a stricter Atticism, η in the second person singular middle has been dropped"; and in § 384 he states that ει is the form in Attic, η in all other dialects (except Ionic). This disposes summarily of Kühner's long excursus on the subject in his edition of the 'Memorabilia,' and of the long paragraph on the subject in his Grammar (p. 536). And though η occurs in the texts, that is no reason, as we have seen, for adhering to it. What is our perplexity then (and by "our" we mean the large class of teachers who are struggling to keep at least within sight of what the scholars are doing), to find that G. Meyer, §143 and §466, quietly gives η as the form. "Att. η: λύῃ." And not only so, but in a note on page 157 he speaks of βούλει and οἴει as being *exceptions* difficult to account for. How often, in the days of our childhood, have we heard about the faithful three, βούλει, οἴει, and ὄψει, that never have η in the indicative! Of course there is no need for this (in Attic), if *all* verbs have only ει. But then, what has become of ὄψει? Prof. Allen makes provision for βούλει and οἴει in the common dialect, but never a syllable about ὄψει. Meyer speaks of βούλει and οἴει, but never a syllable about ὄψει. What has become of it? It has a host of friends who intend to stand by it and see justice done.

Other matters which we look for without finding are, the dative singular of neuters of the third declension in -ας, as γῆρας, κρέας, etc. The books vary greatly between -αι and ᾳ in the dative, the tendency being towards -αι, while ᾳ still holds its ground pretty firmly in our texts. Meisterhans is equally silent about ειν or η in the pluperfect active. As we strive to trace out some of these matters, we are reminded of a sentence by the editor of the *American Journal of Philology:* There is many a man who wishes he had never been born, by reason of the connecting vowel.

Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians. Edited by John Denison Champlin. Critical editor, W. F. Apthorp. Vols. I. and II. Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is not customary for dictionaries of music or of any other art or science to be printed in an *édition de luxe*, but the present work starts out in its career in such a garb. Only 550 copies are printed, 50 of which are intended for the English market, and there will be three volumes in all at $25 each. It is not, therefore, a work so much for the student of music as for the wealthy amateur and patron of the art. This fact has apparently guided the editor in his choice of material. The student, for instance, looking for historic or technical information under such heads as Greek Music, Gregorian Chant, Counterpoint, Canon, Cantata, will be disappointed in finding no such entries; while the amateur who does not as a rule care for such information, but who often is haunted by the words of a melody which he cannot trace to its source, will be pleased to find that he has only to turn to this Encyclopædia under the first word of the song to find it referred to the opera, etc., to which it belongs; and, pursuing his search to the opera itself, he will find its plot given in full, together with the date of its first performance, the first cast, etc.

This merging of the plan of an opera-lexicon like Riemann's with the usual musical dictionary is a valuable feature of the present work; but, owing to the absence of technical and general historic articles, the title, 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians,' must be regarded as a misnomer. It should have been rather 'A Dictionary of Composers and their Works'—composers, and not musicians, because mere performers do not receive special notice, however famous, but only the creative musicians. There are, however, many costume portraits of eminent singers accompanying the articles on operas in which they have specially distinguished themselves—such as Materna as *Brünnhilde*, Minnie Hauck as *Carmen*, Albani as *Elsa*, etc. The list of minor biographies is more full than in any other musical cyclopædia, especially in the department of American biography, which includes not a few ephemeridæ whose names will never get into any other dictionary. Indeed, in looking at all these names, once more or less eminent in music, the transitoriness of fame is vividly brought to mind. Most of them are *vox et præterea nihil*—and to the public not even an empty name.

The portraits which accompany all these biographical notices of the first, second, and third order of merit constitute an extremely valuable feature of the work. There is one on the average to every page—more than a thousand in all; and besides these there are in the two volumes twenty-four beautiful full-page etched portraits of the great masters, including Auber, Bach, Beethoven, Bellini, Berlioz, Boieldieu, Brahms, Cherubini, Chopin, Donizetti, Franz, Gluck, Gounod, Handel, Haydn, Lasso, Liszt, Lully, Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer, Mozart, Paine, Palestrina, Purcell. Moreover, there are autographs, facsimiles of famous compositions, views of birth-places, medals, monuments, caricatures—everything, in short, that an *édition de luxe* ought to have. There are few marks of original research, and little that cannot be found in Mendel, Fétis, Riemann, and Grove. In the three features enumerated, however—the numerous portraits, the very complete biographic list, and the combining Riemann's 'Opera Lexicon' with the ordinary dictionary—Mr. Champlin's cyclopædia is unique. Nor must we omit mention of the very useful list of works on music and musicians which takes up ten pages of the first volume. The encyclopædia is printed on heavy paper and elegantly bound.

The Quiet Life. Certain Verses by Various Hands: the Motive set forth in a Prologue and Epilogue by Austin Dobson; the whole adorned with numerous Drawings by Edwin A. Abbey and Alfred Parsons. Harper & Bros. Pp. iv, 98.

Much of the contents of this book has been made familiar to us in the pages of *Harper's Magazine*. If this seems depreciatory, as implying that the book is an old story, there is, at all events, nothing more to be said, unless one were to accuse the cover of being rather harsh in effect. The design of it is an intelligent one, and smacks pleasantly of famous bindings of the last century in its sowing of gold sprigs on a dark-red ground; but something about it—either the shade of the leather, or the rather heavy outer borders, or the very large letters which form a part, or all together—make a cover less agreeable than so carefully thought-out a scheme should be. Now, as to the really delightful contents. A prologue by Mr. Austin Dobson tells the purpose of the book, namely, to aid its readers and the students of its pictures to withdraw from the racket into country quiet and remote peacefulness. An epilogue by the same author—an epilogue of four lines—may as well be quoted:

"Let the dream pass, the fancy fade!
We clutch a shape, and hold a shade.
Is peace so peaceful? Nay, who knows?
There are volcanoes under snows."

This seems to be a grim suggestion that the tranquillity which the book undertakes to preach and to give can only be temporary for unhappy men.

The body of the book is made up of well-known poems, of classics, some old, and some not so old; namely, Andrew Marvell's admirable poem beginning—

"How vainly men themselves amaze,"

which is easily the finest poem in the book, and would often be the best in any collection of which it might form a part; Abraham Cowley's stanzas known as "The Wish," and Praed's two poems, "Quince" and "The Vicar"; Pope's "Ode to Solitude"; Randolph's "To Master Anthony Stafford," and "The Married Man," by an unknown author, the three four-line stanzas like a little hymn, beginning—

"I only am the man,
Among all married men,
Who do not wish the priest
To be unlinked again."

Each of these poems is overwhelmingly illustrated, as the readers of *Harper's Magazine* will remember. There are pictures to every stanza, sometimes two or three of them, a headpiece and a tailpiece; and full-page illustrations interpose themselves between the verses of each poem. It is hardly necessary to praise or to analyze Mr. Abbey's work, which has become so well known and is always so welcome to the audience to which this book appeals. The large figure-pieces seem to be generally Mr. Abbey's; the head and tailpieces, by Mr. Parsons, are very pretty studies of landscape, details of tree and flower, and distant peeps of church spire and sky. They harmonize perfectly with Mr. Abbey's work, and it is not until we turn to the full-page landscapes, as, for instance, those which illustrate Thomas Randolph's poem, that there is any feeling of insufficiency of thought; and in suggesting this it is not meant that they are not interesting, but that the large page is, perhaps, less full of matter in proportion than the small

vignette. The landscape on page 89 seems to us the best of Mr. Parsons's designs, and that cannot be said to be lacking in interest. There is always the suspicion that the process engraving does not adequately represent the original drawing, especially in the most delicate parts; but this is more apparent in Mr. Abbey's designs than in those by his colleague. After all pros and cons are stated, the conclusion is that here is a charming book, which it will be hard for this season's collection of gift-books to surpass in permanent value.

Convenient Houses, with fifty plans for the Housekeeper. By Louis H. Gibson, Architect. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

SYSTEMATIC treatises on the planning of houses are rare. It takes more leisure than an experienced architect is apt to have to make such a treatise, say, as Prof. Kerr's 'English Gentleman's House,' in which the subject is analyzed and its principles logically displayed in a way to be profitable for those whose business it is to plan. So, although architectural practice in the United States has developed characteristics of plan which deserve record and study, we have still to wait for any such analysis of their principles as shall be a useful guide to the student. Meanwhile we have many books, such as Mr. E. C. Gardner's series of clever volumes, or Mr. Holly's 'Modern Dwellings,' which, aimed at the public rather than the professional student, rely on recipe more than analysis. They teach by example and comment, in a sort of kindergarten method, better adapted, perhaps, than the analytic to persons who want to get houses for themselves instead of devising them for others.

One of the most practical of these books is the one before us, which is intended, as the author says, to deal with houses in a housekeeping spirit. It contains plans for fifty houses, mostly of a very modest kind, with exteriors of several, comments, and an essay on how to build them. The author is a practising architect, who writes with knowledge, clearness, and sense. Naturally, the practical details of planning and construction get most attention. The plans do not lack invention, and the amateur house-builder should get a good deal of useful instruction from them and from their commentary. Certain technicalities and suggestions of local habit agree with the Western home rather than the Eastern; but the good sense is at home everywhere. There is sensible suggestion for the inexperienced in this:

"We often hear the statement made that one can tell nothing about the cost of a house till it is finished. One can come as near knowing what a house will cost as he can to knowing what he wants before he begins. One can get prices on what he has in mind, if his ideas be expressed. He cannot get prices on the unknown. . . . The fact that architects' estimates are often too low, is because the owner is not sufficiently informed in house-building to know what he wants until after the estimate is made. The owner usually expresses a price that he wishes to pay for his house before he expresses his idea."

Elementary Practical Physics: A Guide for the Physical Laboratory. By H. N. Chute, M.S., Teacher of Physics in the Ann Arbor High School. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1889.

THE teaching of Physics in this country has been of late years very much facilitated by the introduction of good experimental courses. These are now common in the higher schools, and, with the aid of good teachers and good text-books, are likely to exert a very marked influence in the progress of science. We venture to assert that they will do more: that they will aid materially in inculcating the scientific method of looking at all questions, and the scientific as distinguished from the sentimental habit of thought. Mr. Chute's work contains a large number of simple and well-chosen experiments such as can in general be made with cheap apparatus, and is well suited to high schools and the smaller colleges. We notice a few omissions easily supplied. Thus the subject of inertia is not mentioned, yet it can be studied with great advantage by means of a common spring-balance and two or three weights. In Maxwell's admirable little work on 'Matter and Motion,' article cxxiii, there is a beautiful and simple experiment on the centre of oscillation and percussion which is well worth citing. The omissions, however, are not serious defects, and a small work has limits as to subjects. The work is a very good one, and well deserves attention.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitkin, G. A. The Life of Richard Steele. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $8.
Allen, W. B. The Red Mountain of Alaska. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.50.
Ames, Lucia True. Memoirs of a Millionaire. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bell, Mrs. Hugh. Théâtre de la Jeunesse: Twelve Little French Plays for School-Room and Drawing-Room. Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.
Belot, A. My Good Friend. Worthington & Co. 25 cents.
Champlin, J. D., jr. Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians. With more than 1,000 illustrations. Vols. I. and II. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Witch Winnie; The Story of a "King's Daughter." White & Allen.
Chisholm, G. G. Handbook of Commercial Geography. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Cinderella and the Little Glass Slipper. White & Allen.
Clavers, the Despot's Champion. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Comfort, Lucy Randall. Ida Chaloner's Heart. Geo. Munro. 25 cents.
Eyster, Nellie Blessing. A Colonial Boy. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports of Cases of General Value, Decided in Courts of Last Resort. Vol. VIII. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
French-Sheldon, M. Herbert Severance. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Frost, W. G. Alpha: A Greek Primer. Introductory to Xenophon. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Hawthorne, N. The Marble Faun. 2 vols. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hervey, Mrs. Charles. Putt's Notions. London: Jarrold & Sons.
Hill, G. B. Select Essays of Dr. Johnson. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Hints and Points for Sportsmen. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $1.50.
Holmes, O. W. The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Howitt, Margaret. Mary Howitt: An Autobiography. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $8.
Hubert, P. G., jr. The Nursery Lesson Book: A Guide for Mothers in Teaching Young Children. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Kingsley, C. Westward Ho! Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
Lowell, A. L. Essays on Government. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
McCarthy, J. Roland Oliver. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
Meredith, O. The Earl's Return. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Metzerott, Shoemaker. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Nichols, W. F. Topics in Geography. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
O'Reilly, H. Fifty Years on the Trail: A True Story of Western Life. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. The Struggle for Immortality. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Pollard, Josephine. Plays and Games for Little Folks. McLoughlin Brothers.
Redway, J. W. The Teacher's Manual of Geography. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Robins, C. M. The Tree of Knowledge. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
Russell, W. C. Marooned; A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Sanborn, Kate. The Rainbow Calendar. Boston Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Saunders, J. Chaucer's Canterbury Tales. Annotated and Accented, with Illustrations of English Life in Chaucer's Time. New ed. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Schönbach, A. E. Ueber Lesen und Bildung. 3d ed. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky.
Scott, R. P. Cycling Art, Energy and Locomotion. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Shapley, R. E. The New Revenue Act of Pennsylvania, and Parts of Previous Acts Still in Force. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co. $1.
Sheba: A Study of Girlhood. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
Strasburger, Prof. E. Handbook of Practical Botany. 2d ed. revised and enlarged. New York: Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Sturgis, J. Comedy of a Country House. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
Torrey, B. A Rambler's Lease. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Walker, S. F. Electricity in Our Homes and Workshops. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Ward, J. H. The Church in Modern Society. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wright, Henrietta C. The Princess Lillwinkins. Harper & Bros.
Wuarin, Prof. L. Le Contribuable; ou, Comment défendre sa bourse. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Yeats, W. B. Stories from Carleton. London: Walter Scott.
Zimmern, Helen. The Hansa Towns. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

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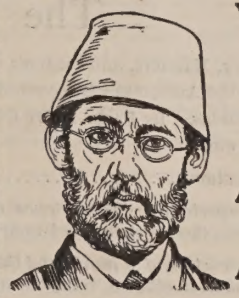

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It should be borne in mind that, so far as the Democrats and Independents are concerned, nothing could do more to clear the way for a Democratic Presidential candidate of high character in 1892 than the defeat of Hill's ticket this year. It would not hurt the party's prospects in any respect, and would improve them greatly. Nothing does more to prevent disappointed Republicans from leaving their party than the prominence and apparent power of Hill in the Democratic party. Then, too, the seeming approval of the Harrison Administration which a Republican victory would carry with it, would be greatly diluted by the evident fact that it was dislike of Hill and his smirched ticket rather than any liking for Republican spoils politics which decided the matter. Above and beyond all these considerations, it should be borne in mind that the duty of all good citizens is to vote for the best man, and there can be no doubt that the largest number of good men can be got into office by electing either the New York Republican ticket as a whole, or the Republican candidates for Attorney-General, Comptroller, and Court of Appeals, and the Democratic candidates for Secretary of State and State Engineer. There will also be opportunity to vote on the methods of the Harrison Administration in 1891 and 1892.

The Republicans of Buffalo have nominated for City Treasurer a man whose qualifications are found in a record as cook on a lake boat, keeper of a saloon, and understrapper in the Custom-house at $3 a day. The Democrats have nominated for the same office an able, energetic, and successful business man. The *Express* is a Republican newspaper, but it supports the Democratic candidate, "who," it says, "has every qualification and is a model candidate," on the ground that as between the two "no sane man would hesitate if he were choosing a custodian for millions which belonged to himself, nor ought he to hesitate when the millions belong to him in partnership with the remainder of the citizens of Buffalo." It is nowadays so rare to find a party journal supporting the nominee of the opposition on such common-sense grounds that a case of the sort attracts attention; but the time is coming when it will seem as absurd to go to the saloon for the treasurer of a municipal corporation as for the treasurer of a business corporation, and people will look back with wonder upon an era when such nominations were possible.

John J. O'Brien's peculiar relations to the politics of this city are revealed in even a stronger light than usual at present. As Chief of the Bureau of Elections, he has charge of all the election machinery of the city, but, as the banished Republican leader of the Eighth Assembly District, he is running as his personal candidate for the Legislature a liquor-dealer and companion of criminals, who has been declared by nine members of a jury of twelve to be guilty of bribery at elections, and he is running as his personal candidate for Alderman another liquor-dealer who has been tried for the same offence and escaped conviction. O'Brien's own reputation as a corrupter of the ballot-box is so bad that his party has been forced to expel him to escape the disgrace of further assistance from him. That such a man should be at the head of the election machinery of the city for several years after his term of office has expired, is due to our so-called non-partisan Police Board, which gets into a "deadlock" every time it attempts to appoint a successor to him. There is probably no other city in the world which would tolerate such a condition of affairs as this without making an effort to improve it.

The Hon. Elijah A. Morse, the proprietor of "The Rising Sun Stove Polish," has been delivering an address before a Congregational Club in Boston on the thesis that "American politics is not opposed to Christian living." The address, we need hardly say, abounded in "illustrations." In fact, there was little else in it. This is the one, however, which most attracted our attention:

> "But you desire living illustrations. I point you to Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, the man who had family prayers in the cars on the journey from his home to Washington to assume the duties of his great office."

Now, the Apostle James says that "pure religion and undefiled" consists, not in having family prayers in the railroad cars, but in "visiting the widows and the fatherless in their affliction, and keeping himself unspotted from the world." What view does the Honble. Elijah A. Morse think Mrs. De La Hunt takes of President Harrison's religion under this definition? The President discovered this widow's case himself, and used it to revile a political opponent; but when the time came to "visit her in her affliction"—that is, give her back the office of which, according to his own account in the Senate, she had been shamefully despoiled—he gave it to a male politician. Can praying in railroad cars wash out an offence of this sort? Not without repentance and restitution. Moreover, in various other passages of Scripture, the keeping of solemn pledges is made an essential part of "pure religion and undefiled." Nowhere is there any distinction made in the matter of keeping faith between family life and business or political life. Nowhere is it said that if you have family prayers after breakfast, you may lawfully break your official oaths or promises—"do the things you ought not to have done, and leave undone the things you ought to have done." What, then, does the Honble. Elijah think of this promise of the President, in view of such cases as Gen. Manson's, Col. Burt's, and several others?—

> "In appointment to every grade and department, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity the only sure tenure of office. Only the interests of the public service should suggest removals from office."

Religion, Honble. Elijah, is only valuable, only a thing to be boasted of or pointed to with pride, in so far as it influences conduct; for conduct, as Arnold says, is three-fourths of life, and is the proof as well as the illustration of sincerity. This is what makes one of your quotations very apt, but very hard on some of your "illustrations," unctuous friend:

> "Dare to be a Daniel,
> Dare to stand alone,
> Dare to have a purpose true,
> Dare to make it known."

Another of the Honble. Elijah A. Morse's illustrations is John Wanamaker,

> "the merchant prince of Philadelphia, Postmaster-General of the United States, a man who will not travel on Sunday, who every week goes to his home in Philadelphia to superintend a Sunday-school which he organized years ago among the uncared-for children of the street. What! a godly, religious life inconsistent with eminent public service! Have you read the Book, have you read that Nebuchadnezzar and Belshazzar found no man so wise in the affairs of state as Daniel, who retired three times a day to pray?"

Does the Honble. Elijah suppose for a moment that Daniel would have raised $200,000 and given it to Belshazzar to spend as he pleased, knowing well that he was a dissolute, unprincipled man, without either fear of God or love of country, and have taken office as a reward? On the contrary, sooner than share in the corruptions of the spoilsmen of that day, he suffered himself to be cast into the lions' den. It was not his public praying that saved Daniel, but his unshakable integrity. We are not surprised, after this discourse, to find Mr. Morse recommending "the manufacturers and business men of Massachusetts who have sons to educate," to withdraw their patronage and support from Harvard College because the President and professors do not agree with him about the tariff. It is astonishing how much venality of mind can exist under cover of this fluency of religious expression. The Honble. Elijah was elected to Congress last fall without any visible fitness for the place except the possession of a large fortune derived from his Rising Sun Stove Polish, and he was openly charged with having bought his nomination—in the absence, we suppose, of any other rational explanation of his getting it. We should not notice his performances as a religious preacher but for the fact that a Congregational Club, we suppose composed mainly of ministers, invited him to deliver his discourse at their meeting. The encouragement given in this way by religious bodies to the Morse type of politician is, in fact, one of the most discouraging phenomena of the day, because it shows that the worship of money, to which

we owe much of the degradation of public life, is openly practised in the very temples of Christian morality.

Congressman Milliken, who has for some time represented the Third District of Maine in the House of Representatives, appears to have a better conception of the civil service than most of his colleagues. He is quoted as having recently said: "Only three men in my district have been superseded by appointees of the present Administration, and they were for cause. I have not asked the removal of any man whose term has not expired, and I don't intend to unless there is very great need for it in the interest of the service." When all Congressmen get upon such a platform, a hard blow will have been dealt at the spoils system. Mr. Milliken says further: "The Republicans of my district, so far as I know, don't desire their removal." This remark suggests the question whether there is anything exceptional about the feeling of the people in the Third District of Maine in regard to this matter. No reason appears why they should hold different views from people elsewhere in the country. Do people generally throughout the country really want the "clean sweep" any more than the people of Mr. Milliken's district?

The *Tribune* has made an investigation as to the attitude of Republican Congressmen regarding various matters, like the tariff, subsidies, etc. The most hopeful feature of this investigation is the amount of opposition developed to "national control of Congressional elections." Four Republican Representatives declare themselves unqualifiedly against the scheme, and no less than fourteen are noncommittal. The summary says that "several who favor national control of Congressional elections express grave doubts of the effectiveness of any legislation by Congress to that end, and the same view controls the opinions of three out of the four men who replied in the negative." One of these, "an influential Northwestern Congressman," is quoted as saying: "I am not prepared to advocate national control of Congressional elections further than at present. The difficulty in the South cannot be reached by a national election law." As the Republicans have but four more than a quorum in the new House, it is of course plain that no Federal election law can be passed with so much opposition to it among Republican Congressmen. It is encouraging to find that the discussion of the matter during the past few months has done so much to clear the public mind as to the character of the difficulty at the South and the hopelessness of expecting to cure it by passing a law. We doubt, however, whether the sound arguments against the scheme for Federal control of elections would have produced so marked an effect but for the fortunate coöperation of Boutelle, a Republican Congressman, in demonstrating, in his Bangor *Whig*, that nullification of any law, as of the prohibitory law in his city, is certain whenever local public sentiment does not sustain the law. It has been one of those perfectly logical and entirely conclusive object-lessons which the dullest Republican partisan could not fail to understand.

The Farmers' Federation of St. Louis (according to the *Tribune's* report) passed resolutions setting forth that farming, under existing laws, is a losing business, and asking Congress and the President "to make such reciprocity treaties with foreign nations as will cause such nations to remove customs duties from farm products shipped abroad, thereby resulting in a higher price for such products." The same report tells us that there was a sharp skirmish between protectionists and free-traders during the debate on the resolutions, but that the free-traders had the most votes. This is the first agricultural convention that we have ever heard of where "the free-traders had the most votes." It is also the first in which any resolutions have been passed looking to the removal of customs duties—for, of course, if we ask Germany and France to admit our breadstuffs free, we must expect to admit their goods, or some equivalent portion of them, free also. This would be a very good move, and we are wondering how President Harrison will look at it. A first-rate opportunity is presented to some rising statesman like William Walter Phelps to propose a treaty of reciprocity to Prince Bismarck, offering to admit steel and worsted goods free of duty if Germany will admit flour, wheat, and Indian corn. Then Mr. Whitelaw Reid might make the same offer to President Carnot. Minister Lincoln could not make such an offer to Lord Salisbury, because England already admits all of our agricultural products free except one. We might make a trade in that quarter by offering to admit pig-iron free in return for tobacco. This would suit New England perfectly, and is worthy of Senator Hoar's attention.

Other resolutions were passed denouncing Trusts, monopolies, and "option trading." The latter was declared a felony, or rather it was sought to have it declared such by law of Congress. Mr. Colman, ex-Commissioner of Agriculture, made a bitter speech against grain speculators, which caused excitement in the St. Louis Exchange. As nobody has ever yet shown how a farmer is harmed by speculation in grain, we shall be interested to see Mr. Colman's speech in full. We suspect that there is little more sense in it than there was in the speech of Mr. L. L. Polk at Atlanta, who, in his address to the Southern farmers, asked in a wondering way: "Why should a United States bond bearing 4 per cent. interest be worth 127 cents on the dollar, while good farms cannot be mortgaged for more than one-third their value at 7 to 10 per cent. interest?" Partly, we should say, because more people are bidding for Government bonds than for farm mortgages, but chiefly because the Government itself is bidding 127 cents for them, so that any owner of them knows where he can get that price for his holdings.

Señor Zelaya, a delegate to the Pan-American Congress from Honduras, and its Minister of Foreign Affairs, has said that an agreement by the Congress touching rates of tariff taxes "would require delicate negotiation." Any more delicate than a negotiation touching "a common silver coin" to be a universal legal tender—an international money—over all our western hemisphere? Of what avail are skilled diplomatists if they cannot safely turn awkward corners? What is to be the international ratio between silver and gold? The financial and currency conditions of Brazil and the Argentine Republic and other South American States will be a little more than, unaided, Curtis can handle, but it is in the air that Mr. Blaine intends to tackle, in an international way, the whole silver question. May he have a happy issue!

Dr. Jacinto Castellanos, the intelligent delegate from Salvador to the Pan-American Congress, frankly declared to the New York *Commercial Bulletin* the reason why our manufactures are not used by South Americans and Central Americans, when he said on his arrival: "When you ask me why we don't use more American goods than we do, all that I can answer is, that we can buy the goods cheaper from other countries. The chief demand of our country is for dry goods and machinery. The former we get from European manufacturers because we can get them cheaper; and I am afraid we get our machinery from Europe also. There is no doubt, however, that, all things being equal, our people would give the preference to American machinery." The first and chief impediment in the way of our manufactures is *price*, and to that he added another, which in effect still further diminishes English in comparison with our own prices, and which he thus explained: "American merchants do not grant us as long credits as we can obtain in Europe. Moreover, they charge us exorbitant rates of interest; San Francisco people, in fact, requiring 10 per cent. per month, while our rates are only 6 to 9 per cent. per annum. There is no satisfactory system of exchange with the United States, and we have to pay 32 to 38 per cent. to purchase letters to do business in the United States." What does President Harrison think of this desire for cheap goods? Does it not prove to him that the South Americans are "cheap men"?

A recent report to the State Department from Consul-General New at London, on British steamship subsidies, will confound Mr. William Eleroy Curtis, Mr. J. M. Lachlan, and the whole tribe of subsidy-hunters. Mr. New writes:

"The British Government does not grant subsidies, in the general sense of that term, to any steamship company, but the Post-office authorities make contracts for the conveyance of mails to the different parts of the world with the steamship companies having steamers sailing to those ports. . . . No payment other than for the conveyance of mails is specially made for maintaining communication between Great Britain and Central and South America and the West Indies."

The same authority gives the amount paid by Great Britain in 1888-9 for ocean mail service as $3,184,435. The amount stated in Mr. Lachlan's "true public documentary evidence" to Mr. Curtis was $5,151,003, or about 70 per cent. more than Mr. New's statement.

It really seems as though the Grand Army Machine were determined to destroy all admiration of the Union soldier by showing him unworthy of admiration. Abe Patterson Post of Pittsburgh has just held a meeting and adopted a resolution which must make every self-respecting soldier blush. "Whereas," say these extraordinary representatives of the Grand Army Machine, "the survivors of the Second Maryland Rebel Regiment have erected on the battlefield of Gettysburg, within four feet of the monument erected by a loyal Maryland regiment, a monument commemorating the disloyal deeds of said Rebel regiment," and "whereas there is every indication that other Rebel organizations and regiments will, if permitted, follow the example, and thus undertake to make treason honorable," therefore, the Patterson Post, "composed of men who gave their best services in defence of the flag, and many of whom shed their blood on the battlefield of Gettysburg, desire to enter their solemn protest against this sacrilege, and most emphatically denounce any such intrusion by traitors upon sacred soil, and ask that the Gettysburg Battlefield Association, the chairman of which is our worthy Governor and comrade, Hon. James A. Beaver, Governor of this Commonwealth, cause the said Rebel monument to be removed, and express orders given that no more of that nature be erected."

We are glad to see that the war now raging in eastern Kentucky is conducted on humane principles, that the women and children of Harlan Court-house are "allowed to go unmolested." The casualties up to this time are numerous. Bird Spurlock and Robert Napier are said to have been mortally wounded, the former having had his jaw shot away, and the latter having received two bullets, one of which passed through the abdomen. Ben Mitchell and George Cole were shot in the legs. Thomas Howard got a flesh wound in the thigh. Jim Spurlock "had a close call": a bullet grazed his temple, tearing away a handful of hair and a few inches of skin, but not fracturing the skull. Will Jennings was shot through the right hand. The beginning of the war is involved in some obscurity, but it is supposed to have had its origin somewhere between the close of the Mexican war and the outbreak of the Crimean war. One account says "about ten years before *the* war," meaning our civil war. The causes were the usual ones prevailing in the region, that is, a feud between the Turner family and the Howard family. The Cawoods, the Middletons, and the Conrads, leading families in the county, are said to be involved in the feud, by marriage probably. Judge Lewis, an ex-clergyman, appears to represent the Law and Order side as well as the Church militant, and he has the assistance, for the time being, of the Turners and their allies. The Governor of Kentucky is thought to be taking an interest in the matter, and may probably detail an officer to watch operations for the benefit of the militia.

One of the "youngsters" who have access to the editorial columns of the Indianapolis *Journal*, and who never think of looking up their facts before they make their comments, remarks in Monday's issue that "the bloody war in Harlan County should be treasured up by Mr. Watterson for use in the next State campaign, as an incident further illustrating the fact that Kentucky, under a Democratic administration, is still keeping abreast of the civilization of the age." If this youth had taken the trouble to look at the office copy of the *Tribune Almanac*, he would never have written the paragraph. Harlan County is one of the "Republican strongholds" of eastern Kentucky, and cast 837 votes for Harrison and only 211 for Cleveland.

Mr. Thomas G. Shearman's article in the November *Forum* entitled, "The Owners of the United States," has no relation, or only an indirect one, to the single-tax doctrine. Nor does Mr. Shearman suggest any remedies for the inequalities of wealth said to exist. On the contrary, he "wishes it to be distinctly understood that he is opposed, on principle, to all schemes for arbitrary limitations of individual wealth, whether by a graduated income tax, a heavy succession tax, or otherwise; that he is utterly opposed to communism, socialism, and anarchism; and that he is of opinion that the enormous wealth of the few in this country has been forced upon them by the votes of the very masses who have been impoverished for their benefit." Mr. Shearman considers that the inequalities of wealth have been mainly produced by general acquiescence in the system of indirect taxation. Mr. Shearman's figures purporting to show the fortunes of various individuals throughout the country we cannot estimate highly. Those set down for Trinity Church, for example ($150,000,000), must be a gross exaggeration, and, if so, a hurtful one.

Evidence of the agricultural depression in New England grows aboundingly, and Massachusetts ranges up alongside of Vermont and New Hampshire. Here is an advertisement from the Springfield *Republican* of October 22:

DON'T GO WEST,

when you can get a fine 150-acre FARM right at home, on good road, near neighbors, for EIGHT HUNDRED AND FIFTY DOLLARS. Excellent land; hay cut by machine; plenty of fruit; no end to the wood. Cottage house in good shape, good barn, sheds, etc. The farm is well located, only one-half mile to school, only five and one-half miles to Orange, as good a market as there is in the State.

If the house, barn, sheds, etc., are "in good shape," here is a case where farming land in Massachusetts must have no salable value. Is this on account of "protection" or in spite of protection? At any rate, it is not under the conditions of unrestricted trade.

The series of "bye-elections" which Mr. Chamberlain said would be a "miniature general election," closed on Friday with that of Brighton, at which Sir Robert Peel succeeded in cutting down the Conservative majority of 3,280 in 1886 to 2,507. There have been six of these elections. In one, Sleaford, the Conservatives increased their majority of 1886 by seven; in two the Liberals have wrested seats from them, in two have retained their own by increased majorities, and in one—Brighton—have cut down the Conservative majority as above stated. The outlook, as opened up by the miniature general election, is, therefore, very discouraging for the Liberal-Unionists, and the Conservative journals generally acknowledge it. The *Daily News* has introduced a new feature into English journalism, by quoting and contrasting the utterances of its Tory contemporaries before and after the elections, and they are very amusing, as the explanations of their defeats vary greatly.

The establishment of a college for Dissenters at Oxford is creating a stir in England which nobody but an Englishman can fully understand. For two hundred years Oxford has had nothing to do with people who did not belong to the Anglican Church. For a good while she refused them degrees, and then refused them office and emoluments, and has only very recently admitted them to full equality. But the religious spirit of the place is still intensely episcopal, and the young Anglican divines who are sent out from the Divinity School to fill the country parishes, cherish a very droll contempt for the "dissenting ministers" who are the religious teachers of the great majority of the English people, and indeed of the Anglo-Saxon race all over the world. Strong efforts have of late been made by the Archbishop of Canterbury and others of the higher clergy to bridge over this old chasm of social separation by entering upon friendly intercourse with dissenting clergy and religious bodies, but there is still an air of patronage about their efforts which the Nonconformists resent. Nothing will really bring the Anglicans and the Dissenters together but a recognition by the Anglican clergy of the intellectual and social equality of the dissenting clergy. It is with the view, in some degree, of accomplishing this that the Nonconformists have established a divinity school at Oxford, known as Mansfield College, under the presidency of Dr. Fairbairn, where Nonconformist theology will be taught, and graduates of the University trained for the ministry, and where the young Anglican curates will have a chance to see for themselves how silly their condescension towards "dissenting ministers" is.

A RULER OVER TRIFLES.

THE subjects to which an American President elected in 1888 might have been expected to turn his attention immediately on assuming office were—taking them in the order of their pressure—the Behring Sea question; the fisheries question; the tariff question, particularly as regards the mode of levying existing duties; the abuses and irregularities introduced into the postal or customs service by his predecessor and other wicked Democrats; the Pan-American question; the silver question; the general condition of the civil service and the mode of filling it; the consular question; the pension question. With nearly all of these it is fair to assume that Gen. Harrison, when he took office, was unfamiliar. What civilized rulers, especially those who make strong professions of deep religious feeling, usually do when they find the tremendous responsibility of dealing with such questions suddenly thrust upon them, is to sit down and study them faithfully, and, in a case like Gen. Harrison's, prayerfully. This is indeed what is their duty, both to God and man. If he had been appointed president of a trust company, and on entering on his place were ignorant to a great extent of its condition and prospects and modes of doing business, and, instead of calling the officers around him and endeavoring to make himself master of the situation, were to occupy himself for some weeks in the concoction of schemes for ousting the junior clerks to make places for the sons of his friends; for forcing the scrubbing woman to share her pay with his coachman's sister; for getting the elevator-man to resign without being dismissed, and for taking away the service of the office lunch from a white caterer in order to give it to a black or brown one, the most charitable stockholder would say he was proving false to a solemn obligation, and had shown himself unfit for his place.

Now, this is by no means an unfair illustration of the way in which President Harrison has been occupying himself for the past six months. He has been wilfully neglecting all the weighty affairs of the country, and occupying himself with trifles such as, we venture to say, have never before taken up the time of the chief ruler of a great civilized state since states were first founded. When we picture, to any ordinary American, Salisbury's, Gladstone's, Bismarck's, or Crispi's, or the Czar's giving his time to distributing clerkships and collectorships and post-offices among humble admirers, and letting foreign affairs, and taxation, and trade, and coinage, and administrative reform wait indefinitely for a particle of attention, he feels bound to laugh heartily, even though he may not be a humorous man, and may be generally puzzled by a joke.

Every now and then revelations of the kind of things which occupy the President's mind are enough to make the gravest American smile through patriotic tears. We remark one which appears in the Indianapolis *Civil-Service Chronicle*. The President went out to that city a few weeks ago to lay the foundation stone of a soldiers' monument. What does the proud American citizen suppose was one of the loads on his Chief Magistrate's intelligence during that visit? Why, to devise means of getting a very efficient Internal Revenue Collector, an old soldier, to resign his place. He "endeavored to have a conference" with the poor collector on the subject of his own causeless removal, but failed, and had to come home *re infectâ*. But did he dismiss the subject to make room for weightier cares? Not a bit of it. He kept "expecting to hear from him." He watched the mail every morning, doubtless, and was wretched when the sickening announcement was made each day by his secretary—"Nothing from Manson." At last he had to write to Manson and tell him "a change could not much longer be deferred"—probably because the Presidential mind could not much longer bear the strain. The resignation then came, and a mighty burden, as of pardoned sin, was doubtless lifted off Gen. Harrison's soul. No wonder Mr. Swift, who voted for him, wrote of this transaction in the *Chronicle:*

> "The President appears at his littlest in this transaction, and few Presidents have done littler things. He is the President of sixty millions of people, and yet he carries about in his mind, on the most solemn occasion, the edging of an efficient officer out of his place. He writes a letter that makes his best friends in Indiana ashamed, and, to add to this, appears at his elbow that efficient agent of slyness, 'Dan' Ransdell!"

Sometimes, however, he breaks down under this awful pressure, and forgets the most solemn pledges, and exposes himself to the suspicions of the uncharitable. For instance, he told Congressman Frank on the 20th of July that Louis Wittenberg was sure of an appraisership in Missouri, but that if anything happened to prevent it, Frank would get timely notice. Frank went with this promise to the Treasury, found that the Secretary of the United States Treasury had heard of it from the President, and had engraved it on the tablets of his mind. This great financier confirmed the promise, saying to Frank, "There is my hand on the compact." Could Frank have had fuller assurance of anything in this world than a "compact" thus ratified by the two chief officers of a nation of 60,000,000, etc., etc.? We trow not. Nevertheless, Wittenberg did not get the place. It was given to another man, and the President had to apologize to Frank with strong crying and tears. The compact "had escaped his recollection" in spite of his "extreme caution about making any statement in advance." So there was nothing for it but to sorrow with Frank over his "disappointment." One cannot help wondering when the President will get time for the affairs of this nation, and if, when he is able to take them up, he will have more than the wreck of a once mighty intellect to devote to them.

A DISHONEST PUBLICATION.

THE steamship-subsidy pamphlet which Mr. W. E. Curtis has written, and which the Administration has fathered, pretends to have been prepared for the International American Congress; it has really been prepared for the Fifty-first Congress of the United States. The subsidy-hunters know perfectly well their objective point. They already have President Harrison and his Cabinet committed to their schemes; they are looking to the Pan-American Congress for a lift in the shape of a courteous acquiescence of the Spanish-American delegates in our determination to spend our money as we please; and the real battle they are bracing themselves for is to be fought in the Committee of Ways and Means and on the floor of Congress. The Curtis book is ammunition for that fight; only a small part of it is relevant to the International Congress. It develops a new and ingenious argument, which we may have occasion to refer to hereafter, to overcome the opposition of Western Republican Congressmen to voting public funds to Eastern ship-owners who cannot make their business pay; it argues the whole subsidy question at great length and on general grounds; it has ten pages meant for home consumption to one intended for the Pan-American Conference. If that body will agree to some vaguely worded recommendation of increased steam communication between North and South America, it can add a little moonshine about brotherhood and arbitration, and then go hang, for all these treasury-raiders care.

This false pretence of the book is of a piece with the author's own double-dealing in the preparation of his special plea. He gives an account of the South American Commission of 1885, and pretends to add a statement of the difficulties in the way of our trade with Spanish America, as they were found to exist by the Commissioners. He enumerates some of these fairly enough, but slurs over, under the vague and misleading phrase, "other minor obstacles," the really insuperable difficulty which the Commissioners discovered, a difficulty which they mention over and over again in their report, a difficulty strongly set forth more than once under the signature of Mr. Curtis himself as one of the Commissioners—the difficulty, that is, that our prohibitory tariff on wool and sugar and copper is the main thing that prevents our having a South American trade. Mr. Commissioner Curtis says: "If our country sees its way clear to the abatement of its imposts on these products [wool and sugar], then by a reciprocity treaty with the nations of South and Central America can be effected a very persuasive tendency to more intimate national relations"; Mr. Special-Agent Curtis covers this all up under the tricking words, "other minor obstacles." Charles Sumner once indignantly declared that he was a man before he was a commissioner; it is evidently the reverse with Mr. Curtis, and it must be a remorseful conscience that makes him break out into the frequent hysterical cry, recurring through his pages, "The protective tariff has nothing to do with the question."

The citation just given from the report of the Commission of 1885 puts us on the track of the real object of that Commission appointed by a Republican President. The instructions given the Commissioners by a Republican Secretary of State had not a word to say about subsidized steamers, but laid altogether the main stress on commercial

treaties based on mutual concessions. The Commissioners everywhere bent their efforts to the negotiation of reciprocity treaties, and everywhere, as they truthfully report, ran up against the dead wall of our tariff. In the case where a commercial treaty has been found feasible—the case of Mexico—the club of the tariff beneficiaries has been shaken at Congress to prevent its ratification. So, in effect, our ex-Minister to Mexico, the Hon. John W. Foster, declared with astonishing propriety at the banquet of the Spanish-American Commercial Union last May:

"The late lamented and distinguished citizen of New York, President Arthur, initiated a policy of commercial reciprocity which, if it had been opportunely seconded by Congress, would to-day have placed us in almost complete commercial control of the countries and islands to the south of us. The legislative conduct of Congress has been strangely incomprehensible. It created and sent to Central and South America a commercial commission to investigate the best methods of developing more intimate trade relations with those countries, and then treated its most important recommendations with neglect. It authorized the President to negotiate a commercial treaty with our neighbor, Mexico, and then refused to put into operation the work of its own creation; and now, with a disregard for its own consistency, it has directed the President to convoke a Congress of American States, with a view of inaugurating a policy of more intimate commercial interchange! [Laughter.] If that august convocation—or rather, it has been earnestly desired that that august convocation should inaugurate a new era of fraternal relations and commercial prosperity between the nations of this continent; but if it does not fail in attaining its greatest objects, the Congress of the United States must radically reform its conduct."

That will do for a good Republican comment on Mr. Curtis's "other minor obstacles," and on the general dishonesty of his attempt to make the Commission of 1885 furnish water for the subsidy mill.

Of Mr. Curtis personally, we have only to remark that his present performance is in perfect keeping with the well-known fact that his pen has long been for hire. In 1884 he was an Arthur man (before the Convention), and then a Blaine man, simply and solely because his paper so ordered. In 1888 he was working for an independent paper that favored the election of Cleveland, and we find him trimming his sails accordingly; we remember, in particular, some despatches of his from Indiana, in which he showed up the unblushing preparations of the Republicans to buy the State, and which Mr. Blaine must have omitted to mention to President Harrison as among the claims to Republican favor possessed by his Special Agent.

MR. CLEVELAND'S SILVER POLICY.

An article in the Indianapolis *Journal* entitled "Cleveland's Anti-Silver Policy," making the bold statement that if President Cleveland's policy had been adopted by Congress, "the country would now be in the midst of a terrible financial panic caused by a contraction of the currency," has attracted some attention, and some newspapers in the West have found no better answer to it than "You're another." President Hayes and President Arthur, they say, made the same recommendations. President Garfield held even stronger convictions on the same side, while Secretaries Sherman, Folger, and McCulloch repeatedly and urgently pressed Congress to suspend the coinage of silver.

The *tu quoque* argument is good as far as it goes, but there is a much better one. The Indianapolis *Journal's* argument rests upon the assumption that if the silver coinage had been stopped at the time when President Cleveland recommended that policy, there would have been a fatal contraction of the currency, and consequently "a terrible financial panic." How is this conclusion reached? By the easy process of computing what amount of national-bank notes have been retired since 1886, by showing that their place has been filled by silver certificates, and then making the broad statement that, "but for the issue of silver certificates, our paper currency would have undergone a contraction during the last two years of $176,000,000 *without any means whatever of replacing it.*"

We note in passing a slight error in the amount of national-bank notes withdrawn during the past two years:

The amount of national-bank circulation outstanding in 1886 (Nov. 1) was.....	$301,013,221
In 1888 (Nov. 1).....	239,069,230
Retired.....	$61,943,991

An error of $115,000,000 in a total of $176,000,000 is not inconsiderable to an accountant, but the *Journal's* argument would have been just as fallacious and untrustworthy if all its figures had been correct. The prime error is the oversight of such an article as gold in the commerce and currency of the world. Everything in the *Journal's* reasoning rests on the fundamental assumption, broadly insisted on, that without silver certificates there would have been no means of replacing the retired bank notes.

The law authorizes the issue of gold certificates as well as of silver certificates. True, we should have been obliged to buy gold to fill the vacuum, but we have been obliged to buy silver, for that matter, and, what is more, the public—the holders of silver certificates—have been obliged to pay 100 cents gold value for every dollar of silver certificates in their possession. So nothing whatever has been gained by having silver certificates instead of gold certificates. The vacuum would have been filled just the same if there had never been a silver dollar or a silver certificate, and filled quite as easily.

It will perhaps be said that the gold could not be obtained because Europe could not spare it. That was said in 1878 and earlier, when we were preparing for specie resumption, and many honest people so believed. Yet we drew from Europe, in the ten years 1878-1887, the net sum of $198,634,763 gold, besides keeping the entire product of our own mines in the same interval, which, according to the mint reports, amounted to $353,912,218. Europe has not felt very badly in consequence, so far as we have noticed, but if she had felt ever so badly, that fact would not have distressed us. Nations are not given to bewailing each other's commercial mishaps, but rather their own.

It may be said that although we pocketed more than $550,000,000 gold in ten years, we could not continue the operation. Since we produce upwards of $30,000,000 gold a year, and since the silver coinage has been at the rate of only $25,000,000, the question is not one of drawing on Europe at all, but merely of retaining five-sixths of the product of our own mines. Probably we might do that if we were to draw a long breath and make a pull all together. It may be said further, that the law does not allow the issue of gold certificates of a lower denomination than $20; but of course an act of Congress of two lines would cure that defect.

Is anything left of the *Journal's* argument? Nothing except its chiding of Mr. Cleveland for a supposed error of judgment, which he shared with Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Sherman, Folger, and McCulloch. We maintain that Mr. Cleveland's recommendation was perfectly right, although some fault, rather *ad captandum*, may be found with the reasoning advanced by him. Severe canons of criticism are not applied in economics except to professors of the science, or those who hold themselves out for such. In the walks of statesmanship it is sufficient if one has been right as to the main thing. In any case, an arraignment of Mr. Cleveland's policy by a critic who ignores altogether the existence of gold as an element in finance, would scarcely command attention among thinkers.

Mr. Cleveland was right when he urged the discontinuance of the silver coinage. When his letter to Congressman Warner was written, we were on the threshold of a panic brought about by the investment of some $50,000,000 of the Treasury resources in silver, over and above what had been taken into circulation in the form of certificates—this at a time when the public revenues were at an unusually low ebb. People thought that the silver standard was in sight. Some millions of gold, owned by private parties, had been transferred to England in consequence. Boxes had been hired in safe deposits to store gold in, which of course was drawn from the banks, thus tightening the money market. Mr. Cleveland's letter did much to restore confidence, although that was probably not his object in writing it. It assured the public that his efforts would be directed to prevent silver and gold from parting company. Gradually the revenues increased, and, although the excess of silver dollars over silver certificates in use increased to $72,000,000 in the following December, yet a help came quite unexpectedly from the large deposits in the Treasury by national banks withdrawing their circulation. These deposits were turned into the general fund, although shown in a separate account in the books. They served to swell the gold balance in the Treasury, because the bank-notes intended to be retired came in for redemption very slowly. So, in one way and another, the impending crisis passed off.

Of all the means open to us for filling the bank-note vacuum, the purchase and coinage of silver bullion was and is the most slovenly and expensive. The stuff has been declining in value all the time, and in consequence there has been a steady loss on it as metal. For cartage it costs sixteen times as much as gold, and for storage twenty-four times as

much. The certificates issued against it do not circulate more freely than gold certificates would, but rather less freely. The reasons why they are oftener seen are two-fold: first, because gold certificates are not issued in small denominations, and, secondly, because the banks sort them out and keep them against a rainy day. Very wise it is of them, too. Perhaps it is the infrequency of the sight of gold certificates that leads the Indianapolis *Journal* to suppose that without silver certificates there would be no money. The truth is, they are an artificial and bastard money, whose existence prevents us from having a better kind.

THE NAGLE CASE AND CONGRESS.

WHATEVER may be thought of the outcome of the celebrated case of Deputy-Marshal Nagle, who has been discharged by the Circuit Court of the United States from preliminary arrest upon a warrant charging him with the murder of Judge Terry, without other proceeding than that of habeas corpus, and upon grounds that must be finally conclusive to protect him against all attempts of the State authorities to prosecute him for the alleged murder, it is reasonable to suppose that Congress will be aroused by this case into some action which shall provide legislative regulation of the Federal police power which is involved in the circumstances. If it shall incite Congress to appoint a high commission of judges and lawyers to consider the neglected subject of Federal jurisprudence and the wretched state of existing legislation, the worthless blood of Terry will have had, after all, some beneficial use beyond the immediate purpose of its shedding.

One has only to imagine the tragedy reversed—to contemplate Judge Field as the slain, and to ask what punishment could be meted out to his assassin by the United States under its existing laws—to see how entirely neglected the subject has been. It is true that no justice of the Supreme Court has been assassinated, nor hitherto had any been slapped in the face, but deputy marshals have been often assaulted from ambush, and sometimes cruelly assassinated, and none has ever known a State to punish the assassin. Minor offences of like character are not infrequent, but a brief telegram announcing the news has been the extent of attention paid to the matter. If Nagle had been killed by Terry, perhaps not more than a telegram would have been given to it in this case; certainly, if instead of protecting a justice of the Supreme Court, he had been in attendance upon a commissioner or an examiner in chancery, or had been serving a warrant of arrest against some "moonshiner," his killing while in discharge of that duty would receive not more attention at the hands of Congress than the killing of a tramp. Yet this matter is of far more importance than that of the proper procedure when the official happens to be the slayer and not the slain in such a tragedy. Terry, for killing Nagle, could only have been imprisoned for a year under existing Congressional legislation.

In consequence of the nullification excitement of a half-century ago, Congress provided for the removal from the State courts of prosecutions of Federal officials for acts done under the authority of the *revenue* laws, and the removed cases may be tried in the United States courts. But Judge Sawyer was compelled to rely upon the Habeas-Corpus Act to get hold of the Nagle case, and the judgment he has given to effectuate his discharge will lose force in the public mind because of the interested nature of the circumstances in their relation to the Judge himself—the same interested feature being present with any other judge as well. If the prosecution against Nagle could have been removed, and he had been tried by a jury of Californians, and by them discharged upon the grounds stated by Judge Sawyer, the performance would have been more satisfactory, more in accordance with established usage, and, in a certain sense, more constitutional—if that mode of expression be permissible—as a procedure preserving the right of trial by jury beyond all question. These same Californians would have been citizens of the United States and acting for and in behalf of the United States, but none the less Californians, and the *amour propre* of the State would not have been so shocked. But it takes nullification or secession and war to arouse the national sense of duty in Congress, and already we have a class of reformers suggesting that the exercise of the Federal judicial power in its fulness is only necessary in times of civil war, and that it must be further restricted than it already has been by its old-time enemies of the States'-rights school, who are always on the alert to restrict it whenever they can catch the Federalists asleep, as they have done quite recently.

A short time prior to nullification, a craze swept over the country in favor of the liberty of the public press in its relation to the power of the courts to punish for contempts, and Congress, taking the lead, passed an act almost emasculating the courts as to all conduct in contempt not taking place in the presence of the court; but, as some compensation for the lost power, punishment by indictment, in certain cases, was provided, so that for slapping Judge Field's face or killing him, if either could be brought within the statute, Terry could have been, at the most, imprisoned three months and fined, and that is all. By the old law, his right hand might have been cut off and gibbeted, along with his body hanged by the neck, for either offence, perhaps; not by proceedings for contempt, which would have secured only indefinite imprisonment, it may be, but certainly by indictment. Yet, since the Federal jurisprudence has no common law of crimes, and Congress has never assumed in any adequate way to punish such offenders, the Federal power, so well defined by Judge Sawyer, has lain dormant for one hundred years, as it has done in so many other respects where it might be usefully exercised were it not for the supersensitiveness felt for and in behalf of the State courts and their jurisdiction, which, at most, is only concurrent with that of the Federal power in such matters. And it may be generally assumed that the State authorities are not concerned, and they never have been, about the protection of Federal officials of any rank or degree, certainly not in any especial sense as Federal officials, and have only given them the benefit of the general law, as men or citizens, and not as officials. Indeed, many of the States followed the example of Congress, and withdrew from the courts much of the power to punish for contempts; and if the withdrawal were supplemented with punishment by indictment, the penalties are ridiculous when the offence reaches the grade of murder or of assault upon a judge, which is not more reprehensible than an assault upon other officials while discharging their duty. If Terry had slain Justice Field upon the bench, he could only have been imprisoned for three months, so far as the United States could punish him, unless it should happen that the court were held on a spot of ground ceded exclusively to the United States, where an act of Congress would operate to enforce the State law in such cases and places.

Congress pays no intelligent attention to the Federal jurisprudence. It patches the holes in the organization and jurisdiction of the courts after a fashion that is the laughing-stock of the legal profession, and, with all the power of its judiciary committees, nothing useful is ever done, for the simple reason that the members of Congress know or care but little about the general subject, and they cannot take their minds off politics long enough to legislate upon any subject not involved in the campaign issues that have been or are to be formulated for the struggles over the Presidency.

That which is needed is a commission of commanding dignity, charged with the duty of overhauling the antiquated structure known as the "Federal judiciary system," but more properly to be called "Federal jurisprudence," and reporting comprehensive legislation regulating the exercise of the judicial power of the United States. At present it is the most absurd "judicial system" known to English-speaking constituencies of any grade whatever; and the tinkering it receives at the hands of Congress from time to time makes it always more absurd.

POST-ELECTION FRANCE.

"Now that the smoke of the battle-field has cleared away," to use our stock post-election newspaper phrase, the French are beginning to count their gains and losses and make their plans for the future. Their journals are, therefore, unusually interesting reading. Of course, the first point considered is what is to become of Boulanger. There is, as well as we can see, a general consensus that he is for political purposes dead, and there are broad hints that he will probably end his earthly course in poverty and obscurity. The poverty has in fact already overtaken a good many of his followers, who were, as is not uncommon in such cases, adventurers "down on their luck," who saw a chance, by attaching themselves to a pretender of the Napoleonic type, of places, and honor, and power. The memory of the Coup d'État of 1851, and of the good

things it brought to Morny, St.-Arnaud, Persigny, Fleury, and the rest, has not died out in Parisian cafés and billiard-rooms. To many of these men their connection with Boulanger brought them not only free board and lodging at the "headquarters," but a most grateful respite from the pursuit of their creditors. The election has been a cruel blow to them, and has, according to the *Figaro*, reduced some to destitution already.

As to Boulanger himself, there are many curious confessions of shame for ever having believed in him. One very interesting one describes the intoxicating effect produced on a party of artists dining at a restaurant one night, by the spectacle of a torchlight procession of cuirassiers marching to serenade the "brav' général" at his house, in the early days while he was still in the service and in command. They were so carried away by the music and the spectacle that they would have all voted to make him dictator had the opportunity offered itself at that moment. Looking back now to that incident, the party cannot understand their own frame of mind. It is interesting, as showing the standing danger to French politics which lies in the excitability of the national temperament unrestrained by strong political traditions. Each generation, as it comes forward, does not see why it too should not try to make a new France, and if, when it comes on the scene, somebody happens to beat a drum or wave a flag, there is always danger of a general rush down the nearest steep place.

The one man of standing and respectability who has lost seriously by the election is universally admitted to be the Comte de Paris, the representative of the old monarchy. He knew Boulanger to be a liar and charlatan, and yet he gave his followers directions to support him, in the hope that if Boulanger succeeded, the subsequent and inevitable confusion would give the crown back to the Bourbons. There is a degradation of royalty in all this which is now causing bitter tears to flow in select circles. The King in a conspiracy with a paltry adventurer to make the only regular government of his own country the laughing-stock of the world, is a spectacle which the faithful cannot bear to recall. And then the Republicans who expelled him are able to plead it in complete justification of their course, which at the time seemed brutal and unnecessary. "You see," they say, "he was after all nothing but an unscrupulous conspirator, whom no government could tolerate," and there is no answer to be made to them.

On the Bonapartists the effect of the election seems to have been very salutary. A good many are admitting publicly that their game is up; that, for weal or woe, the Republic is the choice of the French people, and has now a paramount claim on the allegiance of all true Frenchmen. For it must be noticed that the Republic is the first government in a century which has been able to attain its twentieth year. Most rational observers agree that had any reigning dynasty had to face public opinion at this crisis, with the usual amount of error and shortcoming to answer for, it must have gone down. The Republic has the supreme advantage of offering no man and no family to serve as a sacrifice to popular rage or discontent. If it is assailed in the streets, it does not need either to fly or abdicate, and may slaughter without mercy in its own defence. Moreover, a large number of Bonapartists are now convinced that monarchy in France, after these twenty years of abeyance, is no longer possible. Royalty has in every form gone completely out of French manners and ideas. A sacred person living in a palace, who has to be approached with the forms of divine worship, raised above all criticism, and treated as incapable of folly or wickedness, is something the new generation of Frenchmen could not understand or accept save as a joke.

To the Republicans, the lesson of their victory seems to be the necessity of getting rid of parliamentary "groups," and forming a compact party under a single leader. That the Radicals, or extreme Left, can ever be got to work under any Moderate, no one believes. But there do seem to be hopes now that the Moderates will gradually draw into their ranks a constantly increasing number of Royalists of one kind or another who have accepted the Republic, and are willing now to work for its success.

THE NEW FRENCH CHAMBER.

PARIS, October 18, 1889.

THE general elections which have taken place in France have brought no great change in our home politics nor in our foreign policy. It may be fairly said that we shall have in the new Chamber the continuation of the old Chamber: there will be the same division of parties and of groups; on all important questions the Republicans who call themselves Opportunists and who might also be simply called Ministerialists, will carry with them the Radicals and have a majority. And when I say that this majority will always be obtained, I mean on all the questions which touch the forms and principles of the republican government. The minority will be composed of the three groups of the Royalists, the Bonapartists, and the Boulangists. It may be, however, that the Boulangist group will have to dissolve as a group. A few of those who call themselves, even at this hour, Boulangists, will fall into the ranks of the conservatives; the greater number of them, following their natural instincts and tendencies, will join the extreme Radicals.

It is difficult to conceive how a purely Boulangist group could be preserved in the absence of Gen. Boulanger. "Hamlet" cannot be played long without *Hamlet;* and the collapse of Gen. Boulanger, as a political leader, seems complete.

"Quantum mutatus ab illo
Hectore qui redit exuvias indutus Achilli"—

how different is this Boulanger, now living in the solitude of Jersey, from the *brav' général* coming down the Champs Elysées on his black charger, followed at a great distance by a brilliant staff, bowing complacently to a frantic populace! How different from the Boulanger who, on the 27th of January, received 250,000 votes in the capital of France, and was proclaimed the representative of the great city, the city which Victor Hugo called "la ville lumière." All this is changed now; and it could have been prophesied, by anybody who understands the temper of the French nation, that Boulanger was committing political suicide when he left secretly for Brussels in the night, for fear of being arrested and tried before the Senate. His friends in vain found excuses for him at the time; they intimated that the life of Boulanger would not have been safe in his prison.

The discomfiture of the Boulangist party is complete, though there will be some Boulangists in the Chamber, and Paris has returned many of the General's adherents. Paris could not completely forget the overwhelming vote given on the 27th of January; but among these representatives of Boulangism there are no men of any talent or importance, except perhaps M. Laguerre, who is a remarkable speaker. There remains, so to speak, no Boulangist press. The chief supporters of Boulanger in the press have been the editors of conservative papers, such as the *Autorité* and the *Gaulois*, who have now thrown the General overboard. The editor of the Royalist *Gaulois* has said boldly that he tried to "confiscate" the General while he was popular, and to make him an instrument; but now the instrument is worthless. "The black horse," he says, "the revenge, the great sword, the promises made to all the discontented—the star, in short—has been effaced and obscured by the fogs of the Thames; and Gen. Boulanger, whose mission was to lead all the electors with him to the assault and to victory at the sound of the drum, has destroyed all the hopes he first held out; he has not given us the 'other thing' which we expected. He has thus destroyed his only excuse for being. We hope that he may find in his life some other glorious part; but we must acknowledge that for the present his mission is ended."

Boulanger read this article in Jersey after his arrival, and he immediately telegraphed to the editor of the *Gaulois:* "I have read your article of the 11th in the *Gaulois*. I have always thought you capable of all possible follies. I now think you capable of all possible treacheries. I send you the assurance of my profound contempt." To this despatch the editor of the *Gaulois* answered: "People can only betray those whom they serve. I only serve my King; I could not, therefore, betray you. Nothing can make me deviate from my duty. I leave it to the future to prove the falseness of your judgment."

This incident will give you an idea of the dissolution of the coalition which for a moment was formed between the leaders of the Royalist, the Bonapartist, and the Boulangist parties. The coalition resembles now the camp of Agramante. Much has been said, at all epochs, against the immorality of coalitions; still, it is not easy to see how they can at times be avoided. When many people suffer from the same oppression, they will always be tempted to unite their efforts, though they may greatly differ on many points and may not have the same ultimate objects. Under the reign of Napoleon III., there was a coalition formed between the Republicans and the Royalists, and the effects of it were felt even after the fall of Napoleon, since the Assembly of Versailles, composed of Royalists and Republicans, framed a Constitution which reserved the right of total revision—even the right of changing, under certain conditions, the form of government. This article of the Constitution, which provided for the right of total revision, has been repealed since in a convention, but another convention may possibly reëstablish it; and everybody feels instinctively that in our time no government, no form of government, can last long if it has not the support of the majority of the people. Revision, therefore, had become the cry of the coalition. The cry must, for the present at least, be abandoned,

and we have before us a period of four years during which it is not likely that we shall have a convention, unless M. Carnot should have to be replaced, which is not at all probable.

The Constitution gives the President the right to choose his Ministers ; but as the Cabinet is, like an English Cabinet, in constant contact with Parliament, it becomes, perforce, a mere emanation of the Chambers, and it changes at the will of the majority of the lower house. It is customary for the Cabinet, after general elections take place, to place its resignation in the hands of the President as soon as the new Chamber meets. There is no doubt that this will soon take place, and the President will, at the beginning of the session, have to exercise his prerogative.*

Whence will he borrow his Ministers? From the Republican majority?—but this majority is not completely homogeneous. It is composed for the most part of the Republicans who call themselves and who are called Opportunists—a somewhat barbarous expression, which we owe to Gambetta. By Opportunists you must understand a class of Republicans who do not pretend to any definite programme, and who will make reforms only when an opportunity presents itself. By a strange anomaly, while the Opportunist group is by far the strongest of the majority, its acknowledged leader, M. Jules Ferry, was defeated in the elections ; the army is thus left without its chief. The most important of the lieutenants of M. Ferry—a lieutenant, in fact, who has lately been the real captain—is M. Constans, the ex-Governor of Cochin-China and of Annam, the man who closed the convents of the non-authorized congregations, and who conducted the French *Kulturkampf;* who, on his return from the East, turned the Senate into a High Court of Justice, and caused Boulanger, Rochefort, and Dillon to be condemned; the man who, after the Boulanger trial, ordered the general elections; determined, not over-scrupulous, a man of action, which is rather extraordinary for an ex-professor (for the revolution and the war of 1870 found him a professor at Toulouse). Many Opportunists who have profited by his energetic action, would not, however, dislike to see him out of the Cabinet; they speak of rewarding him with the Governorship of Algeria. We cannot say what his intentions are; he certainly has, if success is good conduct, a right to remain in the Cabinet, for in politics, as Prince Bismarck one said of M. Thiers, "He who takes up the napkin has a right to eat the dinner."

After the Opportunist group, the most important Republican group is that formed by the Radicals. They are, it is said, less numerous than they were in the last Chamber. Their leader, M. Clémenceau, is politically discredited, as he has never shown any other capacity than that for destroying Cabinet after Cabinet; an able speaker, afraid of responsibility, who so far has never been willing to undertake to form an administration. In the rear of the Opportunists and of the Radicals is a small group, composed of about thirty Moderate Republicans, men of talent, of good personal character, differing only from the conservatives on the question of the form of government, having accepted the Republican form as definitive, and being obliged, in consequence, to vote often against the men who would naturally be their friends.

If this picture is exact, you will see that though the new majority is Republican, the composition of the new Assembly will not be very simple. There are elements in it for the formation of many coalitions, and cabinets will probably have as little security as they have had during late years. Under such circumstances it is difficult to prophesy what the legislative work of the Chamber will be; it will probably be minimized, though we hear it said that we are going to enter on an era, not of politics, but of business. The success of the Exhibition has been great, and a large sum of money will undoubtedly be left in France by the foreigners who come to visit it. Many schemes are being made. It has become evident that Paris wants a metropolitan railroad; getting about has at times become very difficult in the central parts of the capital, and the population has become too dense. Our great companies of deposit are preparing to start all sorts of new enterprises. Electricity tries everywhere to give us light and power. Unfortunately, the finances of the State are not in a satisfactory condition, and the enormous military preparations which are continuing will still further exhaust them. Divided as the Chamber may be on many points, there are two on which it is easy to prophesy a sort of unanimity. The Chamber will be protectionist; the reaction against free trade and against treaties of commerce has been very marked in the circulars of all the candidates. French agriculture will be more protected, and, as the peasants form the majority of the electors, they will be obeyed in the end. The Chamber will have a tendency towards protection; it will also be pacific. Not a word was said in the electoral campaign on the subject of revenge, not even by the most ardent supporters of Gen. Boulanger, not even by Déroulède, the author of the 'Chants du Soldat.'

*He has just given notice that he will not accept resignations.—Ed. Nation.

QUIVIRA.—I.

Santa Fé, October 15, 1889.

The word Quivira is one of the best known and most widely circulated geographical and ethnographical names of the North American Southwest. Nevertheless, a great deal of unnecessary mystery (or rather mysteriousness) clings to it still. Many speculate where the Quivira was, and the majority wonder what it was. There are several Quiviras. There is the one of Coronado, known since 1541; the Quivira of Oñate, of the year 1600, about. Then there is an indefinite or nondescript Quivira, talked of and searched for until the beginning of the eighteenth century. Lastly there is the Gran Quivira of to-day.

It may not be amiss to treat the Quivira question in the light of historical evidence, for the very vagueness of the ideas current about it has, during the seventeenth century and part of the nineteenth, been greatly detrimental to enterprises, particularly such as were directed to the search for precious metals. The Quivira appeared only too often in the light of a gilded spectre—not merely a vision, but a spectre, deceiving, misleading, since it led those who followed it on the path of destruction instead of the path to wealth. It bears in this respect a strange resemblance to the South American "Dorado," or the tale of the man covered with gold. The "gilded man" cost innumerable lives and countless treasures in vain; so has the Quivira—the former in South America, the latter in the North American Southwest.

The word Quivira was heard by the Spaniards in Central New Mexico, on the banks of the Rio Grande, where now stands the town of Bernalillo. That is, there the plans for the search after it were framed. But the first intimation of the existence of a country the inhabitants of which were in possession of great metallic wealth was first obtained at the Pueblo of Pecos, southeast of Santa Fé, and through an Indian from the East who was a captive among the Indians of Pecos. That Indian filled the ears of the Spaniards with tales of gold and silver. He used the word Quivira freely, and gave them to understand that it was that of a very rich country or people. Coronado believed him, and went out on the plains in the spring of 1541 in search of Quivira.

It is well known that Coronado, with thirty horsemen, reached the desired spot, and returned from it to the Rio Grande in the same year, without having met with any resistance, and without spilling a drop of blood except that of his guide. The latter proved to be not only an impostor, but a traitor, who had allured the Spaniards on the barren plains in order to destroy them. It is also known that all the tales of treasure proved false ; that neither gold nor silver was found, the only piece of metal seen being a fragment of native copper suspended from the necklace of a chief, and about the origin of which its owner could give no satisfactory account. Coronado and his lieutenant Jaramillo both assert that the Quiviras were a *wandering* tribe, *moving hither and thither with the buffalo*, and only different from the plains Indians in that they dwelt in frail round lodges made of brush and grass, and that, as the country was well watered and had a productive soil and timber, they planted some corn ; otherwise they were as good as roaming savages. These descriptions are confirmed by the reports of the other members of the exploring party. All agree in representing Quivira as a country destitute of metallic wealth, its people as savage hordes, and their numbers as comparatively small.

After studying closely not less than five original reports emanating from Coronado or from soldiers of his expeditionary corps, I have been able to locate quite closely the Quivira of 1541. It lay in northeastern Kansas, about 200 miles northeast of Great Bend. It was a fertile region. Its advantages for agriculture were recognized by Coronado, and he plainly states that it was far superior to New Mexico in that respect, that it resembled the best parts of Spain, and that its plants and trees were more like those of Europe than those of the countries which he had seen on the American continent. It is true that many of Coronado's men refused to believe these reports, and clung to the hopes created in their minds by the tales of the Indian from the east. But all the reports agree in every particular—even Castañeda's, who otherwise is so prone to find fault with his superiors and with everybody else. Furthermore, the descriptions by Coronado and his chroniclers were accepted by historians and geographers of the times. Quivira was looked upon as merely one section of the immense steppes of the North—devoid of mineral resources, thinly inhabited, cold, and principally roamed over by enormous herds of strangely shapen wild cattle.

This impression was in no manner changed by the statements of the Portuguese Andrés Docampo, when, several years after the return of Coronado, he appeared in Mexico, coming directly from Quivira. He had accompanied Fray Juan de Padilla to the Quiviras, and, when the priest was murdered, he fled, performing the enormous journey from northeastern Kansas to Tampico on foot. Docampo had nothing to say of Quivira but what fully agreed with Coronado's descriptions. And yet the fabulous reports of the treacherous Indian lin-

gered in the minds of many who took an interest in the unknown northern regions.

It is likely that the expedition which started for New Mexico under Leyva-Bonilla, against the positive orders of the superior authorities, about 1585 (the date is not, as yet, accurately known), was prompted by a desire of reaching Quivira and its supposed wealth. Nothing was ever heard of the ill-fated men, beyond that they perished in a prairie-fire somewhere on the confines of Colorado and northwestern Kansas. The course which Leyva and Humaña (who succeeded to him in command) pursued, lay east of the ranges of the Pueblo tribes—therefore, on the plains. Neither Chamuscado nor Espejo, both of whom had gone to New Mexico before (in 1581 and 1582), nor Castaño de Sosa in 1590, thought about Quivira. It was only after Juan de Oñate effectually occupied New Mexico, in 1598, that the search for the mythical region was again taken up.

"Distance lends enchantment to the view." This is as true in questions of time as it is in matters of space. Cibola, which had sounded so high and seemed so attractive immediately after its discovery by Fray Marcos of Nizza, had become well known through Coronado. It was again visited by Chamuscado and by Espejo, whereas Quivira was nearly forgotten with the exception of its name. Oñate took up the dream and followed it the more passionately as New Mexico proper failed to realize his anticipations. He set out for Quivira in 1599, penetrated into Colorado and Kansas, and came back without having found aught but steppes, buffaloes, roaming Indians, who were more or less ill-disposed, and some sections of well-irrigated and fertile country. The Indians with whom Oñate had intercourse on this journey were chiefly the Kansas. But he also met the Aijaos and the Quiviras. Reports were in circulation soon afterwards that the Aijaos had much gold; but the statement so far lacks official confirmation. Soon after, Quiviras came to New Mexico, and it was ascertained from them that their tribe lived north or northeast of that territory. It is about that time that another name for the Quiviras makes its appearance: it is the name Tindan. The Thinthon-ha, or Teton-Sioux, or "Gens des prairies," as Hennepin calls them on his map, were the most southern branch of the great Dakota or Sioux stock.

Thus far we have found the Quiviras always to the northward of New Mexico. In 1629 and thereafter they appear invariably to the east or southeast. The reports of Fray Alonzo de Benavides of 1629, the journeys of Alonzo Vaca (1634), and of Diego de Guadalajara (1654), placed the Quiviras in the Indian Territory. After 1680 they were located in northern Texas. Very soon after the reconquest of New Mexico (1692) they vanish; nothing is left of them but the name and a faint recollection of the many sacrifices which attempts at gathering illusory treasures had cost.

Not one of the Spanish expeditions in search of the Quivira resulted in more than positive increase of geographical knowledge. In that respect we are largely indebted to this phantom of the Quivira. It carried the Spaniards into Colorado, Kansas, and probably Nebraska. It brought them to the Indian Territory, and opened northern Texas. Every Spanish exploration had to keep its journal, and whereas, of course, observations upon the nature of the country, its resources and drawbacks, its people, were not made with the scientific accuracy of to-day, still they were made by practical men, well acquainted with life in the Southwest, and were faithfully recorded. From this point of view, the search for Quivira is a mine well worthy of the attention of present and future generations.

For the Spaniards themselves it was but a fatal mirage. The salutary warnings of Coronado had been forgotton, nothing but the name remained, and spectral visions of gold. These were eagerly followed by men who, thrust upon the unpromising soil of New Mexico, disappointed in the value of its mines, led a life of daily peril without any other relief to its monotony than the search for still greater risks. Such men embraced the pursuit of a ghost as a relief; not one secured remuneration for his ventures, and yet, strange to say, hardly a single one became satisfied that he had been following a mere phantom. They invariably found the truth—that is, they found a roving tribe which had gradually, in the course of a century, shifted its range from North to South. But every one of them looked for something beyond the truth, and their imperfect intercourse with the aborigines furnished information which, ill-comprehended, misinterpreted, confirmed them in their belief that the unknown beyond contained the goal of their desires. Their own numbers were so small, the means at their disposal so limited, that they were compelled to neglect the many other useful discoveries they made besides, and which did not immediately recompense the risk attendant upon the improvement of them.

In the above sketch I have not mentioned the second fruitless journey of Oñate in search of Quivira in 1606, and the problematic expedition of Peñalosa in 1662. The former went nearly due east from Santa Fé, and found the Aijaos again, whose northern neighbors were the Quiviras. The campaign brought no other results than hostilities, and a confirmation of what had been ascertained seven years previously. In regard to Peñalosa's supposed journey, while I am inclined to believe his report a forgery as far as the authorship ascribed to Fray Nicolas de Freytas is concerned, I am not yet prepared to admit that the journey itself, or some journey of the kind, was not performed by Peñalosa. He certainly attempted to penetrate into the plains, but without achieving much, if anything at all. The Maestro de Campo Juan Dominguez de Mendoza asserts that Peñalosa was well acquainted with every part of New Mexico, and had travelled over the entire country. Dominguez, it is true, is not the most reliable authority; still, as he was twenty-eight years of age when Peñalosa is supposed to have made the journey, he was fully competent to speak of the matter.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

Correspondence.

MR. LEA'S REVOLT AGAINST MR. QUAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Henry C. Lea's letter of October 15 to the *Times* of this city is remarkably characteristic of the political intelligence of a certain class of gentlemen. He will vote against Quay when the loss of his vote will do Quay no harm. And the reason why he will vote against Quay now, and why he advises others to vote against Quay now, is, because it will not hurt Quay. So long as Mr. Lea votes against Quay only when Quay doesn't want his vote, and votes for Quay when the loss of his vote would mean Quay's defeat, it does not seem likely that that gentleman's delicate susceptibilities will be affected. So long as Mr. Lea and his friends put up the money for Mr. Quay to use at the proper moment, he will generously close his eyes to any such little defections as Mr. Lea now proposes.

JOHN SAMUEL.

PHILADELPHIA, October 22.

[Mr. Lea—premising that "the President seems to have misunderstood wholly the lesson taught by the last election," has "abused the appointing power to place the party in New York under the domination of Tom Plattism, in Pennsylvania under Quayism, in Virginia under Mahoneism," has "degraded it and himself in obedience to a short-sighted opportunism which seeks to utilize the baser element of the party at the expense of the principles to which it and he alike are pledged," and is likely, if not arrested, to wreck his party by the end of his Administration—recommends reform Republicans to "omit to vote the State ticket," the only issue being "submission or revolt to Quayism." "Revolt," adds Mr. Lea, "can be safely indulged in," as it will only cut down the eighty thousand Republican majority of last year, not wipe it out.—ED. NATION.]

DR. BIRKBECK HILL'S BOSWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friendly but unknown correspondent, writing from the State of New York, asks me if the reprint, published by Messrs. Harper, of my edition of 'Boswell's Life of Johnson,' "differs in any particular as to the text" from the original. As I have never seen this reprint, I cannot, of course, answer his question. I have, therefore, requested him, as with your permission I will, through your valuable journal, request your readers, not to hold me answerable for any errors that may have been made.—I am, sir, your obedient servant,

GEORGE BIRKBECK HILL.

OXFORD, ENG., October 12, 1889.

COLLEGE TEMPTATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the recent inquiries in your columns for a college free from temptations, I enclose the following, only adding that Nos. 4 and 5 of this circular would be conclusive reasons to my mind why I should not send my son to Sewanee:

REASONS WHY YOUR SONS SHOULD BE SENT TO SEWANEE.

(4.) Owning a domain four miles in each direction, and having absolute control over it, it can guard students against those temptations that surround them at all other institutions.

(5.) Owing to its remoteness from cities and large towns, there is not the same inducement for its students to spend money outside of the regular college charges that exists elsewhere; hence the University of the South is really cheaper than most other colleges. The fees and charges for board are greater than at some other schools, but when we consider that there are no saloons, no billiard-rooms, nor gambling places allowed within four miles of Sewanee, we can see that in its higher charges for board and tuition the University of the South can afford to give its students the best tuition, and better guard them against the evils that beset other institutions.

Yours truly, F. P.

ANDOVER, Mass., October 24, 1889.

LOCKRAM AND LOCKRUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mrs. Dall, like other Shaksperians, has found so much in the great dramatist that she naturally expects to find everything there. Hence she confounded two different words—

lockrum, conversationally familiar to her New England childhood, and *lockram*, which she learned from Shakspere. Not finding their received meanings to agree, or to be reconcilable, she writes for the *Nation* to relieve her perplexity.

Her own inclination is to twist the Shaksperian *lockram* into a meaning antagonistic to the infallible lexicographer, Alexander Schmidt, as well as to all the commentators. She would not have been driven to this heresy, nor yet have needed to pen her letter of inquiry, had she looked for the *lockrums* of her own early experience in the 'Americanisms' of John S. Farmer—a book justly castigated in a recent issue of the *Nation*, but which is inevitable till a better one shall take its place. She would there read the following from Sam Slick's 'Clockmaker':

"I'd say to the members, don't come down here to Halifax with your *Lockrums* about politics."

Here is her American use, though it may not be clear whether it was born among Blue Noses or Yankees. As it regards *lockram*, she ought to have turned to some standard Shakspere—say the edition of Johnson and Stevens. Concerning *lockram* in the passage she quotes from "Coriolanus" (Act II., Scene 1), their comment is: It is some kind of cheap linen. They cite Green, who says of a man's dress: "His ruffe was of fine lockeram stitched very faire with Coventry blue." Again, from Beaumont and Fletcher:

"I give per annum two hundred ells of *lockram*
That there be no straight dealings in their linnens,"

etc.

Had your correspondent had these facts before her, *lockram* and *lockrum* would have been in her mind far more clearly distinguished than tweedle-dum and tweedle-dee. Nor would she have spoken of *lockram* as "evidently not linen, but some showy gaud," etc., leading a forlorn hope to attack an impregnable Shaksperian vocable. X. Y. Z.

MADISON, WIS.

THE TENNESSEE BALLOT LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Dortch law was passed by a Democratic Legislature avowedly for partisan ends. But it produced some curious and unlooked-for results. While many, white as well as colored, neglected to register, none of those registered were prevented from voting on account of illiteracy. The party managers provided tin slips with slots in them. When these were placed right side up over the lists of candidates, the slots indicated the proper place to check the names. This device is regarded as a legitimate feature of the system.

The bribery consisted in merely buying the certificates of registry of members of the opposite party, and was thus rendered twice as expensive as under the old method. When the Republican whips, for instance, came around to urge these Esaus to vote at once, they received the ready answer, "I 'clar, boss, I done lost my *stiffcate*."

If the law stands till another election, which is somewhat doubtful, it is expected that a much larger proportion of the people will secure their "*stiffcates*." OBSERVER.

NASHVILLE, TENN., October 23, 1889.

LIGHT READING FOR COLORED INFANTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention was called some Sundays ago to some literature that was sent by "some dear, good ladies in the North" to a Sunday-school for colored children here. A list of the literature sent—which is to take the place of the children's paper heretofore distributed—may interest and amuse your readers. There are numbers of copies of each paper mentioned:

The *Salmagundi*, published by the students of a seminary; the *Ladies' Home Journal*, which is a good thing in its place, but articles on the complexion and how to make handsome evening dresses and fancy articles, etc., are not of especial interest to colored children, whose complexion and dress do not disturb them very much; the *Crystal Palace and Weekly Home Journal*, telling "What Society Does in Washington," and giving an article on "Social Etiquette" and others of interest to many, could hardly be said to convey much spiritual instruction to the negro; *Literature*, published by John Alden, could not be comprehended by a single pupil in the school; and the *Standard of Cross and Crown*, a magazine published especially for clergymen and professional and business men, is also beyond them. Last, but not least, there are enough *Ogontz Mosaics* to supply the school for a month, and Sunday after Sunday it is conscientiously distributed, and it is really pitiful to see the looks of disappointment on the faces of the poor little souls as they are handed another copy of the eternal *Mosaic*. It serves to light fires, no doubt. Now, I have nothing to say against the *Mosaic*: it does the young ladies credit; but I think they would be the first to repudiate its being an attractive journal to an uneducated negro. Even the best-educated children in the Sunday-school here read with difficulty, and are about as well educated as the average white child of eight or ten years; and the older negroes, with very few exceptions, are not educated at all.

Considering the deep and tender interest that the North takes in the "poor negro," it surprises me that the "dear, good ladies" did not take more pains with their selection.

Very respectfully, N. D.

ASHLAND, VA., October 20, 1889.

A PLEA FOR CHAUTAUQUA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit a Chautauqua student who has derived some benefit from the instruction received in one of the special courses, to say a few words in defence of the system?

The prescribed course of reading seems to me intended but to whet the intellectual appetite, and is supplemented by special courses under the direction of well-known instructors with established reputations in their specialties. The fee for these special courses is very small, making them attainable by almost any one who is willing to make some self-denial. I am familiar with but one of the books constituting the course of reading for this year, Prof. Ely's work on political economy. Prof. Ely calls his book 'An Introduction to Political Economy,' and in the preface states that he hopes the book will excite the readers' curiosity, and lead them to continue their economic studies. The impression he desires left with the reader after finishing the book is, "I do not so much feel that I really know a great deal about political economy as that I am now in a position to learn something." Prof. Ely, at the conclusion of each chapter, gives authorities that may be profitably consulted on the questions involved, and, at the conclusion of his book, offers helpful suggestions for pursuing the subject, and a list of works appertaining to the subject to be studied. If a Chautauqua student, after reading this book, fancies he has nothing more to learn, it is certainly not the fault of the author.

One of your correspondents finds fault with the preparation by the Chautauqua Society of special text-books. I should like to call this correspondent's attention to the fact that the demand for these books being very large may lead in the future to their preparation by the ablest minds. I suppose even a Chautauqua student may say that the pecuniary success of a text-book is very uncertain, but if such success is assured, it must lead to their composition by specialists who, without such an assurance, would hardly devote their time to them.

There are many whose means are limited, who feel the desire to improve what opportunities they may have. Unaided, they would waste time and become disheartened. To such the Chautauqua special courses offer guidance and advice, and the system should certainly not be lightly condemned, nor held responsible for those imperfections of human nature from which, I am told, the regular college graduate is not altogether free. C. A. W.

BALTIMORE, MD., October 26, 1889.

ERRONEOUS CONCEPTIONS OF MANUAL TRAINING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every close observer of educational discussion sees that the foremost question of to-day relates to manual training. This is so in spite of no small effort on the part of the conservatives to keep the subject in the background. It will come up at every convention of teachers. There are advocates who cannot be silenced, and every community is demanding definite information as to the scope, aims, methods, and results of manual training.

Under these circumstances, it is highly important that the demand be met and that correct reports be given. It is matter for extreme regret, therefore, that the educational world should have been misinformed and misled by a report read at the recent meeting of the National Association at Nashville. The Standing Committee on Pedagogics in the Council of Sixty Educators presented a report on "The Educational Value of Manual Training" which of necessity gave, directly and indirectly, a definition of manual training, and which discussed a variety of topics presumably connected with the nature and purpose of the manual-training school. What I regard as misleading and erroneous is these fugitive definitions and occasional side discussions. It is not so much what the Committee actually declare, with one or two exceptions, as what they lead the reader to infer, that is most objectionable, as will soon be shown.

This report has already been twice published in full, and it will be printed, I suppose, in the Proceedings of the Nashville Convention. I venture the assertion that an intelligent, careful reader of that report, coming to it with no previous notion of manual training, would rise from its perusal with a widely erroneous conception of the nature and function of that educational feature known as manual training. I will quote a few sentences and phrases to sustain this assertion. I am not now concerned with the deductions of the Committee as to the educational value of manual training. Let us first agree upon what a manual-training school is and what it aims at; we may then discuss its value. I quote from the text in the (Boston) *Jou* *on* of August 8. The italics are mine.

In the outset, the Committee "have proposed in this report to inquire in what precisely consists the educative value of the *branches taught in the manual-training school*." Yet we find statements like the following:

(1.) "The *trades* that deal in wood and metals include the *entire curriculum of the manual training school.*"

(2.) "Your Committee admit the reasonableness of substituting a system of manual training in special schools for the old system of apprenticeship" for teaching trades; but

(3.) They "insist that *such manual training* ought not to be begun before the completion of the *twelfth year.*"

(4.) "Your Committee understand that any amount of manual training conducted in a school is no equivalent for the school education in *letters* and *science, and ought not to be substituted for it.*"

(5.) "The economic, utilitarian opposition to the spiritual education (?) . . . *makes sure of the child's inability to ascend above manual toil by cutting off his purely intellectual training*, and making his childhood a special preparation for industry."

(6.) "The *illiterate manual laborer*, no matter how skilfully educated for his trade in wood and metal operations, *cannot read and write.*"

(7.) "Boys may love the work of the manual-training school, and dislike history, grammar, and mathematics, and all book-learning, in fact; but *to be excellent in manual training would not prevent him from being illiterate and a bad neighbor, and a bad citizen—even a dynamiter.*"

There are other passages of similar import. The report points out the wretchedness of the street gamin, stunted physically and intellectually by privation and premature care. It dwells upon the misfortune of being unable to read and write, and enumerates the things one should know besides his trade. There is nothing in the context *at any point* to suggest that these assertions and dissertations are not all relevant to the discussion of the value of manual training as taught in schools. The picture the report presents is that of an institution where boys, not yet twelve years old, are being drilled in the "drudgery" of trade work hour after hour, month after month, without "the games of youth"; without due freedom from "the cares of mature life"; without science; without letters; without mathematics; without drawing, and without instruction in the duties and responsibilities of a good neighbor and a good citizen! The "entire curriculum" is given up to trade work along narrow lines by poor unfortunate boys who cannot read and write! What a sorry picture it is! I confess it seems incredible, but I appeal to the report itself in defence of my strong language.

Of what possible use can be any discussion of the educational value of such a training as is here assumed? If the manual-training school justifies any such language as I have quoted, then it is a crime against civilization, and its advocates are criminals. But what is the truth in regard to the "branches taught," the age of pupils, and the purpose of the manual-training school? First, as to its curriculum:

(1.) As much time, study, and recitation is given to science as to tool-work.

(2.) As much time is given to mathematics as to tool-work.

(3.) As much time is given to letters (language and literature) as to tool-work.

(4.) Half as much time is given to drawing as to tool-work.

Next, as to the ages of the pupils. The practice is very nearly uniform, among all manual-training schools, of making the *minimum age of admission* thirteen or fourteen years. The average age is at least one year more.

Thirdly, as to the nature of the work. The book-work is like that in high schools; in very numerous cases it *is* the high school. The tool-work is in no sense "drudgery"—it involves none of the cares and trials of mature life—nor is it in the narrow, wasteful lines of trades. Though dealing with tools and materials familiar to industrial life, its methods are new, and as unlike the ways in which children are prepared for certain industries as science and system are unlike guesswork and chance. Instead of "a narrow circle of trades," the shop-work gives a generous grasp of the scientific and mechanical principles that underlie nearly all industries.

Finally, we prefer to state our own purposes. We do not teach trades. We believe that the proper education for all youth to-day is a preparation for the duties and responsibilities of life, and therefore that our students must come out of school with the elements of high character, with vigorous, healthy bodies and minds, able to put hands and brains to work, to enter readily into sympathetic coöperation with the institutions of their country and time.

A manual-training school is not, on the one hand, a technical school for the training of engineers, nor, on the other hand, is it a trade school for turning out basket-makers or carpenters or smiths. In a manual-training school properly so called, no attempt is made to cultivate dexterity at the expense of thought. No mere sleight-of-hand is aimed at, nor is muscular exercise of itself held to be of educational value. An exercise, whether with tools or with books, is valuable only in proportion to the demand it makes upon the mind for intelligent, thoughtful work. In the school-shop the stage of mechanical habit is never reached. The only habit actually acquired is that of *thinking*. No blow is struck, no line drawn, no motion regulated, from muscular habit. The quality of every act springs from the conscious will, accompanied by a definite act of judgment.

Knowing and believing these things, it is hard to deal patiently with reports like the one under consideration, with its homilies on Arrested Development, Conduct, Illiteracy, and the Study of Pure Science, as though these were pertinent to their declared purpose. There is enough error and misconception in the world without adding to it under the august sanction and authority of the Council of the National Association. On the other hand, let us join hands to correct errors and to spread the truth.

It must not be supposed that I charge the Committee with any intention to mislead, nor with ignorance of the several features of the full course of study. By "the branches taught in the manual-training school," and the "entire curriculum," they probably meant only the tool-work, which, as I have shown, is really a minor part of the programme. It is much to be regretted, if I am right in my conjecture, that they did not say what they meant.

Again, and here is the severest thing I have to say, the Committee knew very well when they were speaking of manual laborers who could not read and write; of tender children working long days in factories; of bad citizens and dynamiters—they knew very well they were not speaking of any manual-training school East or West. They were speaking of certain *social evils* which are more or less connected with *trade work* and with *manual labor*. Their argument appears to be that in some way manual training is to be held responsible for those evils. It appears to be assumed that manual *labor* with tools, whenever, wherever, and by whomsoever performed, is educationally the same as manual *training* scientifically and logically taught in school; and that since the former is often hedged in with intellectual, moral, and physical depravity, the latter can be only an injury to education.

I insist upon it that our pedagogical friends, gentlemen whom I hold in high esteem in spite of this unfortunate report, have as yet no adequate idea of what a manual training school aims at, nor what its activities are. They have written a report which should have been entitled "A Discussion of Certain Social Evil which Manual-Training Schools are Destined to Remove." They set out, as they declare in the beginning, "to inquire in what precisely consists the educative value of the branches taught in the manual-training school"; but it is clear that they really did no such thing. They discussed the status of tool-workers who have had no education and no training. I am anxious to prevent harm to the cause from the publication of their report.

C. M. Woodward,
Director St. Louis Manual-Training School.

Notes.

Chas. A. Wenborne, Buffalo, N. Y., has nearly ready 'Voices of the Patriarchs,' by Luther R. Marsh.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press 'Standish of Standish,' an historical novel by Mrs. Jane G. Austin, and 'The Lily among Thorns,' an interpretation of Solomon's Song, by the Rev. W. E. Griffis.

B. Westermann & Co., New York, will market in this country an illustrated work of no small pretensions, 'Paris Moderne,' published by a group of artists (Paris: Librairie Nilsson). The letter-press will be furnished by Paul Bourget, Jules Claretie, François Coppée, A. Dumas fils, Jules Lemaitre, Melchior de Vogüé, etc. Woodcuts in the text and out of it and large etchings will accompany each of the twelve monthly parts, whose issue will date from December 1. Every phase of contemporary Parisian life and scenery will be depicted.

The 'Count of Monte Cristo' makes four volumes of the uniform English edition of Dumas's works which Little, Brown & Co. are issuing in Boston. They have the handy form, the bright exterior, the capital typography of the first of the series. The illustrations consist of etchings, two to a volume. No better dress for this romance could be desired.

Estes & Lauriat have revived, in a new version by A. L. Alger, Victor Hugo's 'Notre-Dame de Paris.' It is printed in a clear type, tastefully bound, and embellished in the "Tartarin" fashion—*i. e.*, with process reproductions of brush drawings, interspersed with the reading matter. The architectural bits are generally effective; the figure tableaus are not to be praised.

Macmillan & Co. send us the latest issue of the "Temple Library" series (London: J. M. Dent & Co.), being 'Select Essays of Dr. Johnson,' by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill, who has made Johnson his province. His introduction is complete in its information, and is very readable. His notes exhibit the same indefatigable research which characterized his edition of Boswell's Life. The print, if small, is distinct and elegant, and there are some delightful little etchings of Temple Bar, the hall of Staple Inn, St. John's Gate, Lichfield Cathedral, etc. The selections from the *Rambler* fill the whole of the first volume and part of the second; the *Adventurer* and *Idler* completing the latter. Altogether the scheme has been admirably carried out.

A little more than a year ago we noticed Mr. William Francis King's 'Classical and Foreign Quotations' (New York: T. Whittaker), a useful book despite many shortcomings, including too large a share of unscholarly or typographical blunders. The work has reached a second edition, and Mr. King shows himself ready to

profit by friendly criticism, as almost all the errors we pointed out have been corrected. He has renovated his indexes, too, though not as laboriously as his scheme required. The result is certainly an improvement on its predecessor.

A second edition of Mr. John H. Wigmore's 'Australian Ballot System, as Embodied in the Legislation of Various Countries,' has just been brought out by the Boston Book Co. The original publication was most timely; and as interest in ballot reform is unabated, we may expect a great demand for this enlargement, which embraces a detailed account of what Mr. Wigmore rightly calls "the movement" in almost every State and Territory since January, 1889; a summary of the legislation of the present year (we wish the full text had been given); interpretative decisions in Great Britain, Ireland, Canada, and Australia; and much miscellaneous practical matter, regarding speed of voting, the formation of ballot leagues, voting machines, etc. In short, Mr. Wigmore has spared no pains to make a complete record of progress, and in so doing has furnished the only weapon needed by the friends of honest suffrage. We owe to him no small share of the extraordinary successes in legislation during the year now expiring.

An interesting manual of how to teach literature to children is published under the title' 'Literary Landmarks: a Guide to Good Reading for Young People, and Teacher's Assistant,' by Mary E. Burt (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The author brings an experience of twenty years to the subject. Her pupils have been from six to fourteen years of age, and her plan involves continuous study for the entire period of eight years. She writes clearly and minutely of each successive course, with particular directions regarding the order and treatment of topics and books. The signal distinction of this little volume is, that it maintains the capability of children to be interested in the best imaginative works of the race, beginning with the Greek and Latin classics and continuing through Dante and Shakspere. The method is to present the stories of the poets, and trace the development of the leading myths, of the ancient world, the romance of the mediæval age, and the reworking of these materials by the moderns. Miss Burt rightly says that the classics afford a simpler literature than that of later times, and are therefore the best material to begin with. She is satisfied with the success of her experiments, and her pages abound in illustrations of particular results. Diagrams and essays by the children themselves are introduced, to show how their minds took hold of the subject. The effort to give them some knowledge of the contents and the continuity of literature has been rewarded, the author thinks, even when they have left school at the age of ten, as 50 per cent. of her pupils do. Her book deserves the attention of teachers and of those who are interested in home-education in books. The complete list of books referred to, which is added in the last chapter, may also prove serviceable in the formation of children's libraries.

Another manual of literature, in the dry, hackneyed, traditional style, is Dr. Horace H. Morgan's 'English and American Literature for Schools and Colleges' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). The least claim that such a compilation of facts and dates can have to attention is accuracy, but this is not safely to be put forth in this case. The author's reliance on dictionaries and other works of a general character which have not been brought down to date, has led him into statements as old-fashioned as his method; his including unknown and provincial names in his lists of American authors impeaches his discrimination; and his critical remarks do not win confidence in his judgment. The use of material at second hand is constantly betrayed. The defects of the volume necessarily deny it serious consideration.

A third publication on the same general subject is Donald G. Mitchell's 'English Lands, Letters, and Kings from Celt to Tudor' (Charles Scribner's Sons), in which he has gathered a series of agreeable talks to young people about the course of English literature from Caedmon to the death of Elizabeth. The author modestly disclaims exact scholarship and learning, but we have observed no fault in this respect. He is interested in the story. He tells quite enough about the early founders of English literature without allowing their dulness to burden the mind, and he is entertaining and picturesque—altogether an excellent introducer for the young to a region of literature usually tedious to them, and (except that we could wish he had been more open to Spenser's charm) satisfactory in all he says. Older readers, too, will find these talks a pleasant means of refreshing their knowledge.

From the same publishers we have received also a new and dainty edition of Mr. Mitchell's long-popular volumes,' The Reveries of a Bachelor' and 'Dream-Life,' each with an attractive and appropriate etching by Percy Moran. Paper, typography, and a smooth dark binding (marred, we think, by the white cameo on the cover), make these volumes beautiful examples of the art. The vein of sentiment in the text (though one who renews acquaintance with it after twenty years may understand the better the author's deprecating tone in his later preface) is one of which youth never tires. It is not unwholesome, with its romantic sensibility and somewhat over-poignant pathos; it is humanizing in a true sense, and that it still continues to be read after forty years is a gratification to others besides the author.

The wants of those who desire an illustrative book of examples to serve as a companion volume to a manual of American literature are met by Huntington Smith's 'A Century of American Literature' (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), in which he has made selections from a hundred authors—from Franklin to Lowell. The choice of the compiler falls in with that of the popular taste in the case of the better-known authors; and in dealing with most of the one hundred he has properly restricted himself to the single pieces which have survived in reading-books and boys' declamations. There are, however, several selections which are fresh and well deserve remembrance.

'A Collection of the Letters of Charles Dickens,' 1833–1870 (Charles Scribner's Sons), gathers in a small and pretty volume examples of the correspondence of the hard-worked pen of the novelist, in which his vivacity and flow of spirits, his good-fellowship, his trials as a traveller, his public charitable spirit, and his fatherly care of his sons receive illustration in the most direct way. His immense delight in his success is one of the cheerful things in the book; but generally speaking it is not an intimate, but a jovial little collection—Dickens the friend rather than Dickens the man. It must be added, however, that in his case the friend was a large part of the man. The selection seems to have been well made.

The first number of the *No Name Magazine* (Baltimore: The American Press Co.), which is upon our table, is introduced by a hitherto unpublished boyish satire of Poe, upon an acquaintance in Richmond, which no admirer of the poet need be at much pains to look up. Other contributions (in accordance with the implied promise of the title of the magazine) are anonymous.

Another new periodical is the *Globe*, "a new quarterly review of world-literature, society, religion, art, and politics," conducted by Wm. Henry Thorne, and published at 112 North Twelfth Street, Philadelphia. It is too early, perhaps, to judge whether the editor will give reality to his long belief that "a first-class literary review could and should be published in this country." A very brief intimation of the "Characteristics of Philadelphia" points out that city's low rank in commerce, architecture, etc., but alleges that "in the matter of literature we are stronger than ever." As the editor promises to return to the subject and give it radical treatment, we will only say that a low estate in point of literary originality, independence, and productiveness has seemed to us as necessarily Philadelphia's portion as in the particulars enumerated, and from one cause mainly—perfect subserviency to the doctrine of protection. Mr. Thorne is a follower of Carlyle and of Ruskin. The unsigned review of Cabot's 'Life of Emerson' contains much truth, pungently expressed.

The Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University is now ready to deliver No. 1 of the *Beiträge zur Assyriologie und vergleichenden semitischen Sprachwissenschaft*, edited by Prof. Paul Haupt of that institution in connection with Prof. Friedrich Delitzsch of the University of Leipzig. This periodical will be issued at irregular intervals, and will form a pendant to the quarto volumes of Delitzsch and Haupt's "Assyriological Library." Contributions in other languages than German will be admissible. The same agency will receive subscriptions for the new monthly *Hospital Bulletin* authorized to be issued by the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins Hospital. Nine numbers will be issued annually, beginning next month.

A. C. Armstrong & Co. are to issue conjointly with Elliot Stock the London *Bookworm*, second series.

Prof. W. M. Davis's paper on "The Rivers and Valleys of Pennsylvania," in the third number of the *National Geographic Magazine*, is one of the first to stamp that publication with a character something more than dilettante. It is clearly illustrated by the writer.

An interesting account of Lake Tanganyika, read by Mr. E. C. Hore before the British Association, opens the October Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. This water is the drainage reservoir of an area extending some 600 miles from north to south, with an extreme breadth of 300 miles, and until recently has had no outlet. The amount of rainfall has for an unknown period exceeded the loss by evaporation, so that the lake has gradually risen until, in 1874, the time of Commander Cameron's visit, it was brimful, reaching the summit of its shore barrier in two places, one on the east, the other on the west coast. The contour of the land to the east soon checked the outflow in this direction; but to the west the land slopes rapidly, and the water cut a deep channel and flows into the Congo. In 1878, when Mr. Hore began his observations, it was a rushing torrent, and had already lowered the level of the lake, which is 420 miles long by ten to fifty broad, four feet. In the succeeding ten years the lake fell eighteen feet more, but now the outflow is very sensibly diminishing, and will probably soon represent simply the inch or two of excess of rainfall over the evaporation. A striking description is given of the peculiar meteorological phenomena, the thunder-storms of the lake. Ten distinct tribes inhabit the shores, representing all the African families, from the Gal-

las on the north to the Zulus on the south, and even including the cannibal dwarfs. It is remarkable that the oldest inhabitants make the least use of the lake, while the representatives of the Gallas, though "the most expert canoeists and fishermen, and the only users of the catamaran," have such a prejudice against "the water," as they call it, that they consider it unlucky for their principal chief to see it.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for October contains an account by Moriz von Déchy of the region about Adai-Choch, in the Caucasus, together with a description of the first ascent of the central peak. From the careful measurements of one of the glaciers it appeared that within a year it had receded twenty feet. This is followed by an enthusiastic account, by Dr. Julius Röll, of a mountain in Washington Territory, which he visited last year while collecting specimens for the German National-Arboretum at Zöschen near Merseburg. It is situated between two lakes, some twenty miles from the station of Easton, on the Northern Pacific Railroad. The view from the summit is remarkably fine, especially of Mt. Tacoma, of which he says: "I have never, neither in Switzerland nor in the Tyrol, neither in the Rocky Mountains nor in the Cascades, seen a mountain which could be compared with it, Mont Blanc and Monte Rosa not excepted." Finding that the mountain, which is about 7,500 feet high, was without a name, he called it Mt. Rigi, and he prophesies that before long there will be a railway to the top. Maps accompany both papers.

The Société Finlandaise d'Archéologie has published a handsome folio containing the inscriptions of Ienissei. There is an introduction giving the history of the discovery of the monuments, copies of the inscriptions, and photographs of the monuments.

The October number of *Le Livre* offers its readers a genuine surprise. With the end of the year, it is announced, this magazine will terminate its existence in its present shape and on its present plan, and to its twenty volumes an index will be supplied if the requisite support is forthcoming. M. Octave Uzanne will carry over the name and his personal direction to the new departure, a small octavo, which will appeal to a restricted audience—1,000 subscribers and no more—and deal with contemporary literature and biblomania, in accordance with a programme at once too extensive and too vague to summarize. It has been evident of late that *Le Livre* has been laboring to maintain its original scheme, particularly in the fore part of the magazine; and M. Uzanne gives notice that the new venture will be conveniently Protean as to the color of its covers, and even perhaps as to size and character, from time to time.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us the latest addition to his photographic gallery of eminent Americans—a half-life-size panel portrait of James Russell Lowell. It is, in our judgment, the most admirable of all taken in Mr. Lowell's later years, and can be heartily recommended to those who desire an adequate memorial of the poet, scholar, diplomatist, and Independent in politics.

A circular of the Harvard Law School Association shows a membership of 848 members, representing nearly the entire Union, and more than a quarter of the living alumni of the School, the fostering of which is the immediate object of the Association. A revised edition of the catalogue of the members of the School from the commencement will be distributed next year. The low fee of membership in the Association is so slight that there can be no excuse for not joining. The management is a distinguished body. The Treasurer is Mr. Winthrop H. Wade, 10 Tremont Street, Boston.

During the coming year *Harper's Magazine* will publish a series of three articles on "Three Distinctive Types of American University Life," Yale being described by Mr. Chauncey Depew, Harvard by Prof. Norton, and Princeton by Prof. Sloane. The writers just named are certainly also "distinctive types."

—The leading paper of the November *Atlantic* is a short dissertation, by Mr. Woodrow Wilson, upon the "Character of Democracy in the United States." The view taken is the well-worn one that our institutions are derived from English precedents and not from Continental thinkers, from habit and not from doctrine. The influence of Europe, the writer thinks, is now being conveyed in the streams of immigration, and will enter somewhat into the forces that shape the future. In the circumstances in which we now find ourselves, he maintains that the great want in our system is the lack of leadership in legislation. The entire article abounds in reflections, in apposite phrases, in concise and pointed thought; but the principle of legislative leadership, which appears to be the objective point of the writer, has no necessary connection with the general remarks which make up the body of the article. Although the questions raised are not new, so intelligent and aggressive a discussion of them must attract notice. The second thoughtful article of the number is Prof. Charles H. Moore's paper upon the "Materials for Landscape Art in America." The survey, which is practically confined to the New England and Middle States, is depressing to this artist. He looks for the marks of man's presence and influence on the scene, and desires also the age that gives tone and picturesqueness to the works of man, and necessarily he is disappointed; his search for the beautiful, however, among our bridges and along the roadsides, with his eyes intent only on the human element in the scene, is interesting. The career of Marie Bashkirtseff, as told in her diary, is a story likely to attract much notice as a literary sensation, and is agreeably treated in Sophia Kirk's résumé of the volume.

— *Scribner's* is of unusual interest. Col. H. G. Prout (Baroud Bey) contributes the promised article upon the Equatorial Provinces, where Emin exercises his extraordinary power, and gives in brief compass an admirable account of the geography, history, ethnology, and the present condition and prospects of the country. The view he holds seems to be that which Gordon expressed in saying, "I returned with the sad conviction that no good could be done in those parts, and that it would have been better had no expedition ever been sent." Emin, he thinks, may, by sacrificing himself to the people there, postpone the relapse into barbarism for some years; but unless physical control is exercised over the region, either through the Sudan or from the south, by some one "better than the Turk, the Arab, or the Circassian," the negro savage will return to his original state. The personal reminiscences of Gordon in the paper add to its interest. A topic which should be always a living one in this country is treated at large by Prof. J. Russell Soley of our navy, under the heading, "The Effect on American Commerce of an Anglo-Continental War." He takes up the commonly discussed phase of the question in regard to the transfer of English shipping to neutral Powers, and concludes that there would be such delay in removing the restrictions on our merchants that this country would get only a small share, if any, of the English carrying-trade. He then comes to the important question of international law in regard to the power of belligerents to declare provisions contraband, reviews the history of the subject down to the last French precedent of Tonquin, and shows the danger in which our export trade would be placed if our fleet were unable to support at once our views of neutral rights upon the ocean. The article opens the whole subject in a broad spirit. We have room only to mention Dr. Starr's paper upon "Electricity in relation to the Human Body," with special reference to its slight curative power, and Oscar Browning's description of "Goethe's House at Weimar," with its numerous cuts of the rooms so long closed to the public. Marie Bashkirtseff's career is treated also in this magazine by Josephine Lazarus.

— The history of the American stage receives entertaining illustration in the opening chapter of Joseph Jefferson's autobiography in the *Century Magazine*, in which he gathers anecdote and incident relating to his childhood and early years, more particularly in the Western and Southern circuit, and makes the reader personally acquainted with him in a frank and familiar narrative. The many cuts which adorn the instalment, principally portraits of well-known actors mentioned in the text, are full of vigor. Another interesting set of illustrations is given in connection with Mr. Brander Matthews's account of the Grolier Club of this city and the publications which have distinguished its career. No club of exactly the same character and scope is to be found in any other of the great capitals of the world, and, though its publications are for a narrow circle, the result of its influence upon the art of bookmaking in America will be, it is hoped, more widely spread. The edition of Richard de Bury's 'Philobiblon,' now in hand, will be one of the Club's "monuments," and the choice could not be bettered. Very remote from tastes so elegant and luxurious as these is the series of brief extracts from Mark Twain's 'A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court,' in which the modern age turns the light of its ridicule upon the legend of chivalry with farcical effect, and in a spirit of realism not to be approached by those who cultivate it as an art. Another humorous article of a different order is the paper of reminiscences of "The Newness," as the movement of the more extreme social reformers in New England at the period of transcendentalism was called. The vagaries of the disciples who came under the writer's observation were amusing enough, but such as to make one wonder at the toleration they met with even more than at the odium they occasionally encountered. The increasing disposition of organized Christian thought to take part in social and quasi-political discussion is signalized by the first of a series of papers, by a kind of syndicate of ecclesiastical and lay writers, entitled "Present-Day Papers."

—*Harper's* also presents a richly illustrated theatrical paper, by Mr. Laurence Hutton, under the title, "A Century of Hamlet." He reviews the acting of this character in New York from its first presentation in 1761, with a minuteness and breadth of knowledge such as is now to be expected from this well-informed authority, and with great liberality of judgment upon the various types which different temperaments have worked out under the inspiration of the play. The cuts are, in several cases, curious, and the portraits, though uneven in excellence, are generally good. "The Mexican Army," "York," and "The Republic of Colombia" are the leading articles, which have for their object general information, and

are capably done. The picturesque elements of the historic cathedral city of the north of England are made full use of both by the artist and the writer of the text; and perhaps in the case of Colombia, the timeliness of the topic may be held to compensate for the absence of illustrations. Prof. Charles Eliot Norton writes, in his accustomed vein of noble language and feeling, of the building of the Cathedral of Chartres, and gives some details of the architecture in well-chosen cuts. Mr. Gibson's "Bird-Notes" is also remarkable for its characteristic sketches of nature. The entire number is pictorial to a degree that tends to make one forget the conspicuous absence of any paper of more than passing interest.

—The initial number of the third volume of the *Journal of Morphology* (June, 1889) shows a distinct falling off from the high place hitherto maintained, although each of the four papers presents noteworthy facts and generalizations. More than half of the space is occupied by McMurrich's account of the Bahama Actinaria, containing excellent expositions of their structure, distribution, and affinities, with four fine plates. Among the general remarks, p. 71, is one to the effect that "the relationship of the West Indian Actinaria to those of the Pacific is another piece of evidence in favor of a past communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans through the Isthmus of Panama." Mr. Peck's demonstration of considerable "variation of the spinal nerves in the caudal region of the domestic pigeon" shows, among other things, that the *filum terminale* of the spinal cord extends far into the coccyx, and presents a canal to its extremity, and that the bird has no *cauda equina* like that of mammals. The two papers of Dr. Shufeldt, on the anatomy of the burrowing owl and on the osteology and classification of the passerine birds of North America, are far from satisfactory in several respects. The first paragraph of the "Conclusions" in the latter paper is hardly atoned for by suggestive remarks upon, *e. g.*, the high rank of the raven. The other paper contains entire paragraphs of but little value, *e. g.*, that respecting the brain on p. 118; and on every page there is more or less of what, in a less dignified periodical, would be characterized as "padding." The number exhibits some lack of editorial supervision or of proof-reader's care: a lumen may be *distinct*, but hardly "prominent" (p. 132); on p. 123, *point* should be *level;* on p. 128, sixth line from top, *is* should be *in*. *Cœca* for *cœcum* (p. 123), and *Cathatidæ* for *Cathartidæ* (p. 121) are examples of needless typographical errors. It is gratifying to all morphologists, and particularly to those of this country, to note, from the title-page, that the editor has been made Professor of Animal Morphology in the newly opened Clark University at Worcester, Mass.

— Next to the complete absence of undergraduate work and men, and the exclusion of about nine out of every ten applicants, one of the most novel features of Clark University is the system of Docents. Their functions have just been defined as follows: The highest annual appointment is that of Docent. This rank and title is primarily intended as an honor to be awarded to those worthy of more permanent and lucrative positions, as professors or assistant-professors in colleges. It may be bestowed, without examination, upon a few men who have advanced beyond the requirements of a doctorate, and who satisfy the authorities of the University by a thesis, a public address, or in any other way, of both their scientific attainments and their teaching ability; and, if necessary, it may be accompanied by a salary. Docents may be provided with individual rooms, and special apparatus may be purchased for their research if desired and approved. They may also be equipped and sent on scientific expeditions. While they will be expected, during some part of the year, to deliver a limited number of lectures on some special chapter of their department, their time will usually be reserved for study and research in a way best adapted to qualify them still more fully for academic advancement. It is believed that by the existence of such a select body of men of guaranteed scientific training, ability, and approved power to teach, the difficulties under which college trustees sometimes succumb in selecting suitable men for their professors may be diminished, and that otherwise this academic grade will aid in raising standards of scholarships in colleges and in encouraging scientific research. In addition to this, Docents are to be entirely independent of the leading professors in all the subject matter and manner of teaching, and are accountable directly to the president and trustees. They are not assistants, but have free use of all books and apparatus for their work. It is the design of the authorities that they should illustrate the entire freedom of teaching, and be at liberty to rival or compete with any course or research of any professor. Should they become in any sense assistants of the leading professors, they will entirely fail of their function. Seven have already been appointed, and there are a number of further applications.

—It may be remembered that last January the *Matin* sent out a circular letter, of which we spoke at the time, to certain well-known literary men, and scholars and artists, asking their opinion of Gen. Boulanger. Since the last elections the *Écho de Paris* has done much the same thing, and prints a number of the answers it has received, some of which are amusing. M. A. Mézières writes seriously of the painfulness of a revolution in cold blood at the ballot-box; and with some reason, for France is perhaps the only country on earth that would consent to put its form of government on trial for its life at every election. M. Maxime Du Camp fears much angry obstructiveness on the part of the minority in the Chamber. M. Jules Simon has nothing to say of Boulanger, except that the mention of his name bores him, and that he hopes that this will cease before long. M. Goblet thinks it best to be silent, since he has just been beaten. MM. André Theuriet and Zola trust that now they may be left to write in peace. Louise Michel rises to a height of Pythian eloquence:

"They who, calm, watch the dawning of the new era, hear in the hush that goes before the cyclone the chant of Labor:

"Plutôt que travailler
Sans pain et sans s'abriter,
La tombe,
La tombe!

"Compagnes, compagnons,
Debout tous, et nous prendrons
Le monde,
Le monde!"

Paulus, the singer, makes a very light response. He has sold 300,000 copies of "En r'venant d'la r'vue," he says, and 300,000 also of the "Père de Victoire," so that honors are easy between the two parties, so far as concerns him. His new song, "La Boiteuse," will be the success of the day, doubtless, since the electoral situation seems to him also *boiteuse*. MM. Bocher, de Broglie, de MacMahon, Canrobert, Daudet, and P. Bourget decline, for various reasons, to express any opinion.

—A recent number of one of the illustrated Copenhagen papers contains a very appreciative account of our late Minister to Denmark, Mr. Rasmus B. Anderson. The writer, after commenting briefly on Mr. Anderson's services to Scandinavia as author and translator, touches upon the work accomplished by him in his official capacity as the representative of the United States. It is declared, as is undeniably true, that few ministers have gone abroad with a fuller knowledge of and a deeper sympathy with the country to which they were sent than Mr. Anderson. We learn that by his keen interest in Danish politics and literature he gained a position of influence in Copenhagen beyond that exercised by any previous representative of our country, and that by his simple, unaffected cordiality he won a place in the hearts of the Copenhageners that will always keep his memory fresh in the charming little city of the North. His general interest in Scandinavia as a whole, too, as a land with a common ancestry and common traditions, did not a little towards diminishing the ill-feeling that unfortunately exists between the sister kingdoms. Mr. Anderson, while he carefully avoided identifying himself with any special party movement, made a careful study of the political, social, and commercial conditions of Denmark. He was accordingly, on the theory of the spoils system, ripe for retirement to private life, and the change of administrations at home insured his removal.

WALLACE'S DARWINISM.

Darwinism: An Exposition of the Theory of Natural Selection with some of its Applications. By Alfred Russel Wallace, LL.D., F.L.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xiv, 494, with map and illustrations.

THE author of this work is notoriously one of the originators of the Darwinian theory, "the origin of species by means of natural selection and the preservation of favored races in the struggle for life." The theory is familiar to all, as are also the effects of its promulgation. At a time when the minds of investigators were filled with uncertainty as to the foundations of their science, it supplied just what was needed to overthrow the belief in special creations, and to arouse to intense activity both partisans and opponents. In their zeal and confidence, the supporters of the elastic doctrine appeared to sweep everything before them. Their enthusiasm permitted no limits to their claims. With a certain class, to suspect their proof or doubt their creed was sufficient to bring a scientist into disrepute. By Natural Selection they accounted for everything; organic evolution was nothing but selection to them. This was going much too far for many of the evolutionists with whose aid they had triumphed. From the beginning of the agitation there were conservatives who would no more accept the new theory on faith than that it was to displace; these demanded proof of every step. Some of them viewed selection as only one of the numerous factors in evolution; others could see in it no real cause. For the latter it meant but a statement of the existence of effects making up the species or organism, a complex of results of the greatest number and variety of causes. In other words, Natural Selection, like special creation, was simply a screen behind which were to be sought the solutions of the many and complicated problems of life, its causes and its modifications. Fully recognizing the immense amount of good directly done by the new hypothesis, and hoping for even more from a reaction, these dissenters, if we may call them such, have worked on confident in their position and strength. From time to time they

have come forward, through their researches, with calls for more consideration, and, with more or less reluctance, it has been accorded. A consequence is seen in the modification of the Darwinian theory, until, as accepted now, it differs greatly from what it was when Darwin laid down his pen. That an adverse current has set in is evident from the contents of the book before us; but the fact is not at all to be regretted, since it leads to increase of experimental knowledge and to more correct estimates of the value of the theory it threatens.

It is well that Mr. Wallace is in the field at the moment, able to strike in defence of his creed the strongest blow since those dealt by his illustrious partner, for there is no one among the disciples so well prepared for the undertaking. While it is difficult to imagine how the subject could have been brought forward more effectively than is done here, it is very doubtful if the book will stay the tide or change its direction in the least. In this review but few of the many points worthy attention can be noticed; besides, the bulk of the matter in the book was discussed upon its appearance in the works of Darwin, our author, and others. The purpose of the volume is to give a concise presentation of the theory and the evidence, and at the same time to counteract a recent tendency to subordinate selection to laws of variation, use and disuse, intelligence, and heredity.

It is not so very easy to determine from these chapters how much their author intends to cover by the terms "Darwinism" or "Natural Selection." In the preface the intention to deal even in outline with the vast subject of evolution is disclaimed, yet, by the time the reader finishes the pages headed "Darwinism —the Geological Evidences of Evolution," he may not be blamed for concluding that in Mr. Wallace's mind Darwinism and Evolution are synonymous, or, on rising from the last chapter, "Darwinism Applied to Man," that he accounts for everything by Natural Selection plus occasional interpositions of spirit. To illustrate, compare the following quotations. Taking up the discussion of some of the more fundamental problems and difficulties advanced by eminent naturalists, Mr. Wallace says:

"It is the more necessary to do this because there is now a tendency to minimize the action of Natural Selection in the production of organic forms, and to set up in its place certain fundamental principles of variation, or laws of growth, which, it is urged, are the real originators of the several lines of development, and of most of the variety of form and structure in the vegetable and animal kingdoms. These views have, moreover, been seized upon by popular writers to throw doubt and discredit on the whole theory of evolution, and especially on Darwin's presentation of that theory, to the bewilderment of the general public, who are quite unable to decide how far the new views, even if well established, tend to subvert the Darwinian theory, or whether they are really more than subsidiary parts of it, and quite powerless without it to produce any effect whatever."

From page 444 we copy a declaration of the faith:

"While admitting, as Darwin always admitted, the coöperation of the fundamental laws of growth and variation, of correlation and heredity, in determining the direction of lines of variation or in the initiation of peculiar organs, we find that variation and natural selection are ever-present agencies, which take possession, as it were, of every minute change originated by these fundamental causes, check or favor their further development, or modify them in countless varied ways according to the varying needs of the organism. Whatever other causes have been at work, Natural Selection is supreme to an extent which even Darwin himself hesitated to claim for it. The more we study it, the more we are convinced of its overpowering importance, and the more confidently we claim, in Darwin's own words, that 'it has been the most important, but not the exclusive, means of modification.'"

Accepting this as the more exact statement, the sceptical ask, for the more moderate, proof that selection is a supreme cause, or, for the more radical, in addition to proof of its existence, proof that it is really a cause. The book will satisfy neither; in fact, its version will only be accepted with considerable modification by many of the advocates of Darwinism.

Some students recognize phases or varieties in artificial selection, as, that due to climate, food, etc., that due to the effort of the organism, and that due to the will of man; these ask what in Natural Selection corresponds to man's will. If there is such an agent, it must be present and acting in artificial selection; so that the latter equals Natural Selection with the added element, the exercise of man's choice. An approach toward an answer is seen in the "Survival of the Fittest." Survival is a consequence of compliance with the demands of circumstances, and the responses to these are regulated by the laws of growth, etc. With the diversity in demands, the causes are numerous, and by bunching them together in the phrase Natural Selection nothing is explained.

In different paragraphs Darwinism is defined as a principle, a law, a theory, a self-acting process, descent with modification, Natural Selection, or the Survival of the Fittest. On one page "it acts solely by the preservation of useful variations," on another it "acts by the life or death of the individual submitted to its action." In answer to the objection that the first rudiments of certain organs could not have been of use, we note the following: "Now, the first remark to be made on objections of this nature is, that they are really outside the question of the origin of all existing species from allied species not very far removed from them, which is all that Darwin undertook to *prove* by means of his theory." In this connection we may use Darwin's words in expressing his conviction that species have been modified during a long course of descent: "This has been effected chiefly through the natural selection of numerous successive slight favorable variations, aided in an important manner by the inherited effects of the use and disuse of parts, and in an unimportant manner—that is, in relation to adaptive structures whether past or present—by the direct action of external conditions, and by variations which seem to us, in our ignorance, to arise spontaneously." Mr. Wallace would subtract from this the inheritance of the effects of use and disuse, and of the effects of the direct action of external conditions, except, perhaps, on organisms very low in the scale.

A constant employment of the word "use" and its derivatives makes it appear as if Lamarckism had served as a foundation for the theory. According to Wallace, Lamarck attributed the change of species chiefly to the effect of changes in the condition of life—such as climate, food, etc.—and especially to the desires and efforts of animals themselves to improve their condition, leading to a modification of form and size in certain parts, owing to the well-known physiological law that all organs are strengthened by constant use, while they are weakened or even completely lost by disuse. By this a most important difference between Lamarckism and Darwinism proper lies in the process of accumulation; it is further from our author's belief in that he advocates non-inheritance of acquired characters to strengthen his position. Galton and Weismann have not helped him greatly, since he admits transmission of predispositions, as in disease, or of tendencies in lines of descent in cases like those of the flat fishes; but Darwin's recognition of the existence of tendencies, in the words, "There can be little doubt that the tendency to vary in the same manner has often been so strong that all the individuals of the same species have been similarly modified without the aid of any form of selection," is declared to be without proof, and to be so entirely opposed to all we know of the facts of variation given by Darwin himself that the important word "all" is probably an oversight. By the older theory the presence of organs or their loss would be credited to use or disuse; the variation being induced by effort, and owing increase and permanence to it and to usage. The later one alleges the variation to be fortuitous, and that the beneficial (useful) is seized upon by selection, increase being made by further spontaneous variation. Wallace says of the wingless birds: "Year after year, therefore, those individuals which had shorter wings, or which used them least, were preserved; and thus, in time, terrestrial, wingless, or imperfectly winged races or species have been produced." A modern Lamarckian would read it thus: "Year after year the effects of disuse were felt by *all* the individuals, and, from lack of effort and use, a tendency in variation was induced which, continued for generations, has led to loss of ability to fly"; thus premising a modification of all the progeny, instead of a weeding-out process. It is admitted that in individual cases something may be left to chance; we see no proof, however, that most if not all sudden extinctions are not accidental, at least in so far as directly concerns the victims. The best examples of variation cited, such as the Oahu land-shells, show no proof of a weeding out.

Use (or a derivative) may be substituted for the word selection in the majority of instances without changing the sense. Much of the evidence adduced will serve the Lamarckian equally well, with little or no modification in statement. For instance, take the paragraph relating to the flounders, on page 129, which will also indicate the transmission of acquired characters through tendencies or habits consequent upon effort and use:

"Soles, turbots, and other flat fish are, as is well known, unsymmetrical. They live and move on their sides, the under side being usually differently colored from that which is kept uppermost. Now the eyes of these fish are curiously distorted in order that both eyes may be on the upper side, where alone they would be of any use. It was objected by Mr. Mivart that a sudden transformation of the eye from one side to the other was inconceivable, while, if the transit were gradual, the first step could be of no use, since this would not remove the eye from the lower side. But, as Mr. Darwin shows by reference to the researches of Malm and others, the young of these fish are quite symmetrical, and during their growth exhibit to us the whole process of change. This begins by the fish (owing to the increasing depth of the body) being unable to maintain the vertical position, so that it falls on one side. It then twists the lower eye as much as possible towards the upper side; and the whole bony structure of the head being at this time soft and flexible, the constant repetition of this effort causes the eye gradually to move round the head till it comes to the upper side. Now, if we suppose this process, which in the young is completed in a few days or weeks, to have been spread over thousands of generations during the development of these fish, those usually surviving whose eyes retained more and more of the position into which the young fish tried to twist them, the change becomes intelligible; though it still remains one of the most extraordinary cases of degeneration, by which symmetry—which is so universal a characteristic of the higher animals—is lost, in order that the creature may be adapted to a new mode of life,

whereby it is enabled the better to escape danger and continue its existence."

The exercise of selection here is entirely suppositious, for some of the species have the eyes greatly distorted, others but little. In regard to want of symmetry, Mr. Wallace says, "When, however, it has become useful, as in the case of the single enlarged claw of many crustacea, it has been preserved by Natural Selection." It is not at all clear that this is an improvement on the explanation, "It has been induced and preserved by effort, use, and heredity."

Much of the evidence presented as new is taken from what apparently are exceptional cases, and from insufficient observations; in the conclusions drawn there is much use of such phrases as "may be due to" and "is probably due to." The presence of a great deal of assumption or guess work does not increase the value of the proof. The assumptions that the effects of dread and pain are not similar in men and other animals, that man, in general, has greater fear of death, that among lower creatures no fear is felt, that death is generally prompt, that the animal enjoys the height of pleasure in successfully escaping an enemy without experiencing the opposite in failure, etc., are far from established. The actions, shrinking, panting, trembling, struggling, moaning, shrieking, of birds or beasts in distress do not differ greatly from those of a human being in similar condition. If it is not fear of death that keeps the animal so constantly on its guard, and causes it to take such precautions for safety, we are left quite in the dark as to what occasions the terror.

A bird rejects an insect at a particular time for various reasons besides inedibility: he may not be hungry, it may be strange to him, he may prefer other food. Other individuals of his species may feed upon it readily; in other localities, or in scarcity of food more to their taste, the insect may form a considerable portion of the food supply of his own or different species. The first requisite in arguments of this kind is sufficient proof of the premises. Supposed selection through the inexperience of young birds does not appeal to us very strongly. In regard to the brown rabbits, of which "the white upturned tails of those in front serve as guides and signals to those more remote from home, to the young and feeble," it is a question whether this is founded on observation, and whether the white tail may not be more beneficial to the survivors, as keeping up the food supply by keeping down the number of rabbits, since it serves as a signal to the wolves, dogs, foxes, cats, weasels, hawks, owls, and others that prey upon them. The chapter on mimicry and warning colors is full of conjecture.

In all examples of true mimicry, Mr. Wallace says, the harmless is less abundant than the harmful, which is mimicked; from which we are to infer that, closely as some harmless snakes (for instance, Erythrolamprus venustissimus or Ophibolus doliatus) seem to copy species of Elapidæ, they are not examples of true mimicry. The idea advanced by others that the rattle of the rattlesnake is useful in preventing attack is adopted. The author says of the snake:

"If gently tapped on the head with a stick, it will coil itself up and lie still, only raising its head and rattling. It may then be easily caught. This shows that the rattle is a warning to its enemies that it is dangerous to proceed to extremities; and the creature has probably acquired this structure and habit because it frequents open and rocky districts, where protective color is needful to save it from being pounced upon by buzzards or other snake-eaters."

Garman shows the rattle to have originated as a consequence of effort and use, or habit, without need or appearance of selection; his conclusions being reached after long-continued study of the animals, of their embryology and of their anatomy. Whatever the merits of the conclusions, it seems to us that science has more to expect from the latter of the two methods employed in reaching them.

The cases of the crustaceans, Artemia salina and A. Milhausenii, the transformations of which, from one to the other, back and forth, on being taken from brackish to salt or from salt to brackish waters, or the transforming of either into or from Branchippus stagnalis of the fresh water, as noted by Semper, and so often used to illustrate the direct action of environment and the inheritance of its effects, are here met by suppositions only. Developments which in a struggle would no doubt be injurious—as the plumes in the peacock's tail or on birds of paradise—are supposed to arise from a condition of perfect adaptation to circumstances, with a surplus of vital energy which may be expended in this way without detriment. Particular degradations are said to be possibly due to correlation of growth or economy of nutrition; and different grades of reduction in other instances, it is held, may be caused by the action of several distinct causes, sometimes acting separately, sometimes in combination.

In the author's words, "The law of Natural Selection or the survival of the fittest is, as its name implies, a rigid law, which acts by the life or death of the individuals submitted to its action." Selection, as is admitted, only steps in after the variation has originated and after some use is found for it; survival is predicated only on what exists at a particular time; and it is by means of this post-factum post-mortem theory that we are to account for the origins of things. The struggle for life is usually spoken of as unceasing; on one page it is stated to be intermittent and exceedingly irregular in its incidence and severity, and on another it is said the war of nature is not incessant. To some extent what goes on among animals may be likened to what takes place on a tree full of blossoms, few of which mature in fruit, some being imperfect in the bud, some unfertilized, some destroyed by insects, some torn off by birds and mammals, some withered by the blight, some frosted, some scorched, some beaten down by the wind, the rain, and the hail, and some shrivelled up from want of nourishment because of drought, or weakness and disease in the tree. One would hardly dare to say that the fruits gathered at the end of the season survived because they were the fittest; in reality the only ones we have any warrant for calling less fit were the imperfect buds; and this book does not give proof that the proportion of destruction by accident in the case of the animals is so very much less that we can afford to drop it out of account in estimating the work of selection. There is no disproving the fact that the diverse laws act as aids or checks and counter checks to each other, and without doubt much is due to their action which now in our ignorance might be supposed due to selection.

In the last chapter the author brings forth a sort of spiritual climax, certain to give rise to much difference of opinion and to be rejected by many Darwinians. He here asserts his conviction that the theory is insufficient to account for much heretofore included, and to supply the deficiency he advocates a series of interpositions ("due, probably, to causes of a higher order than those of the material universe"), intruded in a manner like the glacial period in the earth's evolution, one of which introduced life, another sensation and consciousness, while another (or others, intellectual and moral) was limited to humanity. To establish the latter, he argues from the appearance of particular faculties, the mathematical, the musical, the artistic, the metaphysical, and the faculty of wit and humor, more or less completely lacking in savages and some or all of which are absent in the great majority of mankind. The facts given in regard to the possession of these faculties by particular communities or individuals would lead to the conclusion that they are regarded as special dispensations to the favored ones, though not stated in so many words. Reasoning powers are ascribed to instinct.

That the name of his partner is given to this book will be credited to the modesty of the author. But, after changing or abstracting entirely portions of Darwin's conclusions on which great stress was placed, as sexual selection and the progressive development of man's entire nature, and after injecting a theory of special manifestations of spiritism which Darwin himself might be most unlikely to admit, it is not quite exact to call the result Darwinism. In his splendid effort the author presents his theory as the only competent one, and asks acceptance of it as established truth. We have endeavored to indicate some of the respects in which too much has been claimed for it, believing it inimical to the best interests of science that the masses should blindly adopt it, or that students should prejudice the results of their future labors by committing themselves to a theory which is in great part unproved and of doubtful application.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

THE last of the "Boy Travellers" series (Harpers) does the grand tour of Mexico. Externally the book is most attractive, with its handsome binding and profuse illustrations, and the substance Mr. Knox gives is well worth its fine dress. He has made a careful study of the best works on Mexico, to which he makes proper acknowledgments, and they, with the help of his own extensive travels, have enabled him to attain a very high degree of accuracy. There may fairly be a question whether his history and statistics are really sugar-coated for his young readers by being put into the words of "Fred" and "Frank" and "Dr. Bronson," with their frequent rather forced jocoseness; but this is already an established feature of the series, and has to pass. It would be a pity to give any intending Mexican tourists the idea that by a few weeks of hurried study they could become "able to speak Spanish very well," as is reported to have been the case with the two boys of the book, though the narrative itself, later, shows their Spanish to have been of a halting kind. The pronunciation indicated for the more difficult geographical names is usually correct, but "She-waw-waw" for Chihuahua (p. 79) is wrong all through. The so-called Calendar Stone is mistakenly located in the base of one of the Cathedral towers; it has been removed to the National Museum. Cortez burns his ships (p. 251) in the old style; probably the orators have given that error an indestructible life. To say of the battle of the 5th of May, 1862, that it "is regarded as the Waterloo or Gettysburg of the French in Mexico; it sealed the fate of Maximilian's empire and reëstablished the republic," is a most fearful and unaccountable blunder. The pressing question of drainage for the city and valley of Mexico is handled with intelligence, except for apparent ignorance that great works to solve it are now being pushed. Such slight blemishes as we have noted really detract almost

nothing from an unusually painstaking and successful book.

'The Walks Abroad of Two Young Naturalists,' by C. Beaugrand, translated and edited by David Sharp (Thos. Y. Crowell & Co.), is one of the books of the order of sugar-coated pills, but in which, to our mind, the coating is even more nauseous than the drug. The systematic zoölogy conveyed is antiquated and skeleton-like. The story in which it is imbedded is "trifling," as our Southern brothers say. The translation, though probably correct enough, is wooden and without literary merit. The original may have had a lively and agreeable style, but, if so, it is gone. The illustrations are coarse and trashy in many cases, though with some exceptions. It is hardly credible that such books as this can interest anybody in natural history. The opposite effect would seem much more likely.

Mme. P. de Nanteuil's 'Captain,' translated by Laura Ensor (George Routledge & Sons), seems to have been written to justify the Socratic oath; for the hero of the story is a supernatural, or at the very least a preternatural, dog, whom the dictates of natural piety suggest that it would be highly proper to invoke. He is a Newfoundland, whom Yvon Jossic, the human hero of the tale, picks up at St. Pierre, and starts upon an illustrious career. He saves his master from drowning and from robbers; he rescues men, women, and children from all manner of perils by sea and land; he forwards greatly Yvon's promotion in the French navy; he takes part in—we had almost said directs—the expedition to Tonkin, though he is responsible for none of the disasters of that ill-starred enterprise. He combines in himself all that has ever been good of dog since the world was. He is the dog of Ulysses, the dog of Montargis, once even the dog of Alcibiades. He leads an absolutely blameless life, and does not die at the end of the book. It will be seen that he is a dog of romance rather than of naturalism or of natural history. But this need not prevent his story from being put into the hands of young readers. It is entertaining; it has a good deal of action and liveliness in it, and some information about life at sea in the French navy and about foreign countries. It inspires kindly feelings and the home affections, and we do not know why it should not be called a very good child's book. At any rate, children will be sure to like it.

In the story of 'Plucky Smalls' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), Mrs. Mary Bradford Crowninshield gives a capital description of the life of an apprentice on board of one of our men-of-war. The hero is a little city wharf-rat, who gives an account of himself and his adventures in a natural and modest way, which makes him a very attractive and interesting little character. The story ends abruptly, leaving the *Manhattan* on a European cruise, but with a promise of a continuation which we should be glad to see realized.

A manly, upright boy, who has all the characteristics of his age and at the same time is animated with a higher purpose than mere pleasure-seeking, is an ideal which many writers have striven to realize with varying success. The failure generally comes from making the studious and practical side of the boy's character so prominent that the other side is entirely obscured, and the result is a prig. This was to a certain degree true of some of the earlier stories of JAK, but in the latest, 'Rolf and his Friends' (Crowell & Co.), the ideal has been more nearly reached. The hero is not a perfect boy, not even a good scholar, but a warm-hearted, unselfish little fellow, to whom we become much more strongly attached than if he had been a prodigy of good sense and learning. The astronomical chapters contain much information about the sun and moon, though most boys would much prefer to learn about them as Rolf did than in the prosaic way of reading. The story is one of quiet but sustained interest, culminating in a very well described incident.

In 'Famous Men of Science' (Crowell & Co.) Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton has brought together brief popular biographies of Galileo, Sir Isaac Newton, Linnæus, Cuvier, William and Caroline Herschel, Alexander von Humboldt, Humphrey Davy, Audubon, Morse, Lyell, Joseph Henry, Agassiz, Darwin, and Frank Buckland. Each biography is accompanied by a portrait on wood of its subject. The different articles are compiled from the usual sources, and aim to give a general idea of the experiences, struggles, and successes of famous men of science in language suited to intelligent boys and girls. Dates and dry details are shunned as much as possible. The author, on the whole, has been fairly successful in her endeavor, and we have not noticed any serious slips in matters of fact or of good taste in the manner in which the information is presented. The portraits, though coarsely made, would be tolerably good but that they have been very poorly printed.

We have in 'Daddy Jake the Runaway; and Short Stories Told after Dark by "Uncle Remus"' (The Century Co.) another glimpse into the inexhaustible world of negro superstition and folk-lore, and it is noticeable once more how familiarly Mr. Harris moves in it and how little he repeats himself. The admixture of witchcraft with the customary animal myths makes the collection essentially juvenile, while the title story, which fills nearly half the book, is expressly composed for the young. What impresses us most after closing this handsome volume is the fact that it does more (quite incidentally and unconsciously, we believe) to give children an idea, faint as it is, of the nature of slavery than all our so-called school histories put together.

Daddy Jake, a favored house servant, during the war, half kills a field overseer who attempted to give him orders and first struck him. Of course he then runs away. "In those days," explains Mr. Harris, "a negro who struck a white man was tried for his life, and, if his guilt could be proven, he was either branded with a hot iron and sold to a speculator, or he was hanged." And generally, as we know, he was not tried at all, and was apt to be lynched without ceremony. The master's little boy and girl innocently go in quest of their old friend and companion, drifting down the river in a boat. Stranded at night, the sleeping children are discovered and cared for by a negro woman, one of a band of runaways whose refuge is in the midst of a neighboring cane-brake, to which, as may be supposed, Daddy Jake has already found his way. "Crazy Sue" tells her story to her little charges, opening another vista of slaveholding atrocity. She had been a house-servant, and a mother with twins. For the crime of falling asleep while nursing them, her master sends her to a distant field to labor.

"I went, kaze I 'bleeze ter go; yit all day long, whiles I wuz hoein' I kin year dem babies cryin'. Look like sometimes dey wuz right at me, an' den ag'in look like dey wuz way off yander. I kep' on a-goin' an' I kep' on a-hoein', an' de babies kep' on a-famishin'. Dey des fade away, an' bimeby dey died, bofe un um on de same day. On dat day I had a fit an' fell in de fier, an' dat how come I burnt up so."

Mr. Harris artistically sets off but does not efface this woful recital with a comical Brer Rabbit story, from the lips of the same poor creature.

The rapt followers of Uncle Remus have long been familiar with the "patter-rollers," and perhaps have been told what was the special function of this night watch as respects the slaves who might be found abroad after dark. They give point to the amusing adventure of Becky's Bill in "How the Birds Talk," as he goes through the dark Two Mile Swamp. "He come 'long, he did, en de fus' news you know a great big ole owl flew'd up in a tree en snap he bill des like somebody crackin' a whip. . . . Den he holler out: '*Who* cooks—*who* cooks—*who* cooks fer *you*-all?'" And the frightened negro, who "sorter men' he gait," twice responds, the second time taking off his hat—"Well, sir, hit's des like I tell you. Mos' inginer'lly endurin' er de week, mammy she cooks, but on Sundays, mo' speshually w'en dey got comp'ny, ole Aunt Dicey she cooks"; and presently he takes to his heels.

Plantation life is further exhibited in the catalogue of Uncle Remus's occupations as jack-of-all-trades. There is, in short, nearly as much occasion for reflection as for amusement in this book, and we recommend it to parents with a hearty good will. The pictorial illustrations are often effective, but Uncle Remus still awaits his double with the pencil, and we hope he too may yet arise south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Teutonic Mythology. By Viktor Rydberg, Ph.D. Authorized translation from the Swedish by Rasmus B. Anderson, LL.D. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1889.

The work that Mr. Anderson has translated under the above title originally appeared in Swedish as 'Researches in Germanic Mythology,' a name that might well have been retained, since the more ambitious form given it by the translator immediately suggests and challenges in some respects an unfortunate comparison with the monumental work of Jacob Grimm. One purpose of Rydberg's researches, as stated in the chapter on the Dietrich Saga, is to show how Norse mythology, so called, is but a caricature of the real Norse mythology, as he conceives it. The sentence in which this is expressed is worthy of quotation, as it fairly shows, also, a characteristic of the translation that Mr. Anderson has given us. Speaking of the myth concerning the war between Mannus-Halfdan's sons, he says, on p. 207:

"Among the many causes coöperating in Christian times in giving what is now called 'Norse mythology' its present character, there is not one which has contributed so much as the rejection of this myth towards giving 'Norse mythology' the stamp which it hitherto has borne of a narrow, illiberal, town mythology, which, built chiefly on the foundation of the Younger Edda, is, as shall be shown in the present work, in many respects a caricature of the real Norse, and, at the same time, in its main outlines Teutonic, mythology."

That Mr. Anderson should accept such a dictum with equanimity proves how wholly he is disposed to coincide with Rydberg's views. His own 'Norse Mythology' (Chicago, 1875, and now in a second edition) is made on precisely the lines that Rydberg decries. It is apparent, however, on the other hand, why the present work should appeal to him, as it has all the detail which the other strikingly, and, no doubt, purposely, lacks. It is, nevertheless, in his mind doubtless calculated to supplement his book rather than to supplant it, and this to a great extent it does.

Rydberg's 'Mythology,' in its English form, a book of 700 pages, is the extremely clever production of a prolific contributor to the va-

rious departments of Swedish literature. His material has been drawn from almost every possible source, but in the use he makes of it he is often entirely too optimistic, and many of his interpretations are as he would have them, not as sober criticism has hitherto regarded them. He is too sanguine to be scientific. Not infrequently his assumptions are but clever guesses, which he then proceeds to use as premises upon which to build an elaborate argument. Many of his dicta are, accordingly, new, and while they outwardly bear the mark of stability, in reality rest upon insecure foundations. All this is the more to be regretted since there is need in English of a more readable mythology than Grimm's, which, after all, is but a storehouse of fact without adequate literary form. Rydberg's book is from first to last abundantly interesting. The enthusiasm of the author for his subject is infectious, and the critical reader, less sanguine than he, will feel regret that he cannot always follow him where he so fearlessly leads.

Mr. Anderson's translation is, in its English, not quite all that might have been expected of him. As a result, no doubt, of the constant association of the last few years with a foreign language, he allows himself to lapse into awkward and un-English sentences like this, for instance, on p. 82: "Thus traditions concerning immigrations from the North to Germany have been current among the continental Teutons already in the first century after Christ." Worse than this, however, because affecting more nearly the material of the work, is the orthography of Old Norse names, which have been given in a manner utterly hap-hazard and arbitrary; indeed, there is no discoverable principle in their rendition that has been consistently carried out. Vowel quantity is sometimes indicated, sometimes not. Umlaut is treated in the same inconsiderate way. We have, for instance, Fjolsvin and Fjölsvinsmal; the Völuspa, but the Volundarkvida. Final "i" is retained, as it should be, in Elli and Hjarrandi, but is replaced elsewhere by "e," which, moreover, will absolutely fail of its purpose in such names as Vile, Nide, Hate, Grane, Loke, and others, as the lay reader will inevitably pronounce them one and all as monosyllables. Names in "-ir" are also vacillating. Œgir is the only one that appears throughout in its proper form; otherwise we have "-er." Final "r" is omitted from, for instance, Dagr, forming thus the consistent and intelligible form Dag; Loptr, however, is rendered by the absolutely arbitrary form Lopta. Initial "h" before consonants is usually retained; Hloridi, however, appears as Loride on p. 31 and Lorride on p. 59. Proper names of all kinds, indeed, have fared badly in the translation. The reader will look in vain, at least on an English map, to select instances quite at random, for Kabulistan and Pendschab, or for St. Gaelen. On p. 32 we are told of "Sturlason the author of Heimskringla," which is an unfair way to render an Old Norse name, since the second member in it is a true patronymic and not a surname at all. Snorri Sturlason, or, if one chooses, Snorri, was the author of Heimskringla. Odainsakr, the field-of-the-not-dead, is, probably by a misprint, indexed as Odinsaker, and there are sins of omission from the index and of commission in the orthography of both index and text almost without end. The book is dedicated by the author and the translator to King Oscar II.

The New Eldorado: A Summer Journey to Alaska. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. 8vo, xii, 352 pp.

Mr. Ballou's journey was made on the Northern Pacific Railway, via the Yellowstone Park, to Tacoma on Puget Sound, to Alaska and return by steamer, and eastward by the Canadian Pacific Road. His book, however, is not a diary of his travels, nor are its contents restricted to matters of personal observation. He has used his line of travel as a path from which to take numerous excursions into the region of compilation, and at other times to be traversed rapidly or at leisure as occasion dictated. The author's experience in bookmaking has enabled him to combine his observations and his compiled materials with due subordination and coherency, while an easy and unpretentious style makes the whole very pleasant and not unprofitable to the reader. The book, while containing no new matters of fact, nevertheless registers the impressions of an intelligent and alert observer who is also an experienced traveller. It is on the whole a good piece of workmanship.

The author is very enthusiastic over the mineral and other resources of the Alaskan region, and has the highest praise for the beauty and novelty of the scenery along the steamer route. It is certain that, of its kind, there is nothing accessible to the ordinary traveller in any part of the civilized world which can surpass the fiords of southeastern Alaska and the glaciers and peaks of the St. Elias Alps. On the other hand, it is probable that the mineral wealth of the Territory, while doubtless great, will require a very considerable expenditure of time and capital to make it available, and that its development will be slow and fitful. The enthusiasm of Mr. Ballou and some other recent writers is, perhaps, only a natural reaction from the over-depreciation, fostered by interested parties, not long since in vogue.

Mr. Ballou's facts for the most part are well chosen and accurate, though occasional slips might be noticed in cases which have not fallen under his personal observation. We think he might have omitted the preposterous yarn which relates to the existence of living mammoths. These are appropriately located on the headwaters of the "Snake River," a stream not known to geographers, and doubtless deriving its name from the fact that there are no snakes in Alaska. The statement (p. 149) that there are no toads or similar animals is, however, quite erroneous. A small toad is not rare near Sitka, a small frog extends its range far within the Arctic circle in the Yukon region, and the bullfrog of southeastern Alaska may be seen in effigy on the rattles of every medicine-man. The inference that the whole range of the Aleutian Islands is volcanic, which might be drawn from sundry observations of the author, is also an error. This chain of islands existed long before the present volcanoes were elevated, the volcanic islets (though numerous) are in a minority, and the westernmost group of the chain is entirely free from volcanic rocks and is probably of mesozoic age.

As a whole, however, the book is unusually free from erroneous statements about the country, and is, among the numerous "tourist books" to which the Alaska excursions have given rise, decidedly the best we have examined. It is not illustrated, the presence of a map would have added much to its usefulness, and the absence of an index is to be regretted.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

The Little People's Calendar. White & Allen. 50 cents.
Traill, H. D. Lord Strafford. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Trumbull, H. C. Principles and Practice: A Series of Brief Essays. 6 vols. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles.

HENRY HOLT & CO.

HAVE READY:

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Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122 & 124 W. Franklin St.

EDGEWORTH BOARDING AND DAY School for Young Ladies will reopen September 19. MRS. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Belmont.

*THE BELMONT SCHOOL. — PRE-*paratory boarding-school for boys. For information address B. F. HARDING, A.M., (Harv.), Head Master.

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BOSTON UNIVERSITY Law School, Address the Dean, EDMUND H. BENNETT, LL.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 259 Boylston Street.

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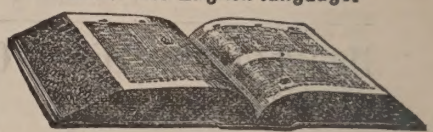

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1888	1,388,238 01
Total Marine Premiums	$5,253,404 39
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1888, to 31st December, 1888	$3,867,269 52
Losses paid during the same period	$1,996,897 36
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$687,287 98

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Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	569,947 20
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,374,912 12
Cash in Bank	252,812 02
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 7, 1889.

The Week.

At this writing the results of the elections in Ohio and Iowa are not accurately known, but the probabilities seem to be that the Democrats have carried both these States, as they have New York, New Jersey, and Virginia. Massachusetts has, with the aid of the Boston liquor-dealers, to whom the Democratic candidate had made himself very obnoxious, been saved by the Republicans, but by a very small majority. The drawbacks on the Democratic triumph in New York and New Jersey are that in each case an objectionable candidate—Hill in New York and Abbett in New Jersey—profits by it. But, apart from this, the situation is a most gratifying one. The prostitution of the Federal patronage to impose a corrupt demagogue on the State of Virginia, with the view of winning the negro vote over to protection, has been signally rebuked, and in a most mortifying way for President Harrison. In Ohio one of the most conspicuous of the Grand Army beggars and blatherskites, Foraker, has probably been consigned to well-merited obscurity. Iowa has undoubtedly uttered a strong protest against the Harrisonian doctrine that the dearness of the necessaries of life is a good thing for the poor man. The complete success of the Australian ballot in Massachusetts, too, is a great gain for all the reforms now before the country, and especially for tariff reform, because it means the emancipation of the workingmen from the coercion of employers, and opens up the prospect of a fair field on this question in 1892.

Mr. Cabot Lodge has taken the stump in Massachusetts demanding "a Federal election law for every district." Leading Republican newspapers, both East and West, like the Boston *Journal* in Massachusetts and the Milwaukee *Sentinel* in Wisconsin, have declared against this scheme as being unjust and unstatesmanlike, and Republican Congressmen like Mr. Butterworth of Cincinnati oppose it on the sensible ground that "the South will have to work out its own salvation." Yet a man who has enjoyed opportunities for liberal culture and thorough study of our institutions, goes about pretending to believe that the way to cure the trouble at the South is by "the strong arm of the Government." It will be remembered that in the last Congress he delivered a speech in the House in which he showed himself so untrue to the traditions of Massachusetts as to say that he was willing to have Federal troops at every poll. The fewer such "scholars in politics" the country has, the better the prospect for the future of our institutions.

There are few things more risky than to talk about the elections in a State without consulting some volume of political statistics. The Binghamton *Republican*, in a discussion of "The Race Problem," quotes a resident of Florida as telling how the negroes of that State are cheated out of their votes, and how "only ballots voted by white men are recorded in the count and returns." The editor's remedy is to "enforce the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution in the next apportionment of Congressional representatives. The enforcement of this section," he says, "will deprive the South of representation for its disfranchised citizens in the House of Representatives and the Electoral College. The first section of the Fourteenth Amendment, which makes the negroes citizens, has been nullified by the South, by denying the negroes the rights of citizenship and refusing them 'the equal protection of the law.' But the South cannot nullify the second section of the amendment if the North chooses to enforce it in making Congressional apportionments." If, instead of relying upon his Florida informant, the editor or his "youngster" had turned to his *Tribune Almanac*, he would have discovered that, so far from no Republican ballots being counted in Florida, the two Republican candidates for Congress last fall were credited with no less than 26,534 ballots. Moreover, if he had pushed his inquiries a little further, he would have found that the total vote in the First and Second Congressional Districts respectively was 29,541 and 37,249, whereas there was not a single Congressional district of the twelve in Massachusetts where the total vote came anywhere near 37,249, and only five where it did not fall short of 29,541. Indeed, the average vote in the twelve Congressional districts of Massachusetts was only 28,455; so that if representation is going to be cut down because the number of ballots cast is small, it is Massachusetts and not Florida that will suffer.

A fresh attempt has just been made to infuse some life into the scheme for Federal aid to education in the South through an address by the Rev. Dr. J. L. M. Curry of Richmond, Va., general agent of the Peabody Education Fund, advising the passage of the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy." His address has been sent to the press throughout the South, but the leading newspapers are not affected by its specious arguments. The Charleston *News and Courier* makes a very powerful statement of the reasons why all true friends of education in the South should oppose this demoralizing scheme. "It is a makeshift, a temporary expedient," says the Charleston paper. "It would probably be of some benefit during the few years in which it would be in operation, but at the end of that period it would leave the States and the schools in a worse condition than they are at present, or ever have been since the system of public schools was established. At the end of eight years, the period to be covered by the Blair bill, the States would find it impossible to get along without Government crutches, and we should have the mendicant policy of education fastened upon the country for eighty years or for ever." Moreover, the *News and Courier* says, the South does not need outside aid. "In spite of our poverty, the South has made progress with its public schools, and is less dependent to-day upon outside aid for their support than at any previous period since the war." A more curious spectacle cannot easily be imagined than is now presented by the effort of officious Northern men to persuade the Southern people, rejoicing in their growing prosperity, that they ought to turn beggars and ask outsiders to educate their children.

Four months ago, Postmaster-General Wanamaker, the man of business in President Harrison's Cabinet, fixed the rate for Government telegraphing at one mill per word, a rate lower than the cost of the stationery and bookkeeping for the service, so that the Western Union Company, if it had been under compulsion to accept the rate, would have saved money by not collecting the bills at all. Mr. Wanamaker has now reviewed and revised himself, and advanced the rate to seven mills, but the probability is that he will not get the service done at that rate. He proposes, however, to leave the matter open to arbitration, although the law makes no provision for arbitration in the case, but requires him to fix the rate. It is strange that we never had any difficulty of this kind until we came to have a business man for Postmaster-General. It is strange that the lawyers who have filled that office heretofore never found it necessary to advance their own rate 700 per cent. in four months, and then offer to advance it again if a board of arbitration should vote that way. We think it would be best to fall back on a "court of inquiry," as Mr. Wanamaker himself suggested last June. Let the Secretary of War detail such a court, and authorize them to take testimony and return their finding to the Judge-Advocate-General.

Mr. Depew's recent speech ratifies the scheme presented by Mr. Curtis in his State Department publication. It is subsidy, subvention, and bounty, out of the Federal treasury, for ocean steamers. The size and duration of the taxes and payments Mr. Curtis explained, on October 1, 1885, in the report by Thacher and himself to President Cleveland. Here it is:

> "The extent of the subsidy we have indicated should be such as will procure as low rates of freight and passage as can be given by the vessels of our competitors, and this assurance must be of such a character as to time as to give capital confidence in its permanence until the conditions of trade lift the new lines above the danger of disastrous competition from ships aided by foreign Powers."

In the Pan-American Congress each Gov-

ernment has one vote. Our own delegates have been selected to vote for the new taxes. Of course each of the other Governments will vote for a mandate to tax us for the benefit of those Governments, and in order that their producers and buyers may have cheap or dead-head rates of transportation to and from our ports.

Gov. Ames, Mr. McParlin, and other leading iron-manufacturers in New England will be delighted to learn that the Thomas Iron Company of Pennsylvania is now shipping pig-iron to England, or will be very soon. So the Philadelphia *Press* tells us in these words:

"There is a good deal of significance in the contract the Thomas Iron Company have made for the delivery of 1,000 tons of pig-iron in Liverpool. Owing to the beneficial effects of protection, very little pig-iron has been imported into the United States of late years, while the price has been steadily declining. Now we have reached a point where we can export pig-iron to England."

The gratification of Gov. Ames and Mr. McParlin will arise from the fact that, since protection is no longer needed for pig-iron, they will have a new and irresistible argument to lay before the Committee of Ways and Means in the new Congress when they present their petition for a reduction of the duty to $2 per ton. If Mr. Swank tells them that they cannot import any iron even with the duty reduced, they can reply that in that case he and his Iron and Steel Association will not be harmed. We shall not enter into any argument with the *Press* about the beneficial effects of protection in the past in bringing about a result so gratifying. We have our opinion on that point, but we cherish it in secret. All that we ask is, that the duty which is no longer needed to "protect home labor" shall be no longer maintained.

Jefferson Davis writes an article for *Belford's Magazine* on "A Constitutional Tariff." The article is extremely dull in composition, possessing little of the intellectual vigor that once distinguished the author, but then Mr. Davis is now past eighty-one years of age. His views of the constitutionality of a protective tariff are not likely to engage so much attention as the fact that he is taking some interest in the affairs of the United States. It is true that he concluded his book on the 'Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government,' nearly ten years ago, with an expression of hope that his literary labors might strengthen the bonds of the Union and help to make it perpetual; but the prevailing impression at the North has been that he was still sulking in his tent, and would so continue to the end of his days, however long they might be protracted. This appears not to be his frame of mind. He takes an interest in Federal legislation and taxation, and thinks that protective tariffs are contrary to the spirit of the Constitution. A good many people have thought so before; but it is doubtful whether one vote will ever be gained either way by the most ingenious and powerful arguments that can be made on the one side or on the other. It should be borne in mind that, at the time when the Constitution was adopted, protection was the universal practice. It prevailed in England and in Europe generally. It had prevailed in the colonies before the Revolution, so far as the mother country would permit its enforcement. If we interpret the Constitution in the light of contemporaneous events, we must conclude that the framers of the instrument did not have the subject in their minds at all, or that, if it entered into their thoughts, they had no intention of interfering with what was then the customary practice of nations. It is certain that the first tariff bill passed after the adoption of the Constitution was protective in some slight degree, and avowedly so. This bill was introduced by Mr. Madison, and although, as framed by him, it had no protective features—these being engrafted upon it by the representatives of special interests in the course of its progress through the House—he found no constitutional difficulty in voting for it. Indeed, that point was not once raised in the whole debate.

The truth is, that commercial freedom, like personal freedom, is a reform whose date is subsequent to the adoption of the Constitution. All analogies starting from the grand ideas which led to our separation from Great Britain and our birth as a nation, point to freedom of trade as well as to freedom of labor as the vivifying principle of the Constitution; but Mr. Davis is as good a witness as we could have that slavery was not incompatible with the Constitution, and that freedom of labor had to be fought for. So, too, must freedom of trade be fought for. Protection can never be engineered out of the national life by lawyers or law arguments any more than slavery could be. It can be voted out when the public enlightenment is sufficiently advanced. It can be got rid of in no other way.

The clearly expressed letter from Mr. Perry Belmont to the *Evening Post* on the consular notarial scandal, when added to facts already known, leaves no reasonable doubt that the permission given to Consul-General Badeau by the State Department in 1869 to call in British notaries to aid in enforcing our customs law was shrewdly obtained by the Consul-General. Mr. Manning and Mr. Belmont urged in 1886 that the notarial oaths and fees be cut away, root and branch, but the State Department, holding on to the oaths, cut the notarial fees down from 10s. 6d. to 1s. 6d. Thus the affair stood for three years, when suddenly, in the expiring hours of the Cleveland Administration, a rerater appears in the State Department, probably in its Consular Bureau, and increases the maximum fee for the British notary to 2s. 6d. In whose interest was that? How strange it is that, in our later days, no rerater makes taxes less! Now the question recurs in respect to the terms of the "great divide" of fees between American consular officers and British notarial officers. For that, the taxpayers will probably be compelled to await the assembling of Congress and inquiry of the President by one house or the other. It is to be regretted that Mr. Waller of Connecticut, who was Cleveland's Consul-General at London, has not thought it worth while to take all Democrats and taxation-reformers into his confidence, and then turn a calcium light on the international scandal.

To the *North American Review* for November Mr. Edison contributes an article on the "Dangers of Electric Lighting," which ought to engage the attention of the public authorities of this city and State and of every other city and State. Mr. Edison gives it as his conviction that electric wires operating the alternating current will be more dangerous to life under ground than above ground, and that it would be as rational to bury a mass of nitro-glycerine in the heart of the city in order to reduce its dangers as to bury wires charged with this agency. "There is," he says, "no known insulation which will confine these high-tension currents for more than a limited period; and when they are placed beneath the ground, with the present system of conduits, the result will be a series of earth-contacts, the fusion of wires, and the formation of powerful electric arcs, which will extend to other metallic conductors in the same conduit, and a whole mass of wires made to receive this dangerous current and convey it into houses, offices, stores, etc. It is thus evident that the dangers of such circuits are not confined to the wires which convey the high-tension currents, but other wires conducting harmless currents are liable to be rendered as deadly in effect as the former. It is evident, also, that a single wire carrying a current at high pressure would be a constant menace to the safety of all other wires in the same conduit. Even though these dangerous wires be placed in separate tubes in the same conduit with other tubes, the risk is not diminished." The reason why the insulation wears out is, that the vibrations of the current cause corresponding vibrations in the insulating material, and gradually impair its elasticity. When this result takes place, an avenue for the ingress of moisture is formed, and an outlet to any other electrical conductor in the neighborhood. As long as the insulating material is new and of good quality, the alternating current may be operated safely, but the safety will be only temporary.

Important news comes from San Salvador—the agreement of the Central American Diet, now in session, upon a plan of union for the five republics. The plan was laid before the Diet by a delegate from Guatemala, Señor Francisco Lainfiesta, and was approved as a whole; detailed reports on its various parts being yet to be made by committees appointed for the purpose. In brief, the plan calls for a unification of Central America in the eyes of the outside world, by the choice of a common Executive who, with the approval of a Council, shall direct all the foreign af-

fairs of the separate countries as if they were one, while the States are left in complete control of all matters of internal government. The Executive is to be chosen for a single year, and is to come from each of the republics in turn, the order of choice being fixed by lot. With him is to be associated a council of five members, one from each country. He is to have the appointment of all diplomatic and consular officers, "by and with the advice and consent" of the Council, will have power to negotiate treaties and receive foreign ambassadors, all in the name of "The Republic of Central America." The separate States retain all their existing attributes of sovereignty and independence as respects domestic affairs. Yet they are to make trade with each other free, as also navigation between their respective ports; are to have, as far as possible, a common postal system, and are at once to pass laws not only allowing, but urging, public agitation for the final merging of the distinct governments in a single federal union. It rests with the legislatures of the five republics, of course, to say whether they will adopt the recommendation of the Diet. If they do, the plan is to go into effect the 15th of next September, when the first Executive and Council will be chosen. The plan provides that if a majority of the five approve it, it shall be put into force for the States so approving, under the name of "The Greater Republic of Central America."

No provision for a federal legislature is made as yet. The Diet is to continue to meet year by year, though with a reduced representation, its functions remaining, as they are now, only advisory. It is believed, however, that these first steps towards union, which are certainly not short ones, will so hasten on public sentiment in its favor that the republics will be ready to go the whole way within ten years. The plan accordingly calls for a Constituent Assembly to meet in 1900, or sooner if public demand makes it expedient, for the purpose of drafting a complete federal constitution and putting into operation a national government. Meanwhile the Executive is to appoint a judicial commission, whose duty it shall be to consolidate and codify the existing laws of the separate States, so that all shall be ready when the moment for final union comes. The historical student will not need to be reminded of the analogies between the measures thus outlined and the steps which led up to our own Confederation and, finally, to the present form of our Government. The Central American plan is as yet too immature and too far from adoption to warrant any very positive comments; but it is fair to presume that it will get into running order with far greater smoothness than did our own, and will find its greatest dangers later on, precisely from the lack, on the part of the people of Central America, of that sturdy practice of local self-government which made our Union difficult to attain, but, once attained, wonderfully guarded (slavery apart) against centralization and despotism.

The present visit of the German Emperor to the Mediterranean is in certain ways the most important of his peregrinations. He is said to have given assurances to Russia that his visit has no political significance, but it is impossible to prevent its having significance. In the first place, the Greeks are raised to the seventh heaven of delight by the marriage of the heir to their throne with the Emperor's sister, and by having Athens made the scene of such a royal gathering as the wedding has brought about. It flatters their national pride, and fills their heads with bigger hopes than ever about the future of the kingdom, and will make them more implacable than ever in their pretensions whenever the time comes for another rearrangement of Turkish territory. The visit to Constantinople is, however, the most important, and may almost be called a great historical event, for Wilhelm is the first Christian sovereign who has set foot in the city since the fall of the Greek Empire in 1453. Russia will probably never be persuaded that the object of the visit is not to secure the Turkish Army, which is all that is left of the Ottoman Empire, for the Triple Alliance, unless Bismarck makes out successfully that it is all along of the restlessness of youth.

Next to the little brush with the Sultan of Morocco, the topic of greatest public interest in Spain, in the days before the meeting of the Cortes, was the severe measures adopted by the Minister of Justice to suppress gambling throughout the country. Señor Canalejas sent a circular-letter to all magistrates having jurisdiction in the matter, calling their attention to the common violation of those sections of the Penal Code which prohibit gambling, and rigorously enjoining them to see that the crime was suppressed. The result was a great state of activity on the part of courts and officers throughout all the provinces in breaking up notorious gambling-resorts. Finally the bolt fell even in Madrid. In a concerted movement, the police justices themselves, in their robes of office, appeared with the police in the prominent gambling-rooms of the capital on a given night, and had arrests made right and left, while gambling implements were seized and destroyed. They did not spare the richest and most aristocratic clubs where gambling was openly carried on. Even into the Grand Casino did a magistrate force his way with the officers at his back, and burst upon the astonished gaze of senators, generals, deputies, the President of the Supreme Court, a marshal of the army, nobles, politicians, journalists, bankers, several ecclesiastics—all of whom were not gambling, to be sure, but all of whom felt outraged at the invasion. The bold magistrate himself quailed in the presence of the big game he had flushed, and contented himself with arresting a few employees. The legal penalty for the offence is only a fine, so that the men were soon at liberty. This new virtue of the Government is not expected to last very long; it will certainly wear a grotesque appearance as long as Government lotteries are allowed to go on.

Although the late election in France turned almost wholly on other questions, M. Jules Ferry thought to improve his chances of a return to the Chamber by posing as an advocate of protection. He addressed a letter to the electors of his district, in which he said: "France is the first Government to give to agriculture a share in the benefits of a wise protection. The reforms in which the Ministry I directed in 1884 took the initiative have saved the cultivation of wheat in France without increasing the price of bread. They ought to be completed by levying a duty on foreign corn, which is especially needed by the farmers of the Vosges, though it has not yet succeeded in passing the Chamber." The assertion that the tax on wheat had not increased the price of bread is scarcely borne out by the facts—as by the figures of the increasing importation of bread from Belgium, for example. However his farmer constituents may have regarded this, they decided not to send Ferry back to the Chamber, though in fairness it should be said that it was not his protectionism that beat him. France appears to be fully bent on taking the protection medicine for her maladies, and, with the expiration of her existing commercial treaties, most of which she has already given notice that she will terminate, will probably give the world another lesson in the art of getting rich through taxation.

The Hungarian Parliament began its sessions October 12, after an electoral campaign in which the Opposition had most fiercely and personally attacked Minister Tisza. The last Parliament closed amid scenes of great disorder, and the present one will probably witness a repetition of the disturbances, as the Opposition presented no less than four violently worded interpellations the very first day. The most important question pending is that of a change in administering the laws, Tisza and a majority of the Parliament standing for a more centralized government, while the Radical party are vehement in championing their present rights of local control of local affairs. Financially the past year has been a prosperous one for Hungary, and Tisza can point to a lessened public debt and lower taxes. Count Taafe, meanwhile, is not finding all clear sailing in imperial matters. Prince Lichtenstein, the leader of the Right, has just resigned his membership of the Reichsrath. He says, in his letter to the President of that body, that his "presence there would be useless, as things are now." This is taken to mean that he has given up in despair his long-cherished plan of organizing the public schools on a religious basis, foreseeing that the successes of the Young Czechs in the recent elections mean disaster to that scheme. Taafe is thought to have encouraged the Czech movement, so as to add another to the feeble and warring political parties, by playing off one against another of which he might rule as he pleased. The Right are supposed to be resenting this plan of his, and Lichtenstein's resignation is a strong exhibition of their displeasure.

TRADE WITHOUT SUBSIDIES.

MANY of the facts included in the Curtis argument for subsidies as a means of promoting trade with South America must have been put in on the principle that everything tells even if it tells against you. A table of our exports to Central and South America is given, for example, from which it appears that there has been a great gain in the past two years—a gain of nearly $9,000,000, or 15 per cent. This is an awful state of things. Under a Democratic Administration, when our poor steamship-owners were flouted by Mr. Vilas, and subsidies did not dare to lift their heads, there was a gain in our exports to South America, in two years, greater than had taken place in the previous eighteen years of Republican supremacy—and good fat subsidies in many of those years, too. If only a subsidy had been put through in 1886, or even if Mr. Vilas had distributed that $400,000 in 1885, then we should have had an argument for subsidies which no man could withstand—exports leaping ahead $9,000,000 in two years under their benign influence. As things are now, according to this Department of State publication, it would be just like those stupid Minnesota and Kansas Republicans to say to the afflicted subsidy-seekers: "If it is really an increased trade you want, and if you have done so well without a subsidy in the last two years, try it for two more."

We may be asked how we reconcile this increase in exports with the fact that no changes were made in our tariff meanwhile. We have maintained, and do maintain, that our tariff is the main obstacle to a growing trade with South America—and there is nothing in the increased exports cited to contradict that. A part of the increase has undoubtedly come from the efforts of our merchants to find a market for their surplus wares. As Mr. Seth Low remarked in a speech before the Chamber of Commerce, the wealth and brains of this country, ever since the completion of the Pacific Railroad, have been absorbed in supplying our home market, to which practically a new province of a million inhabitants was being added every year. Here was the largest trade, with the greatest profits and the least risk. Beside it, foreign trade, with its slow and difficult methods and smaller returns, was not to be thought of. The consequence was that our merchants forgot how to do foreign trade, and when the time came for them to turn to it again, under the pressure of the glutted home market, they were awkward at the business to a degree. Their increased success latterly is in part due to increasing skill; they deign to consult native tastes; they give more attention to shipping and packing; they establish branch houses—in short, display an intelligent desire to have a South American trade. But the increase is very much more due to the utilization of those natural advantages which our tariff has not succeeded in entirely destroying; and how this is, the subsidy pamphlet very kindly, if unconsciously, points out.

The account of our trade with Venezuela which it gives seems expressly designed to prove that subsidies are altogether superfluous in building up foreign commerce. We are told of a trade steadily increasing, conducted mainly by a line of steamers, the "Red D," "paying expenses even against the subsidized Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, . . . and the heavily subsidized French, Spanish, and Dutch lines." We have now nearly half of Venezuela's entire foreign commerce, and might easily supply in addition, so we are assured, the $2,225,000 of cotton goods which England now exports to that country, were it not for the pig-headedness of our manufacturers. It is incidentally stated that we admit free of duty everything that Venezuela exports, but this, of course, has no bearing on the argument. Our trade with Colombia is also declared to be in a very satisfactory condition, always excepting cotton exports, and here again it is only the enterprise of our manufacturers that is said to be at fault. In an adjoining paragraph the remark is innocently made, "There is not an article that we import from Colombia taxed in our custom-houses"; but this is said wholly by the way, and, as it were, with the far-away look of one recalling with difficulty an unimportant fact.

The whole showing is evidently felt by the proprietors of the "Red D" line to be rather a damper on their plea for a subsidy, and they visibly falter in making it, their remarks appearing positively cold beside the rhetoric of the perfervid Lachlan. They make it perfectly clear that the Government's pay for carrying the mails is at a good rate, and that all that is needed is mail to carry in order to yield a handsome return. In 1884 the line received from the Government $1,046, while in 1887 "the amount of business had increased so that the money received was $4,547, and in 1888 the amount was $6,034." In view of the fact that this pay is at the rate of from twenty to thirty times, by weight, the charges of the company on ordinary freight, it seems a trifle cool for one of the proprietors of the line to write, as he does (p. 229): "We would not do the same amount of work for a private concern for anything like the miserable pittance paid us for carrying the United States mails." The words of Postmaster-General Vilas, in 1885, in his communication to the enraged ship-owners whose prey he had taken from their very mouths, are golden words, and express the exact truth about this whole question: "If the amount of mail be considerable, so that the value of its carriage to business interests shall be great, this compensation will be munificent. It will only yield small results if small service be rendered."

REMARKABLE ADMISSIONS BY A PREACHER.

ONE of the most remarkable contributions yet made to the discussion of the relations between religion and science appears in the last number of the *Forum* from the pen of Archdeacon Farrar. We doubt if any one occupying his position in the religious world has made such admissions as he makes here on behalf of his profession, touching the limitations of clerical preaching. He calls his article "Modern Claims in the Pulpit," and, if we are not greatly mistaken, he will, when it reaches England, have to listen to some pretty severe strictures from his brethren on the way in which he has taken upon himself to cut down the authority of the pulpit in nearly all the graver concerns of life. He would by no means discard preaching. He says it is an ordinance, almost a distinctive ordinance, of Christianity. Preaching is part, and an important part, of the work of the Church, and must always remain so. It has done wonders in the past: witness Origen, Ambrose, Chrysostom, Basil, Gregory, Augustine, in the ancient world; witness Leo, Gregory, Savonarola, Thomas Aquinas, Luther, Fénelon, Bossuet, Wesley, and Whitefield in the modern world. They all "woke a greedy age to nobler deeds." And then in addition to these there have always been innumerable humble and obscure preachers, whose fame has never gone beyond their own parishes, but "whose words have had an inestimable value for countless multitudes of simple and faithful souls." But times change, and the preaching must change with them.

In the first place, the Archdeacon warns ministers that they must no longer consider themselves as teachers of the ignorant. The pew nowadays often rivals or surpasses the pulpit in knowledge. Everybody reads, and many in every congregation know as much as the preacher of what is to be said on both sides of most topics of the day. "Therefore," says he, "nothing is more offensive in the modern preacher, especially when he is young and raw and ignorant, than the assumption of any right to lay down the law on disputed topics." When he leaves the ground covered by general agreement, and plunges into questions on which all Christians may lawfully differ, and mistakes the current of popular ignorance or fashionable opinion for truths which he may try to enforce by the vulgar methods of ecclesiastical controversy, "he renders himself ridiculous and base." "Let us look back through the ages and observe for our warning how enormous is the aggregate of sermon instruction which has been devoted to the service of exploded errors, blasphemous fables, and dangerous deceits." The English Church has erred, all churches have erred, councils have erred, therefore "the preacher becomes absolutely intolerable, he alienates every instructed mind and every cultivated temperament among his hearers, when he teaches what they know to be error with all the airs of sacerdotal pretension and usurped infallibility."

From two great departments of knowledge the Archdeacon inexorably warns away the preacher—science and Biblical criticism. With regard to science, he puts the Church on her knees and makes her cry "Peccavi!" in terms which we are sure many of his brethren will find humiliating. "No one who is acquainted with the history of science, and has sufficient honesty to accept facts, can possibly deny that scarcely a single truth of capital importance in science has ever been enunciated without having to struggle for life against the fury of theologi-

cal dogmatists. In every instance the dogmatists have been ignominiously defeated. The world moves, as Galileo said it did, in spite of the Inquisition. A great Puritan divine thought that he had checked the progress of astronomical inquiry when he said that he preferred to believe the Holy Ghost rather than Newton, yet Newton was absolutely right and the Puritan divine was hopelessly wrong." Geology, palæontology have, he says, had to fight for their lives against the pulpit, and he has heard from preachers, "sometimes from men who could barely scrape through the matriculation examination of a tenth-rate college, the most furious denunciations of Darwinism and evolution, to which Darwin opposed the silence of a magnanimity too noble even for the indulgence of private disdain." When, as is too often the case, "a preacher poses as Sir Oracle against some scientific theory, while he is as conspicuously ignorant of science as he is of most other subjects, he presents a spectacle which is ridiculous alike to gods and men."

As to Biblical criticism, he warns preachers that the advance of hermeneutical science makes a great deal of their deductions from Bible texts absurd, and sometimes even "appalling," to a large body of their hearers and readers. The laymen know, and they expect the minister to know, what the researches of modern scholars have done to put the most familiar passages of Scripture in new lights and to discredit old meanings. He reprehends in strong terms the importance attached to the elaborate details of the old ceremonial law as described in the Old Testament, and declares that modern criticism has made it at least doubtful whether much of this ritual was Mosaic at all, and sums up by saying: "The Old Testament can no longer be quoted and appealed to in the critical, unhistoric, and indiscriminate way to which we have been so long accustomed." He even goes so far as to affirm that

"the fact that a man is a clergyman gives him no right whatever to pronounce an opinion on such questions as the dates of various Psalms, or the authenticity of Daniel, or the time at which this or that prophet wrote, or whether the whole books of Isaiah and Zechariah were written by single authors, or the Mosaic origin of the Book of Deuteronomy, or the genuineness of the Second Epistle of St. Peter, or of the last twelve verses of St. Mark. If he has well-matured opinions on these subjects, based upon thorough inquiry and not upon the supposed sacredness of a tradition which in hundreds of instances has been proved to be not only fallible but even absurd, by all means let him say his say. But even then he is bound to do so with modesty, and with the frank admission that many who know ten times more of the subject than himself have come to conclusions different from his own. The tone adopted by some preachers —who would fain usurp the title of orthodox—upon these points of dispute, is thoroughly reprehensible. They assume that the results of the newer criticism are the consequence of something which they call 'unbelief'; and they stigmatize them, not as the result of intellectual mistake, but as the fruit of moral perversity. The unbelief and the moral perversity rest rather with themselves, when they substitute idle denunciation for serious argument, and think that anathemas will serve for refutations. He is an unbeliever, he is morally perverse, who refuses to recognize the truths revealed to us by the widening light of knowledge, and who turns the Bible into a sort of fetish or teraph, whose utterances—picked out here and there to support his own views, and interpreted exclusively in the one sense which he chooses to put upon them—he substitutes for the witness of the Spirit and the voice of God. A preacher is not bound to adopt the conclusions of modern critics, whether German or English; but what he is bound to do is to abstain from denouncing them until he has fully and fairly studied the grounds on which they rest, to abstain from confounding questions of criticism with questions of religion, and above all to abstain from the uncharitable folly of casting insinuations upon the good faith of those who hold them, and who can advance strong arguments from history and philology in favor of their views."

The whole article will well repay the perusal of everybody who occupies himself with the signs of the times either in Church or State; but we cannot say it throws much light on the question how the pulpit is best to maintain its influence and authority. It seems at first sight to make the preacher's task easier, by narrowing the sphere within which he can speak with unimpeachable claims on attention. But a little reflection will show that the smaller we make the range of his topics, the loftier must be his eloquence and the greater the spirituality and simplicity of his character. For ten men who could shine in the old school of what Archdeacon Farrar might call monopoly, there can hardly be one who could hold his own in the new school of free competition "with history, romance, the newspaper, and the political harangue, all in one." There will always be great preachers, but they must hereafter bear a smaller and smaller proportion to the mass.

A NEW ENGLISH WEEKLY.

A SECTION of the English Liberals, among whom Mr. James Bryce is prominent, propose to start in January a new English weekly to take the place, at least among men of their way of thinking, of the *Spectator*, the character of which, in their estimation, has been greatly, and indeed, as a Liberal journal, fatally, changed by its attitude on the Irish question. The new paper is to be edited by Mr. Wemyss Reid, an English journalist of great experience and capacity, and well known to the American public now as the author of the memoir of William E. Forster, one of the most delightful of recent contributions to English biography. He will have a large staff of contributors from among the ablest men in every field of thought on the Liberal side, and they have among them a great part of such talent in England as is available for the purposes of journalism. This paper will be one of the few ever started without meaning to supply "a long-felt want." The want of such a paper has not been long felt. The *Spectator*, and *Saturday Review*, and *Economist* have for thirty years given the British public such a feast of hebdomadal literature, politics, and finance as no other country could boast. The *Saturday Review*, for fully twenty years after it started, apart from its literary criticism, which was long of the very highest order, rendered by its satire a very great service to political journalism in destroying or greatly impairing popular respect for the inflated, Jupiter-Tonans, and yet thoroughly mechanical type of political "leader" established by the *Times*, and which was long slavishly imitated by the journals subsequently started. The *Review* made, by its ridicule, all newspaper writing more simple, natural, and direct, by exposing the hollowness of the old system of writing a column and a quarter of platitudes about every topic of the day. It practically destroyed or greatly weakened, in the case of all journals but the *Times*, the queer old newspaper superstition that the editor must "comment" on everything of note that happens, whether he has anything to say about it or not.

The *Spectator*, on the other hand, has been, ever since it came into the hands of its present owners, preëminently the organ of "sweetness and light." It has always been intensely Liberal, but always extremely fair to men of all parties, with a great horror of the tricks of "journalism"—the evasion, the perversion, the insolent retort, the drowning of the answer to one charge in the spray of a new one—with which newspaper readers have so much melancholy familiarity. It always maintained, too, and maintains to this day, the old reverence for sermons which the rest of the world has for fifty years been steadily losing, and sits down even now to analyze "an eloquent discourse" with a gusto which the new generation of readers finds it difficult to understand. In politics, until the Irish question came up, it rendered the inestimable service of looking at both men and measures with great impartiality, of getting at the point of view of its antagonists and doing them justice. This remarkable intellectual integrity it has in a great measure lost since the Home-Rule question arose. It not only followed Lord Hartington and Mr. Joseph Chamberlain into the Liberal-Unionist secession, but it adopted, and still produces with wearisome persistence, that view of Home Rule which deprives all its advocates both of ordinary political sagacity and of ordinary morality. The notion that Mr. Gladstone's conversion to Home Rule has not only converted that half of the British people which supports him into reckless levellers, eager to dismember the Empire, but has converted men like Lord Spencer, Lord Herschel, Lord Hampden, Lord Granville, Lord Rosebery, Sir George Trevelyan, John Morley, James Bryce, Edward Freeman, Frederic Harrison, and a host of others of the same genus, into a collection of crazy sympathizers with Irish murder and robbery, who hardly ever open their mouths except to utter foolishness—this notion, preached week after week, becomes very wearisome and very destructive of the preacher's highest powers. It has ended by alienating a very large body of the *Spectator's* old admirers, without regard to their political sympathies, particularly when they are called on to believe that the almost miraculous loss of common sense and common decency by the Gladstonians has been accompanied by the sudden bestowal of an extraordinary supply of heavenly wisdom on their Tory antagonists.

The new paper will be undoubtedly Gladstonian in its attitude towards the Irish question, but the leading contributors will be men who will not allow either the Irish ques-

tion or any other to throw them off their intellectual balance. They are men trained "to think clear and see straight," and the new journal will undoubtedly be a welcome aid to those who, during the next ten or twenty eventful years, shall seek to observe intelligently the extraordinarily interesting phenomena of English politics.

THE ARTS AND CRAFTS EXHIBITION AT THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, October, 1889.

IT is disappointing to find that the second Exhibition of Arts and Crafts has rather the appearance of a large shop than of an exhibition of objects of artistic merit. The falling off in the quality of the exhibits from last year is very marked, but it will be easily understood that, after last year's show, the committee had a much more restricted store to draw from, and that the desire to be unprejudiced, and to give a fair chance to any skilled form of manual labor applied to the decoration of objects in constant use, would admit much that seems commonplace and trivial. Mr. Crane, the President of the Society, says in his preface to the catalogue: "We can do no more than make an exhibition of contemporary work representative of current ideas and skill."

The general impression of the Exhibition leaves us with the conviction that, for the most part, ideas in England connected with art run in a very narrow groove, rather mercantile than artistic, and that the skill in execution is often much better than the design deserves. The depressing climate and hard conditions of life would lead one to expect this. For decorative art there is very little original feeling. Many of the exhibits show painstaking imitation of Burne-Jones, where figures of angels or cherubs are designed, and of William Morris in patterns with leaves and flowers such as are used on wall-papers and stuffs. Unfortunately, there is but little of the work of either of these two men compared to the show of last year. Mr. Morris exhibits a tapestry panel executed at his looms of Merton Abbey, a figure of Peace, clad in pink, from a design of Burne-Jones, against a background of dark-green fig-tree and fruit-bearing apple designed by J. H. Dearle. Two cherubs hold the inscription above on a white scroll, while, in each corner below, a naked babe plays among the leaves and flowers. The color throughout is very harmonious and rich. On the other side of the screen of Morris & Co. a piece of Arras in process of execution is daily worked on by a young boy, in order to initiate those who desire to understand the mysteries of tapestry. Some very bright small hand-made rugs in silk are especially attractive among the handsome stamped velvets, brocatels, and more homely damasks and cotton cloths shown by the firm.

A very original piece of work, full of movement and spirit, is a frieze of figures in high relief made entirely of colored rags on a background of old-gold plush, by Miss Anstruther Thomson. The subject is "A File of Moors Led by a Fanatic." The Moors are on horseback in white burnooses; the fanatic runs before them nearly naked. Some small boys on foot keep pace beside the horses, who are very spirited in action. It occurs to one that Miss Thomson might have spared herself much trouble by choosing some more fitting vehicle for such high relief than rags, such as *gesso duro*, and that as a frieze it would collect dust to an inconvenient degree. The figures are about twelve inches in height.

The Guild and School of Handicraft has some very good work, especially in metal. This Guild, under the direction of Mr. C. R. Ashbee, gives the East End workers having an aptitude for art the means of developing their powers and turning them to account. Their picture frames on repoussé copper (*e. g.*, No. 204) are very handsome, but a still finer one was executed by this guild for Mr. Holman Hunt's last picture, "The May Carol on Magdalen Tower." Another innovation in frames is in carved wood, stained crimson and gilt, thus producing very rich, glowing color—too powerful, perhaps, to suit many pictures. The pieces of furniture, too, exhibited by this guild, are original and well designed. No. 213, a music cabinet in yellow deal, stained with crimson, gilt, and painted, in which each compartment is labelled for the music of the great masters, is very attractive. A mirror-frame in wood, decorated with gesso flowers and fruit, shows how effective this kind of work can be, and how it could be used in endless ways for decorating furniture. They also send a very good fender in repoussé copper and wrought-iron, fire screens in wrought iron of delicate workmanship, and candlesticks in repoussé brass. Less happy in form is a coal-scuttle in repoussé and wrought copper, which certainly suggests a baptismal font, and would take up too much space to be convenient at an ordinary fireside. Quite the handsomest object in this Exhibition is Mr. Spencer Stanhope's eight-day clock case, with painted designs. Time going up hill is on the face of the clock with a summer effect, and, below, a maiden is sitting clad in yellow and olive, just dipping her feet in a pond full of water-lilies. Around her is a beautiful landscape, with the usual picturesque block of buildings which constitute a Florentine farm. On either side-panel of the clock we see a belfry with jangling bells; a girl on one side is ringing the hours, on the opposite panel a youth. These designs are painted in pure bright color, with all the beauty and careful finish Spencer Stanhope expends on his easel pictures, and with much better effect, as the best quality of his work is purely decorative, both in color and design. The walnut case of the clock is ornamented with delicate border patterns of gilt gesso-work.

Mr. Walter Crane, President of the Arts and Crafts, and the prime mover of the Exhibition, sends contributions to various arts. The colored proofs of his charming designs to 'Flora's Feast,' his Christmas book of last year, are in the gallery in different stages of printing, to show the process a colored picture-book must go through before being presented to the public. We also find here twelve page designs in black and white, enclosing his little daughter's verses for the twelve months, which illustrates very well what Mr. R. T. Blomfield says, in his essay on book-illustration in the catalogue, that "the ideal of paginal beauty would be reached by leaving both the text and the illustrative design to hand, if not to one hand." The effect of these written pages with the decorations and designs so closely allied to the beautiful character in which the lines are written, is very pleasant to the eye. It is especially in book-illustration that Walter Crane excels. His compositions in fibrous gesso in the west gallery, tinted with lacquer, do not strike us as good decorative work, especially (No. 90) "The Dance," (No. 92)"Tête-à-tête," in which the figures are sadly tortured into would-be grace of pose.

The case of book-bindings by Mr. Cobden-Sanderson is interesting, appropriate designs for each work being delicately tooled on the moroco covers. The backs are hollow, and are also covered with the pattern. The illuminated address which was presented to Mr. Gladstone on the occasion of his golden wedding by the members of the National Liberal Club, attracts a good deal of attention in its glass case. It is very splendidly got up, with paintings from the hand of Royal Academicians and other favorite artists, but seems a wordy tribute, in sufficiently ill taste to be rather an article of curiosity than of successful design.

We cannot admire Mr. Henry Holiday's designs for stained-glass windows; his figures are so weak and out of proportion, his compositions so wanting in spontaneity, that one cannot but regret that they should represent English art in the United States—being intended for St. Thomas's Church, New York, and for the Drew Theological Seminary, New Jersey. There are very few designs for stained glass this year. Mr. Burne-Jones has only one chalk drawing, rather roughly executed, for a two-light window for Morris & Co. The subject is, "By the waters of Babylon we sat down and wept." An architectural background frames the figures in groups, by the side of a river; little babies are pulling the flowers and reeds, pathetically unconscious of the sorrow of their elders, who are holding musical instruments and lamenting their captivity.

Christopher W. Whall's work is remarkable again this year for a certain feeling and pathos in his designs, an individuality of purpose which marks him as an artist—he is not a follower of any school. A cartoon in water-color and pastel for mural decoration, representing the "Te Deum," is a good example. The crown and sceptre are held aloft by two flying angels, divided by a tower, beyond which one sees a broad, sad landscape.

There are lustre tiles of De Morgan on view, not unlike some exhibited by him last year—good of their kind, but lacking in the quality of design. The sons of G. Cantagalli have a case of their imitations of old Faenza and Savona and Forli ware, with designs copied from great masters. The effect of the Faenza is so good that it is a pity the Messrs. Cantagalli do not employ more skilful draughtsmen when they copy ambitious works. There is pottery from Messrs. Doulton, also from the Aller Vale Co., and Sir Edmund Elton, but it all looks very commonplace and mechanical.

Needlework is very well represented in all its branches—lace, embroidery on linen, and every kind of embroidery in silks—applied to screens, portières, bed-covers, book-covers, mantel-boards, and every imaginable use. We have no space to make mention of any particular piece of work. Miss May Morris, who is a mistress of this art, has written the article on needlework for the catalogue.

The catalogue, by the way, in its first edition, is about as perplexing to turn to as human ingenuity can make it. The introductory notes or essays by practical workers on each are its redeeming point. Mr. William Morris treats of "Dyeing as an Art," and gives us a history of the primitive dyes used from the earliest times. He warns us against aniline colors, which he considers to have nearly destroyed the art of dyeing, although their discovery has done good service to capitalists. "Any one wanting to produce dyed textiles with any artistic quality in them, must entirely forego the modern and commercial methods in favor of those which are at least as old as Pliny, who speaks of them as being old in his time." That Mr. Morris is entirely right on this point is sufficiently proved by the deterioration of all Indian and Japanese textile fabrics since these harsh new colors were imported by Europeans in the East. They seem by their brightness to have met with

favor in the eyes of the natives, and to have utterly ruined their innate sense of harmony of color.

Mural Painting is treated of by Mr. Madox Brown, an historical painter of great eminence, who has been for some years employed in decorating the Town Hall at Manchester with spirit frescoes, the process of Gambier Parry. After executing seven works in this manner, he recognizes that it is better for such bad climates as England and France to paint on canvas, which is afterwards cemented on the wall; the series in question will be completed by this system. This, of course, has no kind of connection with the fresco painting of the early Italian school, nor would that simplicity and purity of color which is so distinctive a quality of that work be obtainable by this method. Mr. Madox Brown treats of mural painting as he practises it, and regrets that there is not more scope given to artists here for developing their best powers. He remarks that the old masters who were easel painters were always greatest in their fresco work. Mr. Madox Brown does not seem to take into consideration that there are at this moment very few men in England, we would even say in Europe, endowed with strong imaginative faculty. The attempt to tell a story is rare indeed in our exhibitions. Episodes of daily life and clever bits of painting from nature turn our galleries into a kind of picture-dealer's shop; the higher paths are left untrodden, and nothing indicates that there is much latent talent in this line.

Mr. Heywood Sumner treats of Sgraffito work, and Mr. G. T. Robinson of Stucco and Gesso. For these arts to be practised with any real success, the craftsman must be an able draughtsman and be gifted also with considerable invention. The samples of each of these arts in this Exhibition show an entire lack of both. The remaining articles are of Cast-Iron, by Lethaby, of Lace, by Alan S. Cole, of Book-Illustration and Book-Decoration, by R. T. Blomfield, and of Designs and Working Drawings, by Lewis F. Day.

The present Exhibition rather confirms the opinion of some of the promoters of Arts and Crafts that an annual display does not bring together sufficient work of the first quality to be desirable.

QUIVIRA—II.

SANTA FÉ, October 15, 1889.

THE resettlement of New Mexico in the eighteenth century, and the invasions of the Comanches, diverted the attention of the Spaniards for a long while from Quivira. In the latter half of the century, however, when the opening of direct communication with California was taken earnestly into consideration, the slumbering myth awoke again. The Lieutenant-Colonel of Royal Engineers, Don Bernardo Mier y Pacheco, having accompanied Fray Atanasio Dominguez and Fray Silvestre Velez de Escalante on their journey to the San Juan River in 1776, afterwards thought to find the ruins of Quivira in the architectural remains on the Chaca Cañon and further north, on the San Juan and the Mancos. So completely had the sober descriptions from the time of Coronado been forgotten, that Quivira was fancied to have been a large town, and situated northwest instead of northeast or east of Santa Fé. Two years later, however, Fray Silvestre Velez de Escalante set the matter right in so far that he suggested that the Quivira settlements might have been the Pawnee villages. He plainly states that the idea of large towns inhabited by Indians of high culture was unfounded. His writings on the subject scarcely became known in New Mexico, where, about the same time, the sayings of an old Indian attracted much greater attention, and directed the eyes of treasure-seekers towards the east again.

"Tio Juan Largo" (literally Uncle John Long) was an aged Jumano Indian, living on the lower Rio Grande at the time when Col. Mier began to ventilate his conjectures concerning the location of the Quivira. The Jumanos formerly roamed in the vicinity of the salt deposits near Manzano, and the mesa bordering these salt-lakes on the south bears the name of the tribe to-day. That Indian, when he heard of Mier's ideas, at once stated that the officer was entirely mistaken; that the Quiviras lived east, not west, of the Rio Grande, and that their homes had been on the plains, beyond the former abodes of his own people. This was perfectly true, since, as I have stated, the tribe had shifted southward into the Indian Territory and Texas. Excursions in the direction indicated were, however, almost impossible in the past century, or at least attended with the greatest risk, for there was no Spanish settlement south of Santa Fé beyond San Miguel de Carnué, and even that had to be forsaken in 1771, so completely were the hostile Comanches and Apaches masters of southeastern New Mexico. Still, adventurous prospectors, treasure-hunters, sporadically penetrated into the region.

At a distance of about forty-five miles east from Bélén, on the Rio Grande, they found on the hills overlooking the southeastern terminus of the "Mesa de los Jumanos" the remains of a considerable Indian pueblo. It was not the only one in that vicinity. But this one was particularly remarkable from the fact that it included the ruins of two churches, one of which was quite large, built of clumsy but very solid stone-work laid in mud-mortar (adobe), and connected with a portly "convent" of the same material. Every recollection of the pueblo, of its inhabitants, and of the builders of the churches had vanished from the minds of the people of New Mexico—in appearance at least; and the eager adventurers concluded that this must be the long-sought Quivira at last. The name of Gran Quivira became thereafter fastened to that ruin, and still clings to it to-day. The "Gran" Quivira lies about 140 miles south of Santa Fé on the southeastern apex of the triangle formed by the Jumanos Mesa, and on the so-called "médano," at an altitude of 6,407 feet above sea-level.

To this ruin in the course of time became attached a number of fairy and goblin tales. It struck the explorers very forcibly that no trace of water, no springs, no stream could be found near the place. How could the inhabitants have lived? How could they have watered their stock, irrigated their crops? The more the ruin was explored the more mysterious it appeared. The two churches further increased the mystery. Such edifices could not have been erected without wealth, so the treasure-seekers reasoned. There must be on this deserted spot hidden springs, and, at the same time, hidden treasures. The most absurd stories were circulated of millions of gold and silver buried in the ruins, and they were believed in by the people. At this day the traveller will be gravely told of spectral apparitions—of a white serpent rising from the ground where the altar of the church is supposed to have stood, of a snow-white goat appearing in the deserted church at midnight, of a subterraneous river, the roar of which is only audible on a certain spot and only about noontime. Stones and slabs, covered with cabalistic inscriptions, are stated to have been seen near the ruins on a certain day; and when the astonished shepherd to whose lot it fell to notice them afterwards returned to the spot, everything had vanished. In short, the Gran Quivira has become, for folk-tales of that sort, the "Kyffhaeuser" of New Mexico.

While all this mass of lore was gradually accumulating, nobody bethought himself of the fact that, as late as the second half of the past century, on a large official map of New Mexico, there was marked an abandoned Indian pueblo and mission in the very locality where the Gran Quivira lies, which pueblo bore the name of Tabira. Nobody remembered that, in 1778, Fray Silvestre Velez de Escalante had written to his superior Fray Agustin Morfi, that the pueblo of Tabira, inhabited by the Tompiros Indians, had been abandoned more than a century ago in consequence of the Apaches. Such historical indications were overlooked or discarded, and the Gran Quivira remained as a dream of wealth—for many, of gold and silver in the shape of buried church plate; for others, as a site of former extensive mining; for some (and these were the most sober ones) as a site where considerable bodies of water had once flowed, which had been cut off, covered up, or turned into another channel by supposed volcanic eruptions south of the place, where large bodies of lava interrupt the otherwise sedimentary formations.

Nobody stopped to consider that the tales of extensive Spanish mining in New Mexico are fables; that in 1725, for instance, it was officially stated that not a single mine of silver or gold had ever been worked in the whole Territory; that the Church of New Mexico was very poor, and that all its plate had to be brought from New Spain under a thousand difficulties and dangers, each ecclesiastic being (by agreement with the Crown) obliged to bring with him his chalice, vestments, and regalia; paying, furthermore, out of his scanty income ($330 per year) the cost of transportation from Durango to Santa Fé, which usually amounted to $260 for himself and baggage; that all the income which the missionaries derived from their Indian neophytes consisted of a few *fanegas* of corn or wheat, and the weekly assistance at the convent and in the garden patch attached to it; that the Indians themselves were very poor; that at the Quivira there was no need of irrigation for the scanty crops, since corn grows with the aid of winter-snows and of summer-rains alone; that sheep and cattle could hardly thrive there, owing to the proximity of the Apaches, who were sure to ravish the flocks at any time; and that the Spanish forces in the Territory were so insignificant as to make it impossible adequately to protect such far outlying missions.

Heedless of all these very plain facts, search for treasure, latterly search for hidden streams and springs, was continued until very recently. Large rewards were offered to him who should find water "at the Quivira." Stories were circulated of long *acequias* (irrigation-ditches) extant in connection with the ruins, and many a poor man lost his time, his scanty means, nay, his life, in fruitless search for treasure, for water, or for both. Words of warning were treated with derision, plain statements of facts simply discredited. The treasure of the Gran Quivira, as well as its hidden volume of water, remain undiscovered as yet, notwithstanding the numerous prospecting holes with which the place is perforated, to the detriment of its interesting old buildings. Of the volcanic disturbances to which the destruction of the pueblo and of its water supply are ascribed, no

trace has been found within historic times. But the outlines of the history of the village, of its churches, have come out little by little, and they place the past of the village and of its people in a much more simple and more rational light than romance would have it.

The Tompiros, a branch of the stock of Piros, inhabited, in the sixteenth century, at least three villages or pueblos in the region south of the salt lakes of Manzano and east of the Rio Grande. These were: Abó and Tenabó, in the valley of Abó, west of the Mesa of the Jumanos, and Tabira on the site now called Gran Quivira. It is likely that two or three more and smaller pueblos were also occupied during the same time, whose inhabitants afterwards clustered around the larger missions for protection. Chamuscado visited the Tompiros in 1581; Espejo in the year following; Oñate in 1598, when he received the formal submission and homage of the people. The first priest assigned to them was Fray Francisco de San Miguel, who resided at Pecos, whence he had to administer the country to the south of that village. This occurred on the 9th of September, 1598.

No churches appear to have been constructed among the Tompiros previously to 1628. After that date, and prior to the death of Fray Francisco de Acevedo (1644), the churches of Abó, of Tenabó, and of Tabira or Gran Quivira were built; the older and smaller church at the latter place therefore dates from between 1628 and 1644. The nearest neighbors of the Tompiros were the Jumanos, with whom they mostly lived at peace. But the Apaches bothered them greatly, and the Jumanos also suffered to such an extent that the latter either joined the Tompiros at Tabira or fled to Chihuahua. The new church at the Quivira was constructed after 1644, but never finished. About 1670 the mission became untenable. There were no soldiers to protect the distant locality, and the Apaches harassed the Tompiros to the utmost. It is possible that they even attacked the village. Its inhabitants fled to Abó. It is noteworthy that, at the time (1670), many Indians from Tabira and Abó were at El Paso del Norte, unable to return to New Mexico, the road being obstructed by the Apaches. Soon after the abandonment of the so-called Gran Quivira, Abó and Tenabó had also to be evacuated. One after another the villages near the salines of Manzano fell. Before 1675 all these missions were deserted, never to be occupied any more. Now the walls of their crumbling churches constitute the most picturesque, and at the same time the least known, ruins in New Mexico.

Under the auspices of the Archæological Institute of America, I visited Gran Quivira in January, 1883. I made a complete survey of the pueblo and of its churches. The village is built on a ridge that slopes down into the "médano," or sand-flow, skirting the eastern edge and southern apex of the Jumanos Mesa. All around it is barren and bleak for miles and miles; grass, "chaparro," and low cedars being the only vegetation. If one descends the incline of the mesa towards the south, he perceives at a long distance, on the brow of the ridge, the massive remains of the larger church. It is a parallelopiped, 7.4 metres wide from north to south by 35.6 metres long from east to west. Its front walls (east) are fully six feet thick, and the whole is built of light bluish-gray limestone, broken into irregular prisms or plates, and well cemented with adobe. It belongs to the class of church-work peculiar to the seventeenth century in New Mexico. There are still some carved cross-timbers. The convent adjoining the temple is constructed of the same material, and contains a number of cells and a refectory. The old church is smaller and almost completely destroyed, whereas the walls of the other still stand to the height of the roof. There is a cemetery adjoining the old church, with traces of its enclosure still visible. Both churches, though massive, are but clumsy structures. There is no more skill or art displayed in their construction than in the houses of the pueblo itself. They are typical pueblo churches of New Mexico of the seventeenth century, such as were then erected everywhere with patient and indolent Indian labor, without the aid of wealth, which nowhere existed in the Territory.

From the number of rooms in the convent it may be inferred that Tabira was intended to become a central mission, probably including, besides the Tompiros, the neighboring Jumanos—perhaps, also, a place of resort and recuperation for missionaries destined to work among the Aijaos and Quiviras further east. But such plans, if they were ever entertained (as it seems), were certainly never executed. The Apaches interfered, and forced the permanent abandonment of all the missions around the salt lakes of the Manzano.

The pueblo proper occupies the crest of the ridge. It consists of a number of long houses, three to four stories in height, built of the same material and exhibiting similar workmanship to that of the church edifices. At least six round estufas, partly subterraneous, are visible. The village is narrow. The houses crowd mostly along a narrow alley, and between them there runs a channel—the famous *acequia* of the treasure-seekers and of their tales of romance. Following this channel for about one-quarter of a mile, I rose to the highest point of the crest east of the ruins, and there had the pleasure of solving the vexed water question. On the culminating point, I found three large water-tanks, rudely constructed of earth with a rim of stone. The area of these reservoirs is sufficiently large for the requirements of a population like that of Tabira, which, judging from the number and size of the houses, and the number of rooms they contained, could never have exceeded 1,500 souls, and probably never attained that figure. No water was needed for irrigation, as corn, squash, and beans can grow by means of the annual precipitation alone. Flocks the Tompiros could not have, and if they succeeded in herding a few sheep and horses, that herding was done (as the Pueblo Indian does it to-day) away from the village, where the range affords grazing, with water and shelter combined. Many artificial products are scattered about the ruins, although many more may have been gathered already and still more of them ruthlessly destroyed. What I saw differed in no manner from the usual remains accompanying the former abodes of pueblo Indians.

Tabira, or Gran Quivira, as it has been erroneously called, is a dismal, bleak, and almost ghastly place, on the projecting brow of the bald hill, overlooking an arid slope of the Mesa de los Jumanos, with but very few trees—black cedars and junipers. It lies exposed to scorching heat in summer and to cold blasts in winter. During the three days and four nights I spent there, the northwest wind howled across the dreary expanse and shrieked among the ruins day and night. During the day the sky was resplendent, but every night we were covered up by snow. Often, at midnight, sounds were heard issuing from the empty church, the sighs of the wind imitating human moans and screams. When the moon rose and shed its unsteady light on the ashy piles of masonry, spectral forms seemed to flit in and out of the low doorway of the dismantled edifice. I could then understand why the Gran Quivira had become, in folk-lore, famous as well as dreaded. And if to these ghastly manifestations the shriek of the owl was added, sounding from the vacant choir at the hour of midnight, I forgave the lonely shepherd his childish fears and the daring fortune-seeker his queer beliefs.

The times of the Quivira are past. The misconceptions arising from careless interpretation of the earliest explorers have done their duty. They have been useful in their way, for the extension of geographical knowledge. But just as the "Dorado" in South America at last took refuge in the mythical lagune of Parime, whence it was finally dislodged by Horstmann and Humboldt, to return to the ranks of fact, as a custom peculiar to a single tribe, to a purely local rite, so the Quivira deserves to be banished from history as a populous city, a wealthy tribe, or a place of hidden treasure. Its true position is important enough: it has been a powerful factor in the annals of colonization of the Southwest. There is no need of perpetuating the illusions which, under various forms, it has upheld only too long.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

Correspondence.

THE LONDON *TIMES* FORGERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of November 1, 1888, it is suggested that the London *Times* forged quotation, "The only time that England can use an Irishman is when he emigrates to America and votes for free trade," is derived from an alleged quotation by Henry C. Carey, to the effect that "when the Celt has crossed the Atlantic, he begins for the first time in his life to consume the manufactures of this country, and indirectly to contribute to its customs," etc. Mr. Carey's book was published in 1853. The connection of the quotations is probable but not clear. It will perhaps interest your readers to know that the older form of the quotation did brave service in the Scott and Pierce campaign of 1852. It will be found in the New York *Tribune* for July 6, 1852, quoted from the Albany *Evening Journal* and attributed to the *Times*.

May it not be that it was heard in its earlier form in campaign speeches, was repeated from hearsay, and so was gradually transformed into its modern spurious but more effective shape? Or perhaps it was started on its later career by some speaker who had heard it years before when young, but, not being able to recall or verify the exact wording, gave it an appropriate shape for present service.

Yours respectfully, E. G. B.

CLEVELAND, O.

MR. H. C. LEA AND MR. QUAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. John Samuel's letter in this week's *Nation* "is remarkably characteristic of the political intelligence of a certain class of gentlemen," honest and well-meaning, but practically assistants to the bosses whom they imagine themselves to be opposing. I must in charity assume that Mr. Samuel had not read my protest which he criticises, else he would scarce have exposed himself to the mortification which he must experience on finding that the foolish

non sequitur attributed to me—that I propose to vote against Mr. Quay because it will not hurt Mr. Quay—is evolved from his internal consciousness; the fact being that I expressly declared my desire for the defeat of the Republican party in Pennsylvania as a rebuke for allowing itself to be placed under the leadership of Mr. Quay. Mr. Samuel is equally the victim of figments of his own imagination when he assumes that I have given money for Mr. Quay to use. I have never knowingly placed a dollar at Mr. Quay's disposal. Moreover, when, in 1885, Mr. Quay sought a rehabilitation by running as candidate for the office of State Treasurer, and when defeat would have ended his career, I devoted both labor and money to the effort to encompass that defeat. If by any chance Mr. Samuel's letter should be brought to the attention of Mr. Quay, I can imagine the chuckle of satisfaction with which that gentleman would read it.

Very respectfully, HENRY C. LEA.

PHILADELPHIA, November 2, 1889.

A VOICE CRYING IN THE WILDERNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read in the issue of the *Nation* for the 24th inst. the article headed "The Grand Army."

Does not your statement, that "it seems to the rest of the world an extraordinary and somewhat humiliating circumstance that, out of a million and a quarter of survivors of the war, there is nobody better than Tanner to state the claims of the veterans on the country," involve the major premise that the Chief Executive of our beloved country always selects the best persons for appointment to official positions?

And would it not have been fair to notice the resolutions of Noah L. Farnham Post, a copy of which I enclose, which were adopted unanimously by that post on the 9th inst., and which appeared in most of the morning dailies on the 10th?—Yours truly, L.

LOUISVILLE, Ky., October 27, 1889.

[These resolutions had not fallen under our eye. We subjoin a part of them.—ED. NATION.]

"Whereas, The only veterans who are of right entitled to pensions are those whose pecuniary circumstances are so unfortunate as to justify them in burdening the country with their support, and who, by wounds or disability incurred in the service of the country as combatants, are prevented from earning a living in their respective callings, as they might have done had such wounds or disabilities not been incurred; and . . .

"Whereas, As much real patriotism may be displayed by refraining in time of peace from inflicting unnecessary burdens on the country as by coming to her defence in time of war; therefore be it

"Resolved, That any old soldier who applies for or accepts a pension except under the conditions above set forth is, in the opinion of this post, guilty of conduct calculated to injure the good men who were and are willing to give their blood and their lives for the country without any reward beyond the approval of their own consciences and that honorable fame which is dear to every patriot; and

"Resolved, That this post strongly condemns any attempt to make use of the Grand Army of the Republic for political purposes, or as an engine to aid in dissipating the surplus that has been accumulated in the Government Treasury by unwise and unnecessary taxation."

COAL AND THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the San Francisco *Examiner* of Sunday, October 20, 1889, in an article under the signature of Senator Leland Stanford, entitled: "The Future of our State," I find the following very remarkable statement; remarkable because Senator Stanford is a strong protectionist:

"The scarcity of fuel is still a drawback to this State. A ton of coal can be put on the cars in Pennsylvania for 62½ cents; here we pay from $7 to $10. The coal we get from Vancouver has to pay 75 cents per ton duty, which is excessive in view of the fact that the plea for protection is to keep wages up, and the wages paid for handling a ton of coal do not amount to anything like 75 cents. When coal only costs 25 cents to mine in Pennsylvania, it is hardly logical to charge three times as much for the admission of foreign coal here. That benefits the owner of coal lands, and not the laborer who raises the coal."

I ask, has the argument of the free-trader and tariff-reformer been more clearly or more tersely put? Y.

NEW ENGLAND FARM LANDS AND HENRY GEORGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I notice that, in an article in this week's *Nation*, in speaking of abandoned farms in New Hampshire, you "commend again to Mr. George's followers the rare opportunity to acquire land and 'fairly comfortable buildings' on the easiest terms." May I ask why you commend the opportunity to single-tax men in particular?

Referring to the editorial immediately following the one from which the above quotation is taken, let me say that I shall be somewhat surprised if the writer of the article in the *Twentieth Century* charging Mr. George with plagiarism does not prefer charges of a similar nature against Mr. J. E. Cairnes as being a plagiarist of the ideas of Mr. Mill, perhaps; or, in fact, he might make the charge with equal decency and good sense against any writer who shared the views of a previous writer on the same subject.

I would respectfully inquire why you believe that "few of Mr. George's followers" would accept the history of the single-tax theory from anybody but himself. I judge that the publication of your idea of the mental condition of Mr. George's "followers," as you are pleased to term men who believe as he does and who have been aided in their studies on this subject by the results of his labors, might prove highly interesting.

Very respectfully, A. M. PAUL.

HARTFORD, October 26, 1889.

[The reason why we recommended the abandoned farms in New Hampshire to Mr. George's followers in particular is, that the whole George philosophy goes on the assumption that land-owners have better chances to make a living than people in general. This, we think, is the mildest possible statement of the drift and scope of 'Progress and Poverty.' Take the following fundamental proposition printed in italics on page 252:

"The reason why, in spite of the increase of productive power, wages constantly tend to a minimum which will give but a bare living, is that, with increase in productive power, rent tends to even greater increase, thus producing a constant tendency to the forcing down of wages."

Now, all that we ask of those who hold this doctrine is, that they avail themselves of the notable opportunity presented in New Hampshire to prove its truth. Actual demonstration would be so much better than theory. The showing of Commissioner Bachelder would seem to refute the idea that rent tends to increase with the increase of productive power; for it will be admitted that productive power has increased in New Hampshire, while rent has been decreasing. Our suggestion is, that those who agree with Mr. George should go to New Hampshire and make some experiments, in order to satisfy doubters and confound those who deny that there is any economic law by virtue of which rent increases with the increase of productive power.

The George philosophy has been heralded in a general way as a sort of new economic revelation or discovery—not by Mr. George himself, perhaps, but by his followers, even the most distinguished of them. This is decidedly the impression one gets from reading the speeches at the Brighton Beach banquet, when Mr. George was welcomed last summer on his return from Europe. The article in the *Twentieth Century* we consider to be typical of the state of mind of most of the school; that is, evincing wonderment that the single-tax doctrine had been in print fifty years ago, and therefore leading to the conclusion that Mr. George had been guilty of plagiarism. But as we do not wish to hurt Mr. Paul's feelings, we will make an exception of him, and concede that he either knew beforehand all that the writer in the *Twentieth Century* revealed, or at least was open to conviction from any good testimony. —ED. NATION.]

THE DECAY OF FARMING IN NEW ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Within six months from the time when the learned Massachusetts Senators denied that there had been any decay of New England farming interests, and supported their denial by the cheerful news that "mortgages were a sign of life and health," the Legislatures of New Hampshire and Vermont have deemed this decay so alarming as to call for extraordinary measures looking towards repopulating the deserted districts by immigrants—and this, too, when many regard the influx of foreigners as an evil calling for Congressional prohibition. To one conversant with the facts, it is evident that the reports of these lately appointed Commissioners do not begin to show the actual extent of the decline. Their reports are *supposed* to show only the number of "vacant farms having on them buildings in a *fair condition*"—impossible after more than five years of neglect. Instead of the 887 deserted farms reported by Commissioner Bachelder of New Hampshire in 160 towns, three times that number would probably be a low estimate.

But the *cause* of this decline must be ascertained before any intelligent attempt can be made to remedy it. Born and reared in one of the most unfortunate of these towns, the writer knows from bitter experience the true state of affairs, and believes that he understands something of the forces working this decay. The causes are mainly three:

(1.) The competition created by the invention of labor-saving machines adapted to large prairie farms, and by the increase of means of transportation and the constantly lessening cost of that transportation. There is no such thing as a "local market" in the civilized world to-day.

The broad fields of the West, worked by machines, can produce wheat and corn and beef, and deliver them in Manchester or Lowell at a less rate than can the farmer on the hillside five miles out. Every time freights are lowered, another screw is turned on the New England farmer. It is the process of the survival of the fittest—the fittest farms. While this result may be deplored on account of its social and moral aspects, economically it is all right; there is no occasion for fault-finding on this score. It is a part of that constant and painful readjustment to new conditions inevitable in a time of great industrial progress. Individuals suffer, but the masses are benefited.

(2.) But another obvious cause is direct taxation. The farmer's property is mainly in real estate and in personal property impossible to conceal; his inventory includes practically his all. But every one knows that only a small part of the personalty of the well-to-do villager is ever returned for taxation. An agent of one of the mercantile-credit agencies told the writer not long ago that it was the almost universal custom of the business men in Vermont who had money invested in stocks and Western mortgages to take false oaths on their inventories, on the ground that their neighbors did. He said this was especially common among the deacons and Sunday-school superintendents—probably because of their intimate associations with clergymen who subscribe to creeds "with mental reservations." But the farmer has no "reservation," subjective or objective. Moreover, the valuation of the farms has not been lowered even to accord with the changed values consequent on the return to specie payments ten years ago, much less to the present actual value. It would be safe, I think, to say that the average market price of New Hampshire farms to-day is less than two-thirds of the assessed valuation. With a disproportionate share of taxation put on property assessed at an over-valuation, the farmer is actually paying from 2 to 4 per cent. in taxes on the real value of his property. This is seen at its worst in towns in which a manufacturing village has grown up, calling for large outlays for streets, water-works, etc., for which the whole town is taxed, though the benefits accrue mainly to the village.

(3.) Indirect taxation, *i. e.*, the tariff. Every particle of cloth the farmer uses, whether on his back, his bed, his table, or his horse, is artificially raised in price. Every plough, harrow, mowing-machine, planter—everything involving iron, which includes *all* of his tools, wagons, and carriages; the lumber he uses in building and in repairing; the tin in his dairy or milk-wagon; the sugar on his table, which is the largest item in his grocer's bill—all these are raised in price from 10 per cent. to 150 per cent. by our tariff. What is his return? (*a*) The wool tariff, under which the manufacture of good cloth has died out, and the price of wool fallen so low that the bleat of a sheep will soon be as rare as the howl of a wolf in New England. (*b*) The tariff on potatoes, which, owing to the bulky nature of the product, has *no* effect in most of New England except in time of absolute failure of the crop, when farmers themselves have to buy potatoes from the Provinces and pay the tax of thirty cents per bushel. Two years ago, many farmers were compelled to do this. (*c*) The tariff on horses, which compels the farmer, who rarely raises a colt, to pay as much for an ugly bucking broncho as would buy a good horse from Canada. "Only this, and nothing more."

I submit that these are the *main* (not the only) causes of this decline, which even the Boston *Journal* says (August 20, 1889), "leaves a painful impression"; that the first cause alone would have produced a gradual decline, though not to anything like the present extent; that the second cause is a gross outrage on the farmer, but difficult to remedy until lies are worth more than a dollar apiece, of which there is no prospect; that the third cause, the tariff, is palpably and directly the aggravation of what were otherwise an almost unbearable condition—that it not only renders the resettlement absolutely impossible, but will work its work until, as Prof. Sumner says, "New England is mostly given up to forests and game preserves." It is to-day an absolute impossibility for a healthy man, by average industry and prudence, to live with ordinary comfort, and lay by enough to see him through his old age, on a New England farm.

Such being the facts, what will be the result of these new official efforts? Words and—a little larger tax on the farmer to pay the salaries and incidental expenses. G. W. A.

Boston, October 28, 1889.

THE BOYS OF THE WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The theory of military discipline implied in the letter quoted in an editorial article in your last issue—that youth and danger excused if they did not justify desertion from the army in time of war—was to me so novel and surprising that I have made some effort to discover if it was held and acted on to any extent by our boys in the late war.

As one of the boy soldiers of that time, I have no recollection in my own experience or observation of the prevalence of any such ideas of military honor and discipline; but memory, especially of war-time, is treacherous, and a lad of fifteen must at best have only a limited field of observation. The records alone can show whether such a theory was acted on by the tens of thousands of boys, between the ages of fifteen and twenty, who poured into our armies in the last year of the war. The records accessible to me, though of but a single State, speak so decisively in the negative that I am confident they represent the general theory and practice of the time.

To illustrate: The First Maine Heavy Artillery, in the bloody campaign from the Wilderness to Petersburg, lost the most men in battle of any regiment during the war. Company L of this regiment was raised in Maine in January, 1864, and, of a total enrolment of 161, had in its ranks 80 boys under twenty years of age. This company, in that brief campaign, had the highest percentage of killed in battle of any company of the famous regiment of which it formed a part; but of those 80 boys, not one appears in the list of the 145 deserters of the regiment.

The Thirty-first Maine Infantry left that State in April, 1864, and within fifteen days found itself fighting in the bloody thickets of the Wilderness, and in less than three months had a roll of killed exceeded by few regiments in a full three-years' service. This splendid regiment took from the State 329 boys under twenty years of age, and of this number just five succumbed to their fears and deserted their colors.

The Second Maine Cavalry left the State for the Department of the Gulf in March and April, 1864, and, by an appalling combination of exposure and misfortune, in less than nine months had met with a loss by disease in that pestilential climate greater than that experienced by any white regiment in the entire army in the same length of time, and exceeded in actual number of deaths by but few regiments in the army. This regiment had in its ranks when it left the State 448 boys under twenty years of age, yet, under the tremendous strain and depression of a mortality far surpassing that of battle, only two of this entire number deserted, and of these one voluntarily returned to his regiment and was mustered out with it.

The value of these figures is not lessened when it is recalled that, while all these boys were entered on the rolls as eighteen or nineteen years of age, as a matter of fact not less than one-fourth of them were under eighteen years of age, and not legally subject to military duty. This magnificent record of the boys of the war, under what may fairly be considered the maximum of strain to which soldiers are ever subjected, is too precious a legacy to be frittered away by sentimental excuses for the few whom neither honor nor patriotism could hold to their duty. James J. Dow.

Faribault, Minn., October 27, 1889.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY ASSAILED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer of an article in the September number of the *North American Review* takes an exceedingly gloomy view of the condition and influence of the public libraries of the country. He asserts that their resources have been largely perverted from their proper work of educating to that of merely amusing, and, still worse, that they contain collections of immoral books which are positively pernicious. He believes that these evils arise from the lack of any authority competent to hold library boards to a strict accountability for their work, and suggests as a remedy that they be placed under the direction of the State Boards of Education.

Let us examine the first assertion, namely, that the managers of our libraries, forgetful of the educational purpose for which they were founded, are using them simply to furnish amusement. This is based upon the statement, drawn from the library reports, that a large proportion of the books issued are from the class fiction, and the implied assumption that all reading of fiction is simply for amusement and without educational value. In this day, when the story is being used more than ever before, not only for the illustration of history, but for the dissemination of opinion, when it has a recognized place in the curricula of our schools, when it is read and recommended by a great majority of our cultivated people, including our professional educators, it seems unnecessary to enter upon its defence. To form a fair estimate of the educational value of the library, include with the books issued from the classes history, literature, etc., whatever of good is in the fiction. If this be done, and it be borne in mind, in examining the fiction lists of our libraries, that the better books are usually largely duplicated, and also, comparing fiction as a whole with the other classes, that the average cost per volume is less than in any other branch of literature, I believe the conclusion will be reached that, not a large, but only a small part of our library funds are being used merely to amuse.

The second evil alleged, namely, the collection of immoral books, touches upon one of the most difficult problems for the librarian. There are certain well-known books which, though gross in subject and style as reflecting the age which produced them, still have a recognized place in literature, and therefore claim a place in the library. Some of them are manifestly unfit for general circulation, and these are usually kept out of the circulating library and

issued only to those who may reasonably be expected to make a proper use of them. To this extent and no further is the charge that libraries contain semi-private collections of immoral books true. That bad books, having no recognized value and only intended to gratify a prurient taste, are intentionally collected, I know to be untrue of many of our libraries, and I do not believe it true of any of them. To those who know the librarians of this country, the assertion that they would lend themselves to any such arrangement is too absurd to merit a serious denial.

As to the remedy suggested for these alleged evils, namely, that the libraries be placed under the direction of the State Boards of Education, the comment on this may be as brief as the celebrated chapter on the snakes of Iceland—that is, there are in most States no such boards. There is usually a State Superintendent of Schools, selected for his specific knowledge of and experience in school work. The libraries being an independent and important educational factor, it would be as reasonable to place the schools under the direction of a State Superintendent of Libraries, if such an officer existed, as to subordinate the libraries to one who is simply the chief schoolmaster of the State. If State Bureaus of Education, using the word in its broad sense, could be organized, the libraries, the schools, both public and private, and all other educational work might receive from them helpful guidance. Our libraries have received much valuable assistance from the United States Bureau of Education, though not in the direction suggested.

The writer upon whom I have been commenting, speaks also of the comparatively recent origin of the public library, and of its rapid growth, which has, in a little more than a generation, placed it beside the church and the school, "the complete triad of the moral and intellectual forces of the age," and then draws a picture of the ideal library, which is very like that which the librarians of the country are trying to realize. The meetings of the American Library Association, and of the local societies, as well as the practical papers published in their journals, not only bear witness to the enthusiasm and industry of the librarians of the country, but show that they, better than any others, realize the defects which still exist, and are laboring strenuously to remedy them. The public library, so far from being in its decadence, is just on the threshold of its work. WM. H. BRETT.

CLEVELAND, October 28, 1889.

INTERNATIONAL IGNORANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication in the *Nation* of October 17, entitled "International Ignorance," instantly reminded me of an illustration of this which has come within my own experience. While travelling through the upper Rhone valley, I met a rector of the Church of England, a man apparently of rare gifts and high attainments. Both of us had seen the Rhine, and we were talking of its great beauty. I took occasion to compare it with the Hudson, and suggested that the mountain scenery of the American Rhine surpassed that of its namesake. "Ah, yes," he replied; "I can see how that may well be. Of course the views of the Rocky Mountains are very grand from the Hudson."

A month later I was travelling in England. In one of the northern towns I met a gentleman who interested me greatly. He talked intelligently of literature and science. I told him the very story which I have related above. He thought it a rare joke, and a matter to be greatly deplored, that an English rector should be so ignorant. "Ha, ha," he said in the midst of convulsing laughter, "a great joke, a rare joke! Why, the Rocky Mountains must be 400 miles from your Hudson River!" H. G. H.

ANDOVER, MASS., October 25, 1889.

DERELICT VESSELS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Before the close of the present Marine Conference would it not be wise to suggest to them the importance of advocating a permanent international service for the especial purpose of clearing the ocean highways of derelict vessels? A SUBSCRIBER.

GERMANTOWN, PHILADELPHIA, October 30, 1889.

Notes.

THE series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts" will in due time have added to it an essay towards a 'History of Privateering' as connected with Rhode Island during the Revolution (1776-1783). It is being prepared by Mr. Sidney S. Rider, editor of the Providence *Book Notes*.

"As You Like It," the eighth volume in Mr. Horace Howard Furness's new Variorum Shakspere, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co. for speedy publication.

It will probably be many years before we shall be allowed to see the ample diaries kept by the late Charles Francis Adams while he was American Minister in England, and in the meantime we may look forward with interest to a 'Life of Lord John Russell (Earl Russell, K. G.),' by Mr. Spencer Walpole, which will be published this month in two volumes by Longmans, Green & Co. The same house has also nearly ready for publication 'The Melbourne Papers,' edited, from documents in the possession of Earl Cowper, by Mr. Lloyd C. Sanders.

We have received specimen sheets of Mr. William C. Harris's forthcoming 'Fish and Fishing in America' (The Harris Publishing Co.). It will include "monographs and illustrations of over 200 fishes that are caught with hook and line in American waters." The illustrations will consist of faithfully representative studies from nature. The forty parts will be issued monthly by subscription.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'Five Thousand Miles in a Sledge—Mid-Winter Journey across Siberia,' by Lovel F. Gowing.

Harper & Bros. announce 'Would You Kill Him?' a novel by George Parsons Lathrop, which "presents the case against capital punishment"; 'A Little Journey in the World,' by Charles Dudley Warner, described as a "trenchant satire upon modern social life in America"; 'Dorymates,' by Kirk Munroe; 'Cradle and Nursery,' by Christine Terhune Herrick; 'Winters in Algeria,' written and illustrated by the artist Frederick A. Bridgman; and 'The Political Problem,' by Albert Stickney.

A translation of Louis Leger's 'History of Austria-Hungary from the Earliest Time to the Year 1889'; 'The Sayings of Poor Richard,' edited from Franklin by Paul Leicester Ford; 'Thomas Jefferson's Views on Public Education,' by John C. Henderson; 'The First International Railway and the Early Colonization of New England,' by Laura E. Poor; and 'Spring and Summer,' poems, by William Washburn, are the latest announcements of G. P. Putnam's Sons. This firm will, early next year, join in an English serial enterprise, "Heroes of the Nations," under the supervision of Evelyn Abbott of Balliol College, Oxford.

Some of the illustrated holiday books in sight are Sheridan's 'The Rivals,' the designs, partly in water-color, by Frank M. Gregory, and 'The Arabian Nights,' with 100 full-page photogravures after designs by Stanley L. Wood, to be published by White & Allen; Wordsworth's 'Melodies from Nature,' Sir E. Lytton Bulwer's 'The Secret Way,' and Miss Elizabeth Stuart Phelps's 'A Lost Winter,' which have D. Lothrop Co.'s imprint; 'Venice,' 'Facsimiles of Aquarelles by American Artists,' with text by Ripley Hitchcock, 'Selected Etchings,' for which also Mr. Hitchcock supplies the letter-press, and Owen Meredith's 'Lucile,' which will be issued by Frederick Stokes & Bro. To the foregoing may be added Henri Bouchot's 'The Book: its Printers, Illustrators and Binders, from Gutenberg to the Present Time,' on the list of Scribner & Welford.

Dr. Daniel G. Brinton has bestowed on some sacred songs of the ancient Mexicans the title of the 'Rig Veda Americana.' He will edit them from two Nahuatl MSS. with a sixteenth-century gloss, personally collated by himself at Madrid and Florence. "They are," he says, "without doubt, the most ancient authentic examples of American language and literature in existence." Subscriptions may be addressed to Dr. Brinton at No. 2041 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Dr. W. E. Griffis's 'Lily among Thorns,' already announced as in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and as explanatory of the Song of Solomon, will consist of Part I., History and Criticism; Part II., The Text in the Revised Version, with parts of speakers, solo and chorus marked; and Part III., Studies and Comments, treating of the five parts or acts and fourteen scenes into which the drama is divided. The allegorical theory is rejected, and the historical and natural view maintained.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Elementary Mathematical Tables' (of logarithms, anti-logarithms, sines and cosines, reciprocals, square roots, cube roots, exponentials, least divisors, interest tables, etc.), by Prof. A. Macfarlane of the University of Texas.

The Librairie Auguste Fontaine has in preparation a 'Nouvel Armorial du Bibliophile,' by M. Joannis Guigard, which is to be in two large octavo volumes, and to contain facsimiles of some 2,500 coats-of-arms and bindings stamped with the owners' arms. The one regret of an American who loves rich and sumptuous binding is that there is a certain snobbishness in the use of a coat-of-arms—even if by chance he may be entitled to it—for certainly there is no device more appropriate as a mark of ownership or more decorative.

'Remarkable Bindings in the British Museum,' selected for their beauty and historic interest and described by Henry B. Wheatley (London: S. Low; Paris: Gruel & Engelmann), is an English attempt to rival M. Bouchot's collection of the fine bindings in the Paris National Library. For the arrangement of the plates and the selection of the bindings to be reproduced, Mr. Joseph Cundall is responsible, Mr. Wheatley having merely prepared the descriptions, which are not always to the reader's satisfaction. The sixty-two plates were printed in Paris under the supervision of M. Léon Gruel. They seem to us to represent fairly enough the richness of the great English collection, and at the same time to reveal very plainly the small share that Englishmen have had in the progress of the art of bookbinding. It is perhaps not too much to say that there has been no great English

binder. Roger Payne was a first-rate workman—his books were admirably bound; but as an artist, as a decorator, as a "gilder" (to use the technical term), he cannot be compared with any of the great French binders.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, have published a translation by Stanton Coit of Prof. Georg von Gizycki's 'Moralphilosophie,' which has already been reviewed in these columns. It is intentionally adapted for use as a text-book on ethics in colleges, and will serve this purpose admirably when the knowledge of the student has sufficiently advanced to dispense with skeletonizing. The adaptation, however, does not vary in form or matter from the original except in the particular that the appendix on Kant's and Schopenhauer's doctrine of "transcendental freedom" has been omitted. It is a part of the main contents in the original. We are glad to note that the translation is most excellent, a quality which it gets from being free and graceful, while it is faithful to the sense of the German.

A new and revised edition of Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' annotated and accented, with illustrations of English life in Chaucer's time, by John Saunders (Macmillan & Co.), is an excellent modernization, in an abridged form, of the work whose full title it bears. Each tale is retold in prose, and from time to time the narrative is continued in the original words of the poet, with the purpose of retaining the best and characteristic portions. The orthography has been modernized except where the old spelling serves to indicate pronunciation. The text used is Morris's. The illustrations are the figures from the Ellesmere MS. The explanatory matter is very full. Altogether, the work is a useful substitute for the original for those who are deterred from Chaucer by the difficulties of the antiquated text, and a still better introduction to the study of it and manual of reference in connection therewith.

We can recommend as eminently fit for personal companionship the new handy-volume "red-line" edition of Wordsworth's Complete Works, manufactured by the Glasgow University Press, and published here by A. C. Armstrong & Son. The eight little volumes fill a box not too large for the trunk or handbag, and each can be most comfortably carried in the pocket. The print is very legible.

The same firm put their imprint on a reissue of Ainger's edition of 'Tales from Shakespere,' by Charles and Mary Lamb; but in this case our praise must stop short with the cover. Well-worn plates and little care in the press-work have robbed the pages of all comeliness.

Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Blue Fairy Book' (Longmans) takes its distinction from the color of its exterior. Its contents will be universally acceptable, and, though consisting of the old favorites, are in large measure fresh as being specially translated or adapted from Grimm, Mme. d'Aulnoy, H. Carnoy, etc., or condensed, as in the case of "Aladdin" and the "Voyage to Lilliput," or derived from unusual texts, like "Dick Whittington" from a Villon Society chap-book. The print, it must be confessed, is not fit even for young eyes in all lights—and who more apt than children to read into the twilight? The illustrations, too, we think, would have been much more decorative if drawn on or for the wood-block. They have the cheap "process" effect of facsimiles of pen-drawings.

The Germans also have been making lists of the hundred best books, and we find nearly two score of these gathered into 'Die besten Bücher aller Zeiten und Litteraturen' (Berlin: Friedrich Pfeilstücker; New York: F. W. Christern). They are useful to us chiefly as a means of estimating the German "national equation"—quite as distinct a factor in criticism as the "personal equation" of the astronomers. Franklin, Hawthorne, and Lowell are not on any list. Longfellow, Motley, H. M. Stanley, and "Mark Twain" are each on one list. Poe is on two; Emerson, Cooper, and Bret Harte are each on three; Irving is on four. It is worthy of remark, as indicating a certain unwillingness to surrender a first impression, that more than once are Dickens and Miss Brontë referred to as "Boz" and "Currer Bell." One of the contributors finds occasion to say emphatically that no man need know Chateaubriand or Victor Hugo.

To the little "Universal-Bibliothek" of Philipp Reclam, jr., Leipzig, has just been added a free translation, by Karl Knortz, of the late E. P. Roe's 'He Fell in Love with his Wife' ('Wie sich Jemand in seine Frau verliebt').

The October number of the *Civil-Service Record* (published, by the way, at 30 Court St., Boston) contained Mr. George William Curtis's address at the late meeting of the League in Philadelphia, and the November number contains that of Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte on the same occasion. We have had many inquiries as to both by readers who wished to procure these admirable speeches.

The double number, May - June, of the *Library Journal* is wholly given up to the proceedings of the St. Louis Conference of the American Library Association. These will be found extremely interesting, embracing numerous reports on the library architecture and legislation of the year, on Sunday opening, on alphabetizing, the keeping of scrap-books, the indexing of portraits, on reading for the young, etc.

The State Historical Society of Wisconsin has issued its first triennial catalogue of its Portrait Gallery—using this term in its broadest sense. The most noticeable painting is, perhaps, that of Eleazar Williams, by George Catlin. An original portrait of DeWitt Clinton, thought to be also by Catlin, came from Clinton's own library. A large number of the painted and crayon portraits are of men of local celebrity; a still larger number, as was inevitable, of men born elsewhere than in Wisconsin. There is a portrait of Columbus copied from the Yanez original in the National Library at Madrid; and one of Cromwell, after Cooper's portrait (1650).

We have before us the circular for 1889-90 (second year) of the National Young Folks' Reading Circle, "a national organization for the promotion of good reading among our boys and girls," of which the central office is at Champaign, Ill. One can but feel confidence in a management embracing such names as Miss Mary E. Burt, Miss C. M. Hewins, J. N. Larned, F. M. Crunden, K. A. Linderfelt, Rev. Lyman Abbott, not to mention others equally well known. The membership fee is twenty-five cents, and members are supplied at reduced rates with the books appointed to be read. A diploma is awarded for four years' compliance with the system. The readers are divided into three grades, beginning with twelve and under, and ending with seventeen and over. There are State Secretaries for half the Union.

The next Annual Convention of the Modern Language Association will be held at Harvard University during the Christmas holidays of this year. Announcements of papers that will be presented have reached the Secretary from Professors Hunt (Princeton), Gummere (Haverford), Wright (Middlebury), Primer (Providence), Tolman (Ripon), Gerber (Earlham), Schmidt-Wartenberg (University of Deseret), Kent (University of Tennessee), Grandgent (Boston), Matzke (Bowdoin), Marcou (University of Michigan), Dodge (Columbia). Precise dates and definite place of the meeting will be given in the programme which will be issued shortly before the Convention.

—We are permitted to publish the following lines addressed to Walter Savage Landor on his birthday, by the late Dr. E. Gryzanovski:

AD SAVAGIUM.

Quis te non patriâ docuit cantare Camoenâ?
Quis te Romanis plectra movere modis?
Anne Sabina tibi puero dedit ubera nutrix,
Aut haustus licuit ducere Castalios?
Eheu! templa jacent labe prostrata perenni,
Nescia jam dapibus arx resonare Deûm.
Sed quâ Maeonides maduit, quâ Lesbia vates,
Castalis unda scatet murmure perpetuo.
Nimirum lacrymâ tantas defiente ruinas
Melpomene, laticis areat unda, vetat.
Nec mora vana Deæ: Musis post aeva negata,
Pristina qui poscat pocula, Landor adest.
Fauste senex (si quae posttalia philtra senectus),
Muneribus tantis cui vacuisse datum.
Sive cient lacrymas tua carmina sive cachinnos,
Gratiâ in aeternâ posteritatis erunt.
En, jam Roma patet. Redeunt cum Cæsare sacra
Numina, Tristitiæ regna mitrata ruunt.
Te vivo, non omnis amor morietur Olympi,
Et nunquam, Landor, mortuus omnis eris.

— During the last two years there has appeared in the *Revue Bleue*, at intervals of about three months, a series of autobiographical sketches by M. Sacher-Masoch, entitled "Choses Vécues." They have been of less than the greatest importance and interest, but have been worth reading as throwing some light on the history of a writer of whose life and training little has otherwise been known. The last two of these sketches appeared in the number for October 5, and tell the story of how M. Sacher-Masoch first met Dumas *père*, and of how his own early novel, 'Don Juan de Koloméa,' came to be written. The first sketch is of the slightest, and seems to have been inspired rather by a desire to get in a blow at the naturalists than by anything else. The naturalists are about the best abused school of writers just now in France, as elsewhere, and perhaps M. Sacher-Masoch's blow, which is not in itself a deadly one, was not needed. As to Dumas, he met him in Vienna and told him long stories about the East, of which Dumas knew nothing. When their talk came to an end, Dumas looked up suddenly and said, "Do you know what lies dormant in you? A novelist!" When Sacher-Masoch repeated this remark to Dumas *fils* years afterwards, his comment was: "Well, my father gave you a bit of good counsel—for once." This utterance of filial piety is characteristic, and recalls another remark of the same good son's: "Rather than have it said that he could not keep a negro footman, I believe my father is quite capable of getting up behind the carriage himself."

— In the second sketch, M. Sacher-Masoch drops, as it were by chance, some bits of information about his early life, which was confined and studious. At the age of eight he was entered at the *gymnase*, proceeding to the University at sixteen; at twenty he was doctor of philosophy, and a year afterwards published his first book, an historical treatise upon the revolt at Ghent under Charles V., and was appointed professor of history in the University of Gratz. Up to this time he was too busy to write romances or to live them; but soon, in spite of himself, he says, he became involved in both. His first novel, which was half historical, was called 'Le Comte Donski,' and its scene was laid in the time of the Polish Revolution. Then followed 'Kaunitz,' a romance after the manner of Dumas. Then came 'Don Juan de Koloméa,' which he

wrote some time during his five years of life with a woman of high connections in Poland, whom he had taken away from her husband. After this *liaison* was broken, he made up his mind to print his book, but experienced the usual difficulties in finding a publisher. At last it appeared in 1866 in Westermann's review, and afterwards, in 1871, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the career of its author began.

—At first sight there seems something odd in the announcement that M. Ernest Renan is just about to publish his first book. But it is quite true. The volume is now in the press and will appear in December. M. Renan permits the *Temps* to tell the book's story. Its title is the 'Avenir de la Science,' and it was written as long ago as 1849, and bears marks in it of that stirring time. Renan, of course, had no personal share in the great events of the period, but indirectly they were the occasion of his beginning to write. After he came out of the Sorbonne, he led a very retired life in Paris, seeing and knowing almost nobody, and working hard at the study of Sanskrit under Eugène Burnouf. One day in June, as he was going to his lecture, he came upon a barricade, in the Rue Saint-Jacques, which he found much difficulty in passing. When at last he reached the College, he encountered Burnouf in the vestibule, who said, "Come and look at our lecture-room." They found it turned into a guard-room, and full of soldiers. Burnouf shook his head: "Let us go away again: this is not the moment for Sanskrit." Renan went away, and in the next three months of enforced leisure wrote his book. In the fall of 1849 he went to Italy, and did nothing towards the publication of his work till his return in 1850. Then Victor Leclerc and Augustin Thierry dissuaded him from printing it, on the ground that the subject was too large for a first attempt. Since then the book has lain in manuscript, and it will now be given to the world almost without a change in it. It will be very curious to compare M. Renan's earliest with his later style. He says himself that about that time his style changed greatly. He joined the *Revue des Deux Mondes* almost at that moment, and its public demanded that whatever was presented to them should be *paré*.

—The *Temps*, which has seen the first hundred pages of M. Renan's book in the proof, says that it appears to be an exposition of the ideas which drove him out of the Church into lay life. A new faith took the place of Catholicity in him, and this is his confession of it. Besides its autobiographical interest, it has another which may fairly be called historical, for the question of science or a revelation has been one which has been given to our whole age to solve. It is a question, too, that may be well studied in its working and effects upon so fine an intelligence as that of M. Renan. One thing alone is necessary, he maintains, and that is to live a complete life, to attain the perfect; and he gives to perfection a wide definition. It does not lie in morals alone, as some have thought. "The model of perfection is given us by humanity itself; the most perfect life is that which represents best humanity as a whole. But cultivated humanity is not moral only, it is also learned, curious, poetic, passionate." It is all or nothing with M. Renan: "absolute supernaturalism or rationalism without reserve." The ground he has taken is well known, and yet no one can miss seeing how much of his old religious feeling and spirit went with him into his new faith. He is a believer still, he cries passionately; nay more, the rationalist is the only true believer:

"It is you who are the sceptics and we who are the believers! We believe in the work of modern times, in its holiness, in its future, and you curse it. We believe in reason, and you insult it; we believe in humanity, in its divine destinies, in its imperishable future, and you laugh at them; we believe in the dignity of man, in the goodness of his nature, in the rectitude of his heart, in his perfectibility, and you shake your head at these consoling truths. . . . We believe in all that is true; we love all that is beautiful; and you, with eyes shut to the infinite charm of things, go through this lovely world without one smile for it. Is the world then a graveyard? Is life a funeral rite? In the place of reality you have an abstraction. Which is it who denies, you or we? And is it not the denier who is the sceptic?"

— It may, perhaps, be worth while, since we have spoken once or twice of the quarrel between MM. Erckmann and Chatrian, to note that their difficulties have been composed, and they have shaken hands and become Erckmann-Chatrian once more. Their difference has at least brought out two rather good *mots*. One is of Dumas *fils*, who is reported to have said to a friend who proposed that they should work together: "Collaborate? Why should I wish to quarrel with you?" The other is told of M. Aurélien Scholl, and neatly puts some of the truer part of the truth about collaborations into a nutshell. A yoke-fellow had been imposed on him whom, for certain good reasons, he was obliged, at least for the moment, to accept. The first morning of their work together Scholl began: "Well, my dear fellow, do you feel in trim for writing?" "Never more so, *cher maître;* I am in great form." "Sit down, then, and take your pen—I am going to dictate."

ASA GRAY'S SCIENTIFIC PAPERS.

Scientific Papers of Asa Gray. Selected by Charles Sprague Sargent. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

Asa Gray never undertook the examination of any subject without becoming familiar with all of its most important relations. Every part of his work in widely diverse fields was characterized not only by a sense of due proportion springing from this habit, but also by minute accuracy. Such two-fold care places upon scientific work limitations which ordinarily render impossible its rapid performance. Hence, even to those who had best known the marvellous scientific and literary activity of Prof. Gray, the list of his writings, compiled and printed last year, was a surprise. It seemed incredible that one who was not free from college cares and administrative anxieties could have accomplished so much.

Asa Gray's writings may be divided into five natural groups, as follows: (1) Contributions to Descriptive Botany; (2) Text-books and Manuals for Instruction; (3) Essays and Critical Reviews; (4) Records of Botanical Progress, Critical Notes, Biographical Notices, and Suggestive Memoranda; (5) Philosophical Writings. Each one of these groups of papers represents a high degree of well-directed activity and an astonishing amount of work. As might naturally be expected, the results of this work are very widely scattered through the transactions of learned societies, scientific and other journals, and in independent memoirs. Some of them are no longer readily accessible.

For many years, one of Professor Gray's associates, the professor of arboriculture in Harvard University, has been acquiring copies of all the writings now referred to, and his collection, especially of the minor articles, is probably the most nearly complete of any in existence. From this immense mass of material at his command, Professor Sargent has selected papers for the two volumes now before us. From the preface to the first volume it appears that when that was printing, it was in contemplation to publish three volumes; but the plan has been changed, and the two volumes now on hand complete the series. The two volumes contain about nine hundred large octavo pages.

The basis of selection is judicious. The reprints comprise most of the more important papers (other than those dealing with descriptive botany) which are not easily within reach. Of course the earlier text-book, though now very scarce, does not appear among the papers. The papers collected by Prof. Gray in his 'Darwiniana,' and which constitute his valuable contributions to the exegesis of Darwinism, are not reprinted in this series. Nor has the compiler reprinted the Yale lectures, which belong in the same category. There are also wanting from these volumes the shorter notices in the *Nation*, the *American Journal of Science*, and so on; but the line had to be drawn somewhere, and we think it has been drawn with good judgment.

The first volume is devoted to reviews of works on botany and related subjects. The earliest paper is a review of Lindley's 'Natural System of Botany,' and bears the date 1837; the last is a review of Ball's 'Flora of the Peruvian Andes,' written in 1886. Of these papers, twenty-five are devoted to systematic botany, fourteen to physiology, and five to geographical questions regarding plants. The others are reviews of popular and elementary treatises. The student of these papers is impressed from the outset by the following features: (1) in every case the *kernel* is reached; (2) without parading his knowledge, the critic always adds to the facts or principles presented in the book under review; (3) errors are pointed out without malice. These points may be illustrated briefly by a single reference. In the review of Lindley's 'Natural System of Botany,' Gray (p. 9) indicates the essential character of Lindley's innovations; in the next place he shows what the characters of a sound system should be; and, lastly, he hints at a great improvement which Lindley might have made in the treatment of the seed and other topics.

Throughout the volume are to be found many instances of Dr. Gray's remarkable command of language, and also of his humorous way of putting things. We can quote only a few examples, since our readers ought to have the pleasure of coming upon them themselves. Thus:

"Great as the merits of the work undoubtedly are, we must nevertheless be excused from adopting the terms of extravagant, and sometimes equivocal, eulogy, employed by a popular author who gravely informs his readers that no book, since printed Bibles were first sold in Paris by Dr. Faustus, ever excited so much surprise and wonder as did Dr. Torrey's edition of Lindley's 'Introduction to the Natural System of Botany.' Now we can hardly believe that either the author or the American editor of the work referred to was ever in danger, as was honest Dr. Faustus, of being burned for witchcraft; neither do we find anything in its pages calculated to produce such astonishing effects, except, perhaps, upon the minds of those botanists, if such they may be called, who had never dreamed of any important changes in the science since the appearance of good Dr. Turton's translation of the 'Species Plantarum,' and who speak of Jussieu as a writer 'who has greatly improved upon the natural orders of Linnæus.'"

Again, alluding to certain names proposed as English appellations of plants, and not at all to his taste: "Polycarp (newly martyred) for Polycarpon."

Reviewing a popular work on the Trees of North Carolina, by a very learned man who expresses the fear that botanists will find fault with it: "Now, we are not shocked at all: indeed, we quite enjoy a glimpse of Flora en deshabille and slip-shod, and we are well aware how much easier it is, and how much better in such cases, to fit your book to its proper readers than to fit the readers to it."

In another case: "We find 144 plates, of various kinds and merits. The least satisfying to us are those of portraistic or scenic character, borrowed from the German 'Der Wald' and the very French 'Vegetable World' of Figuier; yet to others these may be the most attractive" As annotators say, note the force of the "very."

Ruskin's 'Proserpina,' a work begun in 1875, is thus noticed:

"Mr. Ruskin, 'having been privileged to found the School of Art in the University of Oxford,' now proposes to found a new school of botany. Of course, it will be a vagarious school. One crying evil to be remedied is, 'that there are generally from three or four up to two dozen Latin names current for every flower,' and 'the most current and authoritative names' are 'of the devil's own contriving.' This is not seemly. As Wesley would not allow the devil to have the singing of all the good tunes, so neither will Ruskin allow him to have the naming of all the sweet flowers. He proposes 'to substitute boldly . . . other generic names for the plants thus faultfully hitherto titled.' He 'will not even name the cases in which they have been made,' but 'will mask those which there was real occasion to alter by sometimes giving new names in cases where there was no necessity of such kind.' That is to say, the evil of a redundancy of botanical names is to be overcome by making more, some of them avowedly needless; and innocent names are to suffer, lest bad ones should become notorious by being discarded without company. For it appears that the diabolical names to be sent to their own place in this reform are not discarded because they are cacophonous, although that is the common charge, but because they are immoral. Of the two evils to be dealt with, the first is simply a superfluity of Latin names; the second, and the worse, a superfluity of naughtiness.

"As Mr. Ruskin forcibly puts it: 'The second, and a much more serious one, is of the devil's own contriving (and, remember, I am always quite serious when I speak of the devil), namely, that the most current and authoritative names are apt to be founded on some unclean or debasing association, so that to interpret them is to defile the reader's mind.' This reminds us of the fine lady who thanked Dr. Johnson for omitting indelicate words from his dictionary; to whom the blunt moralist rejoined, 'I perceive, madam, that you have been looking for them.' Now, if the case be really as it is represented, the sound practical axiom, *Quieta non movere*, would seem to suggest the proper treatment."

Again, in the same connection: "Ignorance, no doubt, has its uses; but it is questionable whether teaching is altogether the best use to put it to."

We take two illustrations of Gray's pithy way of stating propositions. "Plants are the thermometers of the ages, by which climatic extremes and climates in general through long periods are best measured." "The difficulty of a reform increases with its necessity." And, further, a single example of his management of figures: "When we gather into one line the several threads of evidence of this sort, to which we have here barely alluded, we find that they lead in the same direction with the clues furnished by the study of abortive organs: slender, indeed, each thread may be, but they are manifold, and together they bind us firmly to the doctrine of the derivation of species."

Volume ii is of a more popular character. It consists mainly of essays of a general nature, such as the Longevity of Trees, Sequoia (the big trees of California), Forest Geography, and the like, some of them being chatty and instructive accounts of journeys, and all of them distinct contributions to botanical science. They are full of enjoyment and profit. The volume closes with selections from the biographical notices contributed to the *American Journal* and the American Academy. These are frequently enriched by personal reminiscences. They are discriminating and judicial, but at the same time noticeably tender tributes, which reflect very perfectly the modest and genial character of the writer. We miss one of the biographical sketches which is the most touching of all, namely, that of Gray's life-long friend, Joseph Henry, and, while speaking of omissions, we should like to express the wish that one of the earlier articles on Development, written anterior to Darwin's era, had here found a place. But we know how difficult a task it must have been to select from so rich a storehouse, and we are indebted to Prof. Sargent for performing it so well.

A SAVIOUR OF SOCIETY.

A History of the Kansas Crusade: Its Friends and its Foes. By Eli Thayer. Introduction by Rev. Edward Everett Hale, D.D. Harper & Bros. 1889.

THIS complacent 'Guide to Posterity for the Proper Appreciation of Myself' shows the author to be a man of the old ante-Darwinian rock, and a firm believer still in special creations. Before him all was void. Up to 1854, every other instrumentality employed by Providence for the overthrow of slavery had failed ignominiously. Garrison had extinguished Lundy, and destroyed the fruits of his labors, and indefinitely postponed emancipation by fomenting slave insurrections and the disruption of the Union. The nebulous Liberty party and the diminishing Free-Soil party were absolutely impotent. On the passage of the Nebraska Bill, the whole North was given over to despair. It looked very much as if the universe were getting away with its Maker, when a happy thought brought into existence Mr. Eli Thayer of Worcester County, Massachusetts.

It would be irreverent to ask after this gentleman's antecedents, because special creations never have any. Prof. Spring, who ought to have devoted at least half his 'History of Kansas' to him, but only twice mentions his name, treats him as a heavenly visitant; but the Rev. Dr. Hale, who has his own little claim to Thayer's thunder, having "as early as 1845 . . . looked to emigration from the North as the solution of the slavery problem," in a pamphlet (only fifteen years behind Benjamin Lundy) called 'How to Conquer Texas before Texas Conquers Us,' gives his partner away. There was a past even to Eli Thayer, it seems: he was, in the spring of 1854, "fortunately, in the Legislature of Massachusetts; well known as a pronounced and eloquent Free-Soiler." We have never heard that he invented his party's doctrine of non-extension to slavery, and we are bound to say that in the present work he modestly lays no claim to the credit of the resistance offered to the admission either of Missouri or of Texas. The Almighty was still fumbling at that time with John Quincy Adams, Josiah Quincy, Harrison Gray Otis, Daniel Webster, Charles Francis Adams, John G. Palfrey, Joshua R. Giddings, and like mediocrities. For inscrutable reasons, therefore, Mr. Thayer was created with one idea which he did not invent, viz., opposition to any more slave States, and this he shared also with those detestable abolitionists who were already on the scene with a plan of their own for attaining the same end. Why two parties and Mr. Thayer were allowed to agitate for one object, at one epoch, or why he was not commissioned to snuff out the abolitionists altogether, must ever remain a mystery.

Nor did Mr. Thayer invent the idea of going to Kansas from the North. Dr. Hale is witness, in his contemporary 'Kansas and Nebraska,' to "a rapid emigration" into those Territories, "particularly into Kansas, quite independent of the Emigrant Aid Companies." The Northwestern States naturally were first on hand with adventurers ready to "go in and stake out their locations." The removal of John Brown's sons, for example, from Ohio in October, 1854, the most important of all, was perfectly spontaneous, induced by the glowing accounts of Kansas given by Northern newspapers during the previous two years. The settlers who poured in from Indiana alone, first and last, exceeded in numbers those from New England and New York combined; and in consideration of those who were drawn also from Illinois and Iowa, Kansas has sometimes been called the State of the three I's. This emigration (as in the case of the Browns) had primarily nothing to do with the slavery question. A large part of it, like that from Indiana and Illinois, must have been pro-slavery in sentiment and political affiliations. Almost all the rest of it must have had what the abolitionists called the 36° 30′ conscience of the Free-Soilers, whose resistance to slavery was regulated by parallels of latitude.

It was no part of the divine purpose, we are authoritatively assured, to effect through Mr. Thayer the filling up of the Territory with abolitionists—*i. e.*, with fanatics who refused to make a truce with slavery anywhere, and were always in excellent spirits even when statesmen like Greeley and Seward and Sumner, who were "all for the Constitution and the Union, and hostile to anarchy in whatever form or under whatever disguises," were in the dumps. The New England and other pioneers sent out by the Massachusetts Emigrant Aid Company of Mr. Thayer's founding had to repeat no shibboleth, either abolition or free-soil. His original proposal was, indeed, to crowd Kansas "with free men—with men who hate slavery"; but he abandoned this little requirement as he did so many other features of his plan. He boasted to Horace Greeley that he had "not one Garrison abolitionist" among the Society's corporators (though the list embraced Samuel E. Sewall, one of Garrison's original and indispensable supporters and warm friend still), and he now rejoices in the fact that scarcely an abolitionist was to be found among the first 20,000 inhabitants of the Territory. The Treasurer of the Society, the one man who saved the whole scheme from abortion, Amos A. Lawrence, ranged, in Mr. Sumner's words, "with his extensive connections, by blood and marriage, on the side of that quietism which submits to all the tyranny of the Slave Power." In plain English, Mr. Lawrence voted for Fillmore—that is, for the signer of the Fugitive Slave Law—in 1856, and for Bell and Everett in 1860. He was, in Mr. Thayer's own words, "a 'Hunker Whig,'" and "as far removed from sympathy with radical abolitionists as any man in the Union."

In short, Mr. Thayer's idea was on a level with the mere white-man partisanship of Free-Soilers and Republicans and Hunker Whigs. The votes of two Free-State Conventions in Kansas to exclude all negroes from the future State had, and still have, Mr. Thayer's approval. "Of course," he says, "no abolitionist could have done this, neither could any Liberty-party man; hardly any Free-Soiler. *But it was policy at that time to vote as they did.*" All the

abolitionist opposition to Mr. Thayer and his Company—such as it was, and he has enormously magnified it and misrepresented it—was directed not against their bringing in free laborers to outvote slaveholders, but against their defective anti-slavery principle. Mr. Thayer advances not one jot of evidence that they discouraged his movement *per se*. They were not disposed to go into ecstasies over the erection of a nominally free State, with black laws and a ready disposition to surrender fugitive slaves. They did not believe that slavery was imperilled by this achievement. The abolitionists were not fools, and they knew a gain for freedom when they saw it. The editor of the *Liberator* publicly approved in May, 1854, of the first hint of organized effort to people Kansas from the North—a hint from New York, which Mr. Thayer's slovenly chronology prevents our identifying with his first meeting here, though we have no doubt of their identity. This fact (and no retraction can be adduced) stamps with silliness Mr. Thayer's argument to Greeley, just previously, that the abolitionists would be against the Company: "Their purpose is to destroy the Union, and they know very well that our plan does not tend towards that result. We may, therefore, safely count on their opposition, which you well know would be far less harmful to us than their support."

Mr. Thayer has ransacked, among other sources, the *Liberator's* "Refuge of Oppression" for pro-slavery abuse of the abolitionists, and has brought together much censure of a different kind, of which the most will be found cited or referred to or typically illustrated in the now finished Life of Garrison. A greater "historical" jumble it would be hard to find, and Mr. Thayer is not above garbling, by suppression and otherwise. One instance is worth pointing out as exemplifying his spirit towards the so-called "enemies" of his "crusade." On p. 224 of vol. ii. of the Life of Garrison is given textually a passage from the diary of John Quincy Adams in 1840, in which he laments that Emerson

"starts a new doctrine of Transcendentalism, declares all the old revelations superannuated and worn-out, and announces the approach of new revelations and prophecies. Garrison and the non-resistant abolitionists, Brownson and the Marat Democrats, phrenology and animal magnetism, all come in, furnishing each some plausible rascality as an ingredient for the bubbling cauldron of religion and politics."

Mr. Thayer renders this, on p. 97, "what John Quincy Adams called the plausible rascality of Garrison and the non-resistant abolitionists," where it is evident that "the plausible rascality of Emerson and the Transcendentalists" would have been just as truthful.

Mr. Thayer led no "crusade." He devised a gigantic commercial enterprise, with five millions of capital, to make a business of State-building in the West. He estimated that he could turn out a State every two years and get his money back. He saw 20,000 colonists in view to begin with. In fact, his Boston books never showed more than 3,000 in all, and the total outlay did not exceed $140,000. He lost his interest in the project when it ceased to be mercenary and was made eleemosynary, and at the end of two years he retired. He then engaged in a puerile effort to root out slavery in Virginia, by means of a free-labor settlement, whose organ, the Ceredo *Crescent*, in sympathy with the founder, declared the abolitionists "a hated set of fanatics, knaves, and fools." This, too, he believed was a two-years' job, and the transformation of the whole South but a matter of a few years. His last folly was to colonize, or, as he called it, to Americanize, Central America. His method was "as plain and simple as it can be. It is just to form a moneyed corporation which shall have $200,000 capital."

Against this unbalanced impresario's pretensions, his real merits can be quickly summed up. He found a voluntary stream of emigration rushing into Kansas; he swelled it to some extent, partly known and partly incalculable, for we will give him the benefit of all he claims for his wide lecturing, and for the Western emigrants picked up en route by the parties sent from New England. His scheme was favorable to speedy town-planting, and unquestionably hastened the settlement of the Territory and precipitated the irrepressible conflict. It did not supply an anti-slavery—*i. e.*, a slavery-hating—population; and had it not been for border-ruffian outrages, Northern sentiment towards slavery would have been very little affected by what went on in the Territory. The Republican party leaders had practically accepted Douglas's popular-sovereignty doctrine, and professed their readiness to stay beaten if outvoted, and not to bark back to the abrogated Missouri Compromise. Mr. Thayer's exuberance was of more value to the cause of freedom than all his men, grist-mills, and town-sites. His five million dollars and great show of machinery played on the ever lively imagination of the slave oligarchy, which associated him and the Emigrant Aid Company, as it regularly did the Republicans, with the disunion abolitionists. Hence a great impulse was given to the pro-slavery invasion of Kansas, and nobody knows what the result would have been if John Brown had not been encountered. The hero of Osawatomie and of Harper's Ferry was, in Mr. Thayer's mind and expression (adopting words questionably attributed to Henry Wilson), "a d——d old fool." Lincoln was only one of the "logical sequences" of the author.

"Will mortals never know each other's station
Without the herald?"

THE FABLES OF BIDPAI.

The Earliest English Version of the Fables of Bidpai, "The Morall Philosophie of Doni," by Sir Thomas North. Now again edited and induced by Joseph Jacobs. With full-page illustration by Edward Burne-Jones, A.R.A., frontispiece from a 16th century MS. of Firdusi, and facsimiles of woodcuts in the Italian Doni of 1532. London: D. Nutt. [Bibliothèque de Carabas.] 8vo, pp. lxxxii., 264.

THE enlightened publisher of the "Bibliothèque de Carabas" has craftily spread a net wide enough to catch almost every class of reader, and the lover of handsome books besides. Those who are fond of racy sixteenth-century English will find their account in the texts now republished for the first time from rare originals, and the student of folk-lore cannot afford to do without the elaborate introductions, each by a master in his field, which accompany the text. The first two volumes, containing Adlington's version of Cupid and Psyche with an introductory essay by Andrew Lang, and an anonymous version (1584) of Herodotus's Second Book, with essays also by Mr. Lang, have already been reviewed in these columns. The third and latest volume is no less interesting than the others and no less ably edited and prefaced.

In the recent fashion in literature for tracking to their supposed Oriental home fairy-tales and fables, the latter have presented fewer difficulties and offered a firmer basis for study. Folk-tales, being for the most part the outcome of oral tradition, cannot be traced from country to country with certainty, and their origin and diffusion are still vexed questions. Fables, on the other hand, belong largely to the domain of literature, and the wanderings of a large number can be followed with ease and certainty. There remains always, it is true, the question of ultimate origin, and, like all questions of origins, it is not easy to settle. Many fables and stories, as is well known, owe their preservation to the Oriental fondness for a peculiar form of collections, in which the fables and stories are set, as it were, in a framework of narrative which binds them together and prevents their dispersion. The history of all of these collections is interesting, of none more so than the one known as the 'Pantschatantra,' which, in numberless versions, has afforded entertainment and instruction to every country in Europe and the Orient for fifteen hundred years. No less than 112 different versions in 180 editions in 38 languages are known --a remarkable testimony to the extraordinary popularity of the work.

The migration of individual fables of this collection, and of the collection as a whole, has occupied the attention of many scholars of late years, and Benfey's introduction to his German translation is one of the great achievements of modern scholarship. It was this introduction which founded a new school in the study of popular tales, and led many Continental scholars to seek the home of all folk-tales and beast-fables in India, and to attribute their origin there to the influence of Buddhism. Benfey left later scholars little to do except to investigate new material, or evolve new theories out of the materials he had already collected. The most recent worker in this field, Mr. Jacobs, has not attempted to do again what Benfey did once for all. He has, however, given a very clear account of the wanderings of the 'Pantschatantra,' in its various forms, and a valuable table of the different versions and their relation to each other.

He has, moreover, contributed something new in the discovery of the curious fact that the illustrations in the older versions were apparently translated, so to speak, along with the text. In some of the manuscripts the figures are still found, in others space is left for them and a list of the intended illustrations inserted in the proper places. This is the case with the Hebrew version from which the first form of the Latin version was made. The latter has illustrations, and these (as well as in the first German and Spanish versions which have the same plates) are identical with the list in the Hebrew version. This traditional illustration of the fable ceases, Mr. Jacobs says, after the first edition of the Latin, German, and Spanish appeared in print, so that the plates of the Italian and English versions, some of which are reproduced in the work before us, cannot be brought into connection with India.

After dealing with the external history of the work, Mr. Jacobs investigates its contents, and makes some very sensible remarks on the attempt of some scholars to trace all folk-tales to India in general, and in particular to this collection. We do not think, however, that Mr. Jacobs's argument is a strong one, viz.: that because the Fables were translated not for their interest as stories, but for their moral interest, they could not have had such an influence on European folk-tales as has been attributed to them. On the contrary, this is one of the things that led to their diffusion among the people. Jacques de Vitry, a famous preacher of the thirteenth century, uses some fifty fables as illustrative stories in his sermons, and these were repeated by other

preachers *ad infinitum*. The Indian origin of fables has, like the theory of the Indian origin of folk-tales, received a blow from the fact that similar fables (and stories) are found in Egypt, Assyria, and Judæa before any connection with India can be proved. The claim that is set up for Africa is also impaired by the fact that an Indian influence can be shown in some cases. The most curious example of this, and one of interest to American readers, is that of the "Tar-Baby" in 'Uncle Remus.' Now, in one of the Jâtakas or Buddhist Birth-Stories occurs an episode so like that in 'Uncle Remus' that it is difficult to avoid assuming a causal connection between the two. Yet if that be so, as Mr. Jacobs says, the Jâtaka of the Demon of the Matted Hair must have passed from India to Africa with Hindu merchants or Arab slave-traders, must then have crossed Equatorial Africa before Livingstone or Stanley, taken ship in the hold of a slaver across the Atlantic, and found a home in the log-cabin of South Carolina. It seems clear, however, that India is the home of beast-fables with a moral attached, and that this tendency to moralization is the outcome of Buddhism.

The English version just reprinted had become excessively scarce, and will be welcomed by all who are fond of racy Elizabethan English. Sir Thomas North chose for his original the Italian version of Anton Francesco Doni, who translated from the Spanish 'Exemplario,' which was taken from the Latin of John of Capua ('Directorium Vite Humane'), which came from the Hebrew version of the Arabic 'Kalilah wa Dimna,' the source of which was the Pehlevi (or Old Persian) translation, now lost, of Barzoye, who used the Sanskrit original, also now lost. So much for the pedigree of North's version. He confined himself to the first part of Doni's 'Moral Filosofia' (corresponding to the first chapter of the Sanskrit original). North translated freely, as the translators of that day wisely did, so that their versions have a certain literary independence. Sometimes North's original puzzled him, and then he translated literally. An amusing example of this is in a passage which Mr. Jacobs has been unable to comprehend. On p. 178 North's version reads:

"Be of good cheare, brother, the Bull perswaded by me goth to Court to seeke out the King, if he see him sturre any thing at all; and the Lion also hath my Coccomber in his bodie, and in his heade the toyes and devises that I have tolde him, looking for the Bull with many an yll thought."

Evidently North did not here understand the Italian idioms, "mettere un cocomero in corpo, avere un cocomero in corpo," which Baretti explains as meaning "to have or put a flea in one's ear."

The editor deserves great praise for his admirable Introduction, valuable table of versions, and convenient analytical table of contents. The form of the book is the same as that of the others in the series, and the illustrations equally artistic. For the benefit of the bibliographer, it may be said that a few copies of the Introduction have been printed on large paper for private distribution.

We venture to append to this notice a not irrelevant communication, the last received by us from the late Rev. Prof. Samuel Beal, on "Indications of an Early Knowledge of the Buddhist Jâtakas, in Europe and Western Asia":

"When at Gibraltar and afterwards in South America," says Mr. Beal, "I was amused by a custom generally prevalent in mixed company, viz., after sneezing, of being saluted by the persons present with the expression, 'Viva, señor!' to which the reply was, 'Y usted, señor! viva!' This custom is singularly in agreement with the story found in the Gagga-Jâtaka (Fausböll, '10 Jâtakas,' ii. 16, 5), in which we read that a certain Yakkha, dwelling in a hall near Bârânasî, had got permission from Vessavana that, among the persons entering this hall, he who when one sneezes, says, "Mayest thou live!" and he who when one says, "Mayest thou live!" replies, "Mayest thou live also!" with the exception of such saying, "Mayest thou live!" and "Mayest thou also live!" he might eat all others. Now, the custom to which I have referred as still common in Spain and among the Spanish Americans is an exact reflex of the terms of this agreement of the Yakkha with Vessavana. There can be little doubt, I should think, that the one is derived from the other.

"In No. cxxxv. of the *Fortnightly Review* (new series) is an article written by the late Mr. Matthew Arnold on 'Equality.' He takes his text from Menander's 'Fragments' (or, rather, the sententious lines printed at the end of the 'Fragments'), among which is this line: "Ἰσότητα δ' αἱροῦ καὶ πλεονεξίαν φύγε," on which words Mr. Arnold founds his essay on 'Social Equality.' But we may be bold enough to think that Menander had no such point in view when he wrote the words quoted. To show this, we must remember that Menander flourished just at the time when Buddhist literature would be introduced into Western Asia (Syria and its neighborhood), and also into Alexandria, by the return of the generals who had accompanied Alexander the Great in his expedition to India. We are told that Ptolemy Lagi specially invited Menander and Philemon to his court at Alexandria to take part in the entertainments, principally of the New Comedy of which Menander was almost the originator. We are told also that this New Comedy speedily found its way to India through Barygaza to Ujjayini (*vide* Dr. Ernst Windisch, in his paper read before the Fifth International Oriental Congress at Berlin, 'Der griechische Einfluss im indischem Drama,' p. 15).

"It is probable, therefore, that Menander heard from the soldiers and camp-followers returned from India the stories which they had picked up and amused themselves with in camp. There is no such popular story in Buddhist folk-lore as the Jâtaka known as 'Vedabbha'—so popular, indeed, that it has found its way into Chaucer (as Mr. Francis has shown) as the 'Pardoner's Tale.' Now the moral of this tale is simply the one named by Mr. Matthew Arnold, 'Choose equality, flee greed.' And, as Mr. Arnold observes, the word πλεονεξία means 'wishing or trying for the bigger share,' in agreement with the striving to get the bigger share in the Jâtaka. I think, therefore, that the apothegm of Menander is simply the application of the moral of the Jâtaka in question: 'Be contented with an equal division of the wealth, avoid a desire to get a double portion or the whole of it.' It is probable that St. Paul, in his text, 'The love of money is the root of all evil,' had in view the refrain of the Jâtaka in question, 'Verily, covetousness is the root of destruction.' But Mr. Francis has already noticed this.

"There is another sententious line of Menander's to which Mr. Arnold refers in the essay named, that is, the familiar copy-book text, 'Evil communications corrupt good manners.' This also is quoted by St. Paul. The Church historian Socrates attributes it to Sophocles, but he is probably mistaken, as no such passage has been found in that poet's works. It is from the 'Thaïs' of Menander. This text is also the moral of a Buddhist Jâtaka. (Fausböll, '5, Jâtakas,' No. 1). In this story we read of the *amba* fruit being poisoned by the *nimba*, and the moral is this: 'By reason of its connection with the bad (nimbas), therefore, the amba has bitter fruit.' That is to say, the evil acquaintance or fellowship of the nimba with the amba destroyed (far *more* than 'good *manners*'), the 'good *qualities* of the amba. I venture to suggest that this Jâtaka also is the key both to the sententious line of Menander and also to the meaning of the text of St. Paul.

"I think research on these points would disclose still further analogies."

SOME HOLIDAY BOOKS.

The Wooing of Grandmother Grey. By Kate Tannatt Woods. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Little Maids. By F. Brundage. E. P. Dutton & Co. 8 sheets in portfolio.

Rab and His Friends. By John Brown, M.D. With illustrations by Hermann Simon and Edmund H. Garrett. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

In the "400" and Out. By C. Jay Taylor. Keppler & Schwarzmann.

Christmas Drawings for the Human Race. By Thomas Nast. New York: Harper & Bros.

'GRANDMOTHER GREY' is a rambling little poem of a hundred and twenty lines. In the old lady's own words, addressed to the only person who was likely to know all the facts, she recalls the incidents of the long-ago Christmas eve when she was asked to "name the day"; and three final stanzas tell of her easy death on the next New Year's night. The verses have no particular metre and no particular quality except simplicity. There is no false sentiment in them, and no pretence of being loftier poetry than they are. The illustrations, by Mr. Charles Copeland, are of a similar unpretending character, more like the work of twenty years ago than what one expects in a recent book of pictures. They have some artistic qualities, however. There is, for instance, a strong impression given of the wintry landscape, and the chilly interior of the old farm-house, with an open fire and candles in saucer candlesticks as the only warmth and light to be had. In a way, too, the other details of the surroundings of our couple are realized, although certainly there seems to be hesitation in the artist's mind whether he shall put his characters into the costume of sixty years since or in that of a later day. The book makes an oblong quarto, not disagreeable to see and to handle.

As to 'Little Maids,' there are seven of them in pretty colored pictures, each one having a handsome sheet of stiff paper all to herself. There are a Dutch little girl, an Italian with her tambourine, and a Japanese with her doll, a school-girl in some trouble over the third royal R, with dishevelled hair, swollen eyes, and tell-tale slate and pencil, and one with her day's trouble over, going to bed with a flat candlestick and a puppy. The set of seven is prefaced by verses made into a decorative page with blossoming branches of a fruit tree. It is a pretty gift portfolio, in a cover simulating veneer and tied with ribbon.

The latest edition of 'Rab and His Friends' is a pretty little thin quarto, with full-page woodcuts of some interest. Perhaps the half-real, half-exaggerated pathos of the story could not be much better expressed in art than by illustrations of about the character of these. The personages, human and canine, look as if they might be portraits; this, assuredly, is to be recorded as a merit.

Mr. Taylor's collection of pictures is one of the many compilations from *Puck* which have appeared during these recent years of the deserved prosperity of that journal. The American comic illustrated paper seems to have created itself in a permanent form at length, and *Puck*, with its excellent politics and political writing, its sagacious appeal to the better sense of all citizens, its unlimited supply of very good fun and fooling, and its unæsthetic appearance, is, perhaps, typical of the whole community. But why, when *Puck's* illustrations are so good, should they be so hideous? Why are the Jew broker, the rowdy Irishman, the up-country deacon, the watering-place exquisite, the girl in the bathing dress, her stout mamma, the negro wooer, President Harrison, and the

tramp, each and all made such impossible monsters of deformity? There is nothing foul in all this: delicate-minded people with an undeveloped sense of beauty will not be horrified by anything in *Puck;* but if any one has begun to see a difference between the ugly and the comely, "in nature or in book," he will be repelled, and will find it hard even to appreciate the satire or the fun conveyed in such unseemly designs. Mr. Taylor is not the only artist of *Puck* of whom this criticism is to be made, but this book of his gives enough instances of it to satisfy any one. Caricature, to be effective, need not resort to such ugliness as this.

The preface to 'Christmas Drawings' announces that this is the first collection of Mr. Nast's drawings that has been published. This seems strange, in view of the fact that Mr. Nast has been illustrating newspapers, periodicals, and the like for a generation. It is a pity that this first collection should be so slight a thing. There is none of his political-satire in it, nor any of that fun of his which used to brighten the dark days of Reconstruction and the dismal Greeley campaign of 1872. These pictures have no reason for being brought together but their common subject—Christmas—and there are some among them which have but little to do with even that well-worn common topic. They seem to be of all epochs, from war-time down. It is not possible to say much good of them, except that they may afford innocent amusement to very little children; though, as they tell no story, and appeal to no especial sympathies of childhood, even this usefulness would seem to be limited. The ungraceful rendering of childishness in face and figure, which has been always a characteristic of Mr. Nast's work, is very noticeable throughout the book.

Tenth Census of the United States. 1880. Vol. XIX. Social Statistics of Cities. Part II. Washington: Government Printing-Office.

THE most interesting, and perhaps the most valuable, feature of this volume, which has only recently appeared, is Mr. Geo. W. Cable's historical account of the city of New Orleans. It fills about eighty large quarto pages, nearly one-tenth of the total number in this part, although all the cities of the Southern and Western States are included. This is three times the space allotted to either Chicago, St. Louis, Baltimore, or Washington, and is, in fact, more than is given to either Boston, New York, or Philadelphia. It must be regarded as disproportionate, unless we consider the peculiarly interesting character of the history of New Orleans and the exceptional qualifications of Mr. Cable. So much money is wasted in public printing that it is perhaps a matter of congratulation that a brilliant and scholarly historical treatise should be published by the Government, although it is scarcely appropriate for a census report, and can be read by but few in its present form.

We cannot undertake to comment upon Mr. Cable's fascinating description of the French and Spanish régime in New Orleans, but must select as a more appropriate although less agreeable subject for notice his account of the hygienic history of that city. To the natural disadvantages of an exceptionally insalubrious site, the inhabitants added every conceivable inducement to disease that human perversity could originate. Sewers were unthought of; human bodies were buried, so to speak, above ground, in structures that soon fell to pieces; the streets were undrained, unpaved, and used as receptacles for all manner of offal; stagnant pools of water stood under houses and in vacant lots; quarantine was neglected, and houses were actually built in a district that had been used as a dumping-ground for human ordure. The salubrity of these conditions was believed in by the inhabitants with religious fervor. After a year during which there had been over 1,800 deaths from yellow fever, and when the death-rate for four years had been from 60 to 80 per 1,000, the Mayor officially announced that the city had been perfectly healthy and free from all epidemic. A noted physician declared in 1853 that the accumulation of filth in the yards and streets of the city was calculated to retard the formation of a yellow-fever atmosphere. Within two months 283 persons died of the fever in one day, and one-ninth of the population perished from this cause during that year. In three years, more than 35,000 died, in a population reduced by flight to 135,000. During the eighty-four years prior to 1880 (the fever first appearing in 1796), it is computed that 100,000 persons fell victims to this scourge within the city limits, while in the surrounding country the deaths were probably 50,000 to 75,000 more. The surviving population have not been altogether blind to the suggestion that in such a climate a total disregard of cleanliness is not prudent, and the sanitary condition of the city has materially improved, although it is very far from perfect. Still, the death-rate for 1880 is reported as only 25 per 1,000.

The case of Memphis, owing to the more recent date of its severest epidemic, is even more notorious. Without the excuse of New Orleans in its low situation, the people of Memphis had been wholly indifferent to the perils of their climate, in some cases digging their cesspools in their cellars, and, when they were full, covering them up and digging others beside them. Retribution came in 1878, after some unheeded warnings, and one-quarter of the population died. The punishment was sufficient, and, largely under the advice of Col. Waring, the editor of these volumes, an elaborate and scientific system of sewerage was introduced. The details of this system are of great interest, and its subsequent history should be full of instruction. These statistics seem to show that many of our smaller cities are running great risks by their neglect to insist upon proper sanitary observances, and it is probably only owing to more favorable climatic conditions that they have hitherto escaped severe visitation.

The statistics relating to drainage, municipal cleansing, water-supply, etc., would be of more value if the death-rates of the cities were added. But as it is, they are the most valuable of the statistics here given. A careful comparison shows that in certain respects the returns are so defective as to vitiate any inferences which we might attempt to draw from them. Thus we have what purport to be tables showing the manufactures of the different cities, but from many cities no returns are given, while in the case of others they are certainly questionable. If we compare the neighboring cities of Reading, Scranton, and Wilkesbarre, we learn that in Reading, out of a population of about 43,000, nearly 6,700 are "hands employed"; in Scranton, with 2,500 more inhabitants, the number is 3,550; while in Wilkesbarre, out of 23,340 people, only 645 are so occupied. It is almost incredible that any modern city should show so small a manufacturing population as this. Again, if we consider the rate of wages, we find suspicious variations. The highest average annual wages are paid in Galveston—$730. In Richmond they are $214, in New Orleans $391. In Petersburg they are $144, in Norfolk they are $422, in Baltimore $268. In New York they are $427, in Brooklyn $472. While these figures may be in most cases correct, yet we think they are clearly unsuitable for statistical use. Such as they are, however, they are probably more trustworthy than any figures of the kind that will be supplied by the coming census. The unfortunate selection of a superintendent whose chief recommendation consisted in his manipulation of statistics of wages in the interest of the protectionist ring, has discredited the work in advance of its appearance.

The figures giving the assessed value of property in the different cities are, of course, owing to the arbitrary rates of assessment, by themselves of little value. But by comparing the population with the amount of tax levied, we are able to determine the average amount paid by every inhabitant. What they get for their money is a question not so easy to answer. Hartford seems to have the unenviable pre-eminence of taxing its citizens more than any other city in the country. The rate there in 1880 was about $30 *per caput.* New York comes next with a rate of $23.50. The only other places that we have noted as having a rate above $20 are the two Portlands in Maine and Oregon, Boston, and San Francisco. Providence levied $15.50, New Haven $11.50, Albany and Brooklyn $11, Newark $13, Philadelphia $14, Pittsburgh the same, Wilmington $8, Baltimore $9, Charleston $13.75, New Orleans $11, Cincinnati $19, Cleveland $13, Chicago $12, St. Louis $10. The great mass of smaller towns tax their inhabitants from $7 to $10 apiece, and we are inclined to consider a rate higher than $10 as presumptive evidence of corrupt management, although, as in the case of Portland, Me., some great calamity may have caused exceptional expense. The railroad speculations of that city, however, are, perhaps, accountable for much of the burden.

We are unable to suggest any explanation for the extraordinary rate of taxation in Hartford. On the other hand, the rate in Brooklyn is, under the circumstances, surprisingly low. The lowest rate that we have noted prevailed in Scranton, being only about $4.75. The citizens of Pittsfield, Mass., seem to be most enviably situated, enjoying the advantages of their healthful climate, pure water, and beautiful surroundings at an expense for municipal taxes of only $5.50 per individual. We have made some attempt to compare the wages of the police with those prevailing in manufactures, with results indicating that policemen receive from two to three times as much as ordinary working people; but, owing to the uncertainty of the data, we can only conclude in a general way that municipal officers are likely to be paid higher than the market rates for labor.

The volumes are furnished with numerous maps of the various cities, indicating their growth, the location of sewers, etc. They would be of value to the makers of guide-books were it not for their belated appearance.

The Structure and Distribution of Coral Reefs. By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S. Third edition, with an appendix by Prof. T. G. Bonney, D.Sc., F.R.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

To the great body of readers in whose minds the late Charles Darwin stands as the central luminary of the modern doctrine of evolution, it is probably not known that the name of this illustrious investigator is associated with another theory which, in its application to the physics of the earth, is only less far-reaching than is that of evolution in the domain of bi-

ology. The broad conception that vast areas of the earth's surface are to-day, or have been quite recently, subsiding, while equal tracts were undergoing the process of elevation, was first established as a supposed law by the author of the 'Origin of Species,' and, for a period of thirty years or more, this law was almost unreservedly accepted as one of the canons of terrestrial dynamics. Mr. Darwin was not, it is true, the first to determine elevation or depression of the land-surface—this had been abundantly demonstrated by the time when, as he characteristically informs us in his autobiographical reminiscences, "incredibly dull" lectures on geology at Edinburgh forced on him the determination never "to read a book on geology, or in any way to study the science"; but it was he who first saw the significance of certain facts which permitted him to mark out the tracts of supposed existing weakness or solidity in the crust, and to demonstrate where, in a manner unseen, the forces of depression and elevation were operating on the most gigantic scale. It was his cogent reasoning, supplemented by that of an equally sagacious investigator in the same field of inquiry, Prof. James D. Dana, which forced geologists to recognize that the Central Pacific was one vast subsiding area, only here and there broken by points of stability or elevation; and it was the same reasoning which sought to demonstrate areas of elevation along the East African coast and in the region of the West Indian seas.

When, upwards of fifty years ago, Mr. Darwin first published his observations on the structure and distribution of coral reefs, and enunciated that brilliant generalization of coral-growth which, in the words of one of his critics, "took the scientific world by storm," but little definite was known regarding those remarkable formations which at close intervals dot the deeper parts of much of the tropical seas. Chamisso, and after him Quoy and Gaimard, Ehrenberg, and others, had already determined the narrow limits within which reef-building corals are found; but these investigators failed to correlate their observed facts with the special conditions—the abrupt and deep descent into the oceanic abyss—under which the greater number of the coral islands occur. To them and to their successors, up to the days of Mr. Darwin, the atolls of the Pacific were mere cappings to submerged mountain-peaks, a superstructure of organic origin formed within the shallow zone of 100 to 150 feet to which the coral animal is restricted. When Mr. Darwin announced to the scientific world his conclusion that these ocean-swept islands of coral-sand were in reality giant buttresses rising from the deep, and that their formation could only be accounted for on the hypothesis of continuous subsidence, it was considered that geological science had scored a triumph; while the early and independent confirmation of these views by one whose observations covered a broader field than that of his predecessor (and it might be added, than that of any of his successors), seemed to remove the hypothesis from the domain of doctrine to that of established fact.

The revulsion in the British geological mind which has been apparent during the last ten years or more, had its origin in the deep-sea researches of the *Challenger* expedition. The discovery of the endless deposit of organic sediment on the floor of the ocean, a certain knowledge of the existence of a considerable number of submerged mountain peaks rising to within a comparatively short distance of the oceanic surface, and a more intimate acquaintance with the habits of the coral-animal itself, have opened up possibilities in the way of the making of coral-structures which could scarcely have appealed to Mr. Darwin at the time of the publication of his important work. Murray, Guppy, Geikie, and Bourne, over whom has been thrown the mantle of that venerable "defender of the faith," the Duke of Argyll, have successively emancipated themselves from the assumed yoke of Darwinian authority, and proclaimed their allegiance to the standard of rebellion which had already, in a measure, been unfurled by Semper and Rein in Germany and by Agassiz in this country. The vigor with which the new school of coral-geologists, whose discordant views scarcely permit, as yet, of the formulation of a full substitute theory of coral growth, have attacked the time-honored demonstration which appears in all text-books of geology; and the bitterness with which some of their representatives have launched forth their arguments in the face of those who yet see fit to remain by the old standard, recall vividly the reception which greeted the appearance of the 'Origin of Species.' And, just as in the one case the burst of opposition was gradually silenced, or, rather, silenced itself, so in the present instance it seems not unlikely that the after-ebullition will be gradually quieted out of existence.

A full acceptance of the Darwinian hypothesis need not necessarily follow, however. The structure of coral-reefs and islands may be much more complex and embody many more details than geologists have commonly supposed, and thus it may defy immediate explanation. But it appears manifest from a study of the writings of the opposition school of geologists, that many of the more salient points urged by them against the Darwinian theory had already, with that foresight which seems never to have left the master, been anticipated and carefully weighed by Darwin himself; and it might also be added that most of the answers which have been volunteered to his critics had already been given by Darwin himself to his own criticisms. One cannot but regret that the makers of a controversy which threatens to be prolonged for some time to come should not have more carefully studied Mr. Darwin's work before lighting the torch of discord, and applied to their own observations the form of criticism to which the great English naturalist invariably subjected himself.

The publication of the present (third) edition of Mr. Darwin's work is opportune, and it is extremely fortunate that the preparation of supplemental matter has fallen into the hands of one whose mind is still open to conviction. We are, however, not sure that Prof. Bonney has made the best use of his opportunity. A rigorous adhesion to the principle of impartiality has prevented that incisive analysis and criticism of the works of the opposing schools (published since 1874, the year of publication of the second edition) which the interests of truth and science demand, and for the accomplishment of which Prof. Bonney is eminently fitted. It is true that the editor sums up his own conclusions, which are rather in favor of the Darwinian hypothesis than otherwise, but these are based more on broad principles, whether positive or negative, than on a close review of the subordinate facts which underlie or make up the groundwork of the rival theories. The book will, however, be found very useful by students, as it presents in a condensed form the special views and observations of recent investigators. We notice no reference to Semper's summaries published in his 'Animal Life' (1881), to Rice's 'Observations on the Geology of the Bermuda Islands' (1884), or to Walther's 'Korallenriffe der Sinaihalbinsel' (1888).

Antiquités Nationales. Description raisonnée du Musée de Saint-Germain-en-Laye. I. Époque des Alluvions et des Cavernes. Par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Firmin-Didot et Cie. 1889. 8vo, 322 pp.

When, four years ago, the eminent prehistoric archæologist Gabriel de Mortillet, upon the occasion of his election as deputy to the National Assembly from the Department of Seine-et-Oise, resigned, after eighteen years of most valuable service, the position of assistant keeper of the great national museum of St.-Germain (the prehistoric department of which he had organized), the question who should be appointed to succeed him became of very great importance to science. We think the present volume proves that the authorities made no mistake when they nominated to the vacant post Salomon Reinach, a young, thoroughly trained, classical archæologist, who possessed no special knowledge of prehistoric archæology. But the remarkable works already published by him, the 'Manuel de Philologie classique,' and the 'Traité d'Épigraphie grecque' (both of which have been highly commended in our pages), gave sufficient evidence of his competence to grapple with the bibliographical details of any subject; and this was the kind of service that was especially required by the new science. We have formed a very high opinion of the thoroughness, accuracy, and modesty with which his difficult task has been accomplished; and we find it quite up to the standard of his previous works.

The present portion deals only with the earliest epoch of prehistoric archæology (or the Quaternary Period)—that of the Palæolithic Man of the River-Drift and the Caverns—leaving for a subsequent volume the treatment of the Celtic and Gallo-Roman antiquities in the museum. The author gives first a brief historical sketch, illustrated by reproductions of several old engravings, of the picturesque Château of Saint-Germain, of which the earliest part dates from the time of St. Louis, but the main portion was built by Francis I. This, after undergoing thorough scientific restorations (now nearly completed), has been appropriated as the seat of the National Museum of France. Then some seventy-five pages are devoted to a condensed, systematic survey of all the numerous questions that have arisen bearing upon the facts and the hypotheses respecting the Quaternary epoch, each accompanied by ample bibliographical references. This sketch we confidently recommend to any student who desires to make a serious study of the prehistoric question. The principal part of the volume, however, is devoted to a systematic description of the contents of the thirty-five glass cases which fill the first hall, which goes by the name of "La Gaule avant les Métaux"—France in the Stone Age—and of which a view is given as the frontispiece. The plan is to furnish such a brief description, in detail, of the contents of each of the cases as would be given by a learned custodian to an intelligent and inquisitive visitor. This is supplemented, for the benefit of students at a distance, by a circumstantial and detailed account of all the objects, with full bibliographical notes about the works which have been written concerning them and the discussions to which they have given rise. The bibliographical work has been most thoroughly done, including—what is rare for a Frenchman—a notice of the contents of all the German periodical publications which deal with prehistoric subjects. A great many

of the objects are illustrated by engravings, 136 in number, nearly all made from the originals in the museum or from casts.

We regret that we cannot devote more space to pointing out the many valuable studies incidentally scattered through this useful volume. We must content ourselves with calling the particular attention of prehistoric students to the careful consideration of the subject of the characteristics of the artificial working of stone, on p. 87; to the sober survey of the vexed question of the Tertiary Man, pp. 96–101; the elaborate study upon Prehistoric Craniology, pp. 128–134; the clear and exhaustive account of the celebrated station of Solutré, and the many questions to which it has given rise, pp. 196–210; and finally to the careful and conservative discussion of the so-called *hiatus*, or the Transition from the Palæolithic to the Neolithic Age, pp. 267–282.

The Life-Work of the Author of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' By Florence Thayer Macray. Funk & Wagnalls. 1889.

THERE is something very noticeable in the appearance of this book on the eve of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s publication of a life of Mrs. Stowe by her son, which is promised at some time in November. Although the author does her best to fortify herself with the permission of Mrs. Stowe and her son to prepare a sketch of her life, it is evident from the tone of her preface that her book is or will be regarded as a breach of confidence or courtesy. It would appear that Mrs. Stowe and her son did not anticipate so full a biography as this, which is evidently, despite the disclaimer of the author, about as full as she could make it. It has various marks of haste: Such spellings as "Gerret Smith," "Thomas Carlisle," "degredation," and so on, suggest carelessness in proof-reading, if nothing worse. There is also evidence, as where Mrs. Stowe is spoken of as doing something "a few years before her death," of an intention at some time to postpone the publication of the work until after that event.

It would be a pity if any should confound this catch-penny book with the forthcoming Life, or conclude that this will answer, for it is hardly possible that a second treatment of the subject will be as poor as this. It is largely made up of paraphrases of Mrs. Stowe's books. A more ridiculous waste of type than a paraphrase of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' which is retold at considerable length, could hardly be conceived. The Byron-scandal episode is treated at great length, but with no helpful touch. The appearance of the book in general has been made as sensational as possible. It is a queer thing, on p. 71, the putting of Free-Soilers and Abolitionists together as equally under ban. Some of those classed as Abolitionists, including Sumner, are not deserving of the praise or blame that properly belongs to them. And what famous Abolitionist was there by the name of Baird? The frontispiece is Richmond's idealized portrait of Mrs. Stowe at the age of forty-one. It has little in keeping with her description of herself at that time—"as withered and dry as a pinch of snuff." The account of her London ovations is not such as Mrs. Stowe's modesty would have approved. It could hardly have been less delicately done.

Grammar of the Russian Language. By W. R. Morfill. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

IT is somewhat difficult to get at Mr. Morfill's exact point of view in his Grammar, either from inspection of the book itself or from a perusal of his preface. He calls it "rudimentary," and says that "it is a scientific treatment of the Russian language which is attempted." It must be conceded that a more condensed statement of the subject would be impossible, but one may be permitted to doubt whether condensation has not been obtained at the expense of utility. Few people are gifted with sufficiently robust memories to retain all the crabbed rules, declensions, verbal aspects, and other knotty points in mind until given an opportunity to apply them in practice upon the Reading Lessons. A teacher is an almost indispensable adjunct to Mr. Morfill's Grammar—and a teacher who is capable of inventing illustrative exercises. Such teachers are rare in any language, especially in Russian and outside of Russia. For a "rudimentary" text-book, a judicious mixture of this dry, concise method with the diffuse, precept-and-practice Ollendorffian plan would seem to be the most advantageous. Assuredly the learner will desire to have some one reconcile the statement that "the genitive and accusative masculine and neuter are the same in the case of animate things; in the plural this holds good for all genders," with the statement, two pages further on, that the accusative plural of *ry'ba* a fish, is *ryby'*, while the genitive plural is *ryb*. Mr. Morfill, in his own evident mastery of the language, does not perceive how repellingly difficult he has made his handy volume, in spite of his clearness of diction and thorough classification, for all those who are not already well acquainted with Russian, or who are born philologists. However, if the learner survive the test of the thorny preliminaries, he will find the Reading Lessons well chosen and very instructive.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, H. History of the United States of America during the First Administration of Thomas Jefferson. Vols. I., II. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $4.
Alden, W. L. The Loss of the Swansea. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Armstrong, W. Cleopatra's Daughter. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.25.
Aryan Sun-Myths: The Origin of Religion. Troy: Nims & Knight. $1.25.
Astor, W. W. Storza, a Story of Milan. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Baring-Gould, S. Grettir the Outlaw: A Story of Iceland. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Barnes, Mary M. Epithalamium, with drawings by Dora Wheeler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Brackett, J. R. The Negro in Maryland: A Study of the Institution of Slavery. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. Biblical History: A Lecture with an Appendix. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Brown, Dr. J. Rab and his Friends. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Bullen, A. H. Lyrics from the Dramatists of the Elizabethan Age. London: John C. Nimmo.
Burnham, Clara L. A Sane Lunatic. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Burnham, Clara L. Dearly Bought: A Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Burnham, Clara L. "No Gentleman." Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in the British Isles. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Chambers's Cyclopædia. New ed. Vol. IV. Dionysius to Friction. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Three Vassar Girls in Russia and Turkey. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Chaney, Rev. G. L. Belief. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Chatterbox, 1889. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Cheney, Emma, and Others. Feathers, Furs, and Fins; or, Stories of Animal Life for Children. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.50.
Church, Rev. A. J. To the Lions: A Tale of the Early Christians. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Coleridge, E. P. "The Argonautica" of Apollonius Rhodius in English Prose. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Corson, Prof. H. Introduction to the Study of Shakspere. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.40.
Dawson, Sir J. W. Handbook of Geology for Canadian Students. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Deane, Mary B. Three Little Maids. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Deland, Mrs. M. Florida Days. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.
Drew, B. Pens and Types; or, Hints and Helps to those who write, &c. New ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Du Chaillu, Paul B. The Viking Age. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $7.50.
Dumas, A. The Count of Monte Cristo. 4 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Eaton, A. W. Acadian Legends and Lyrics. White & Allen. $1.25.
Fausset, Rev. W. J. The Student's Cicero. From the German of Dr. Munk. London: Swann Sonnenschein & Co.
Fleetwood, J. J. Quicksands; or, His Double Life. The Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. IV. 1776. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Foote, Mary H. The Last Assembly Ball. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Freshfield, D. W., and Wharton, Capt. W. J. L. Hints to Travellers, Scientific and General. 6th ed. London: The Geographical Society.
Fuller, Marie L. The Aspen Shade. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.
Gilman, A. The Story of Boston: A Study of Independency. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Glover, Elizabeth. Talks about a Fine Art. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents.
Greene, H. Coal and the Coal Mines. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Harrison, J. T. The Creation and Physical Structure of the Earth. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Henty, G. A. With Lee in Virginia. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. By Pike and Dyke: A Tale of the Rise of the Dutch Republic. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. One of the 28th: A Tale of Waterloo. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. Tales of Daring and Danger. Scribner & Welford. 75 cents.
Hugo, Victor. Notre-Dame de Paris. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.
Jackson, G. Essentials of the Metric System. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. 50 cents.
Krafft-Ebing, Dr. R. von. An Experimental Study of Hypnotism. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Lauridsen, P. Vitus Bering, the Discoverer of Bering Strait. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.25.
Lectures before the Thompson Street Poker Club. White & Allen. $1.50.
Leroy Beaulieu, A. L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes. Tome III. La Religion. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Lil. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Lover, S. The Low-Back'd Car. Illustrated by Wm. Magrath. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.
Little, Elizabeth N. Off the Weather Bow on Life's Voyage. White & Allen. $1.50.
Little Ones' Annual. Stories and Poems for Little People. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Maclay, A. C. Mito Yashiki: A Tale of Old Japan. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Meade, L. T. Deb and the Duchess: A Story for Boys and Girls. White & Allen. $1.50.
Meredith, O. The Earl's Return. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
McCray, Mrs. F. T. The Life Work of the Author of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Moore, F. F. Highways and High Seas. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Morgan, F. Works of Walter Bagehot. 5 vols. Hartford: Travelers' Insurance Co. $5.
Morris, C. Half-Hours with the Best Humorous Authors. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.
Newell, C. M. The Wreck of the *Greyhound*. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.50.
Norway, G. The Loss of John Humble. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Ober, F. A. The Knickerbocker Club in Spain. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Porter, Admiral D. D. Arthur Merton: A Romance. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Preston, Margaret J. A Handful of Monographs. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $3.50.
Roe, E. P. Wie sich Jemand in seine Frau verliebt. Leipzig: P. Reclam.
Rowsell, Mary C. Thorndyke Manor: A Tale of Jacobite Times. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Russell, W. C. The Romance of Jenny Harlow, and Sketches of Maritime Life. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Salmonson, M. From the Marriage License Window. 2d ed. Chicago.
Sanders, D. Aus der Werkstatt eines Wörterbuchschreibers. Berlin: Hans Lüstenöder.
Schereschewsky, Mrs. S. I. J. Miss Ruby's Novel. Thomas Whitaker. 50 cents.
Sergeant Von; or, A Long Chase. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Smith, Mary P. W. Their Canoe Trip. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Spenser, E. The Shepheardes Calender. London: John C. Nimmo.
Taylor, H. The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution. Part I. The Making. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1889.

The Week.

NEXT to the burial of Mahone, the chief cause for national rejoicing over the results of the late elections is found in the defeat of Foraker in Ohio. Never before in any Northern State has the Republican party sunk so low in its standards as when it made this demagogue its leader in campaign after campaign. He was the first politician in American history to try to make an "issue" out of the fact that a lady declined to shake hands with him, and the incident furnished a good measure of the man. So far as his influence went, it was always thrown in favor of sectional strife, and it will be a great relief to the national ear to get rid of his loud and tiresome mouth.

We commend to those persons who are maintaining that there was no tariff-reform significance in these elections the careful perusal of the tariff planks of the Democratic platforms in New York, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Iowa. It was noted at the time they were adopted in convention that they marked a new departure in tariff platform utterances. They all went straight to the point, without shuffling or evasion of any kind, and without any recognition of the Republican humbugging assertion that the high tariff benefits the laboring man by keeping his wages high. Formerly a Democratic utterance on the tariff was supposed to be unsafe unless there was added, after the demand for reform, a saving clause, to the effect that, while favoring a reduction of duties, the party was at the same time determined that "just compensation should be afforded to labor." There is nothing of this kind to be found in any of the platforms quoted, and the party for the first time took its stand squarely and fearlessly upon ex-President Cleveland's ground that a high tariff was not a benefit to the workingmen. The result vindicates the wisdom of this course. As a further indication of the entrance of the tariff-reform issue in the canvass, we cite the following despatch which Mr. Frank Rice, the Democratic candidate for Secretary of State, in New York, sent to the *Times* from Canandaigua on the night of election: "Abbey is elected Assemblyman. He is the largest sheep-raiser in the county, and the author of a series of articles favoring free wool." This indicates not only that Mr. Rice, who led his ticket by several thousand votes, recognizes the presence of the tariff-reform issue, but that he is in thorough sympathy with it also.

The most significant revelation made by this year's elections is that which comes from the agricultural districts. It was demonstrated in last year's elections that the laboring men in the cities and towns had been educated on the tariff and were no longer to be deluded by high-tariff fallacies. Now the evidence comes from Ohio, Iowa, and Massachusetts that the farmers are beginning to see a similar light, and no more ominous news has reached Republican ears for many a day. The election in Ohio of a candidate for Governor who voted for free wool in the last Congress, and who made large gains in all the wool-growing districts of the State; the overthrow of the Republican party in Iowa, the election there of an avowed tariff-reform candidate for Governor, and the bare escape of Senator Allison from defeat after his discreditable tergiversations on the tariff question in the Senate; and the large increase of the Democratic vote in the rural districts of Massachusetts with a pronounced tariff-reformer as the Democratic candidate for Governor, are all signs not to be misunderstood. Whatever else they mean, they indicate unmistakably that the expenses of another national high-tariff campaign would be vastly greater than those of the last one were.

The St. Louis *Republic* gives a timely admonition to the Democratic party not to drop a good issue, in which they have made a notable gain and substantial progress, in order to take up one of doubtful present advantage; in other words, not to drop the tariff in order to take up free coinage of silver, as Mr. Bland and Senator Reagan advise. The warning comes very opportunely, since a free-coinage convention has been called to meet at St. Louis on the 26th of the present month. Up to this time there has been no great stir indicating public desire to take part in the Convention, although arrangements have been made with the railroads for reduced rates of fare. The indications are that the Convention will fall pretty flat. It certainly will if the Democrats in the West heed the advice of the *Republic*, than which nothing can be more prudent. The Democratic party now has an issue on which it is united, and is certainly gaining ground both East and West. To take up free coinage of silver would certainly divide the party and scatter its energies. Whatever may be the present inclinations and preferences of a majority of the voters, no man can tell what they might be at the end of a campaign in which that should be the principal issue. The demand for free coinage cannot possibly be as strong as was the demand for "paying the bonds in greenbacks" in 1868. Yet at the end of a thorough discussion of that issue, the Greenbackers were routed horse, foot, and dragoons, although they had the countenance and to some extent the assistance of such notable Republican Senators as Morton of Indiana and Sherman of Ohio. A few years later the same faction broke out again with what was known as the "Inflation Bill," and although they appeared to be carrying all before them, they were again routed. To follow Bland and Reagan in their silver craze would be for the Democratic party the dog's dropping his meat in the stream in order to seize the reflection of it.

The Democratic victory in Iowa assures the adoption of the Australian system in that State. The Democratic Convention came out strongly in favor of the reform, and Gov.-elect Boies made the issue prominent in his campaign speeches. The Republicans began their canvass by sneering at the proposition, but they were forced to change their tone, and, although they control the Legislature by a narrow majority, they will not dare to oppose the reform. It is noticeable that in all those States in the Legislatures of which ballot-reform bills were considered last winter, but failed to pass, the newspapers are practically unanimous in saying that the Massachusetts demonstration removes all objections to the new system, and that it must be adopted everywhere at the earliest possible moment. In Maine, where an excellent bill, closely modelled upon the Massachusetts law, was defeated through the influence of the Blaine Republican machine led by "Joe" Manley in person and by the Bangor *Whig*, sentiment is now so strong in favor of the reform that it is only a question of time when the State will have a law embodying it. Unfortunately, the Legislature does not meet next winter, there being only biennial sessions. In April next the Rhode Island law, which is a close copy of the Massachusetts statute, will have its first trial. This will be the third experiment of the system in an entire State, Montana having preceded Massachusetts, and there is no doubt that it will be equally successful. It seems to be a safe prediction that within five years every State in the Union will have the system in operation, and it is not improbable that a majority will have it in time for use in the next national election. Nine States already have it in practically the Massachusetts form, and two others, Connecticut and Michigan, in a modified and inferior form.

Mr. Henry George writes at much length in the *Standard* of last week in commendation of the new Ballot Law of Massachusetts, whose workings he went to Boston to witness. He says that the new system "more than fulfilled every anticipation of its friends, and falsified every prediction of its enemies"; that, after the election was over, "Republicans, Democrats, Prohibitionists, all alike rejoiced over an election from which the disgusting concomitants of the old system had as by magic disappeared," and that in the "worst districts of Boston, where previously the polls were surrounded by a jostling crowd of 'heelers,' 'workers,' 'ticket-peddlers' and 'floaters' waiting to see what votes might be worth, and where, a square off, the approaching voter was importuned to take this or that ticket, were as quiet as any other parts of similar streets." He calls attention to a fact which has occurred to other observers—that is, that the

elimination of noisy, jostling crowds from the polls "does away with the current objections to the voting of women."

The full returns of the Massachusetts election show very plainly the change which is coming over the constituencies of the two parties. The plurality of the Republican candidate for Governor is only 5,984, and he owes this solely to the support of the saloons in Boston. The secret of Republican advocacy of a State police system for the city of Boston was the fact that such a system, instead of taking the administration of the Police Department out of politics, enables the dominant party to make "deals" with the saloon-keepers, and extort their support of the Republican State ticket by threats to deprive them of their licenses through the control of the Police Commission, which is appointed by the Governor. Mr. Russell, the Democratic candidate for Governor, is an excellent type of the educated, progressive, and courageous young men who are coming to the front in that party since Mr. Cleveland made the party mean something; and all through the State, outside of Boston, he gained adherents among the independent voters. The same thing held true in those parts of Boston where such voters abound, the Republican plurality in Ward 11, for example, being cut down from 960 to 508. On the other hand, Brackett, the Republican candidate, whose course in the Legislature had made him a favorite with the liquor interest, made heavy gains in the "slums," cutting down the Democratic plurality in one ward from 2,285 to 1,572. It appears clear that he won on the saloon issue in Boston many more than the 3,000 votes which have been ordinarily cast for the Democratic candidate, and which, if so cast this year, would have elected him. In the long run, however, such a change will be the best thing in the world for the Democrats, as the alliance of the Republicans with the saloon interest in Boston will strengthen the tendency towards Democracy of the young voters throughout the State who incline that way, but have hitherto been deterred from joining the party by its ill-repute in the metropolis of the State. Russell winning support from the colleges, but beaten, has a far better outlook than Brackett successful through his gains in the "slums."

No feature of the Virginia result is more gratifying than the evidence that the more intelligent of the negroes in the Republican party joined the same class among the whites in voting against Mahone. The remarks of the *Valley Virginian* on this point should open the eyes of Republican editors at the North. "It is the common impression," says this journal, "that the colored voters of Virginia have a ring in their noses and are led by party bosses as sheep to the slaughter. The election on Tuesday dispelled this delusion. They demonstrated that they are citizens of the State, who feel an interest in the welfare of the commonwealth, and that they have the courage to break away from party association when the commonwealth is in peril. All over the State such characters are found, and it is to their grit and moral courage that much of the credit is due for the overwhelming defeat of Mahone. They deserve the thanks of all good citizens for the part they took in effecting the result." The Staunton newspaper thinks that the fact "gives a new and impressive phase to the colored man's relation to politics," and the Democratic committees in the "black-belt" counties are reported to be preparing barbecues for the negroes who voted with them against Mahone. It will be a great service rendered by this demagogue to his State and to the whole South if his candidacy proves to have been an agency in breaking down the color-line in politics, by showing that the negroes are becoming fit to exercise the suffrage.

Only county elections were held in Kansas on Tuesday week, but the result in two cases is of interest outside the State. A movement has already been started to abolish prohibition, by the election in 1890 of a Legislature which will resubmit the constitutional amendment adopted in 1880; and in the counties of which Leavenworth and Wichita are the seats the issue was made in the county elections this year. In each case the resubmission ticket swept the county. This shows that the same spirit of opposition to prohibition which contributed to the overthrow of the Republicans in Iowa is coming to be felt in Kansas. The difficulties in the way are greater, however, because prohibition is stronger in Kansas as a State more largely composed of farming towns and with fewer cities, and because the principle is there embodied in the Constitution, and cannot be so easily dislodged as when incorporated only in a statute which can be repealed by a majority of one in the Legislature. At the same time it requires only a majority of the popular vote to change the Constitution, and the resubmissionists are confident that this can be ultimately secured.

That favorite theory of the "practical politicians," that candidates for the Presidency and the Cabinet must be selected from certain States because, by so doing, the party will be strengthened therein, has received rude shocks from the elections of this year. Gen. Harrison was chosen from Indiana, and he took one of his Cabinet officers from the same State. But in the first election held there after his inauguration—that in Indianapolis—the majority was changed from Republican to Democratic. The Secretary of the Navy was taken from New York. In the first election in that State subsequent to the Secretary's installation the Republican majority of 14,373 was changed to a Democratic one of over 20,000. The Republican majority in the Postmaster-General's State was only saved from a serious reduction by Democratic dissensions in Philadelphia, which kept more than half the Democrats there away from the polls (the Republican vote of the State fell off 193,484); but the State of the political head of that Department—the man who has dealt out more pap than any other member of the Administration—went Democratic for the first time since the war. It is plain enough that the voters of this country are not to be cajoled into changing their politics simply by tickling their local pride. The strongest candidate at the polls is the ablest one; and the way for a President, after his election, to increase his party's strength is to call in as advisers the ablest members of his party at his command, wherever he can find them, and then to live up to his own promises, and see that his advisers and assistants do not make these promises a mockery.

According to the annual report of the Treasurer of the United States, "the amount of public moneys held by depository banks ran down during the past year from $58,712,511 to $47,259,714, *the result mainly of the voluntary acts of the banks in surrendering the deposits and withdrawing their bonds.*" So it appears that although, in the estimation of Mr. James G. Blaine last year, there was "not a shadow of foundation in law" for depositing the public money in national banks, and although such deposits were a gratuity to the banks, and although, according to the same authority, the money had been deposited with favorite banks, and particularly Eastern banks, to the prejudice of the West, yet after the Harrison Administration has been in office eight months the money is all there, just as Secretary Fairchild left it, except about $9,000,000 which these favored banks have voluntarily surrendered because it was not profitable for them to keep it. When the Plumed Knight made this brilliant dash at Secretary Fairchild, he said that he was not speaking at random, but that he knew what he was talking about—a much needed admonition after his discourse in New York about the comparative deposits in savings banks in Massachusetts and Great Britain. When Mr. Blaine takes his seat as President of the Pan-American Congress, let us hope that he may confine himself mainly to the evils of standing armies and the benefits of arbitration, for there is no knowing what confusion he might produce among the foreign delegates if he should wander into the field of commercial law and statistics.

In a work of rare merit entitled 'Recent Economic Changes,' just published by the Appletons, Mr. David A. Wells has presented some facts regarding the capabilities and resources of Great Britain and the United States respectively in the production of iron and steel, to which we invite serious attention. The point of the argument is, that, if the duty on pig-iron were wholly and at once repealed, Great Britain could not supply to this country any considerable amount without at once raising the price to our level, and this is proved conclusively. But it happens by an amazing coincidence that before Mr. Wells's chapter, written some months ago, was actually published, the increased demand for British iron for exportation to other countries than the United States has carried the price up to a point where American iron can be and now is shipped at a profit to Liverpool. This remarkable verification of a prediction of what would happen if *we* should become purchasers, to a considerable amount, of British iron, adds new interest to Mr. Wells's treatment of the subject.

The Fair Committee on Friday formally abandoned their attack on the Central Park, after fighting for it by all the means at their command for a period of nearly two months, in the teeth of steadily increasing public hostility, and agreed to provide themselves with a site outside its limits. They have covered their retreat by the announcement that they are able to give up the Park because they have at last been able to secure the grounds of the Bloomingdale Asylum on reasonable terms. The announcement was fortified by a characteristic confession from Mr. Flower, on behalf of the Committee on Sites, which we should have expected to elicit an indignant protest from any gentlemen who serve with him on that Committee, and indeed a request from them that, for the credit of the Fair and of the city, he should get out of their company. What he unblushingly avowed was, that the attempt to get the Park was a mere pretence, intended to act as a bugbear on the property-holders outside the Park so as to make them surrender their lots on low terms. In other words, he declared, not only without shame but apparently with a touch of pride, that the first step taken by our great commercial city to prepare for a memorial fête in honor of the discovery of America was a mock auctioneer's trick for knocking down the cost of the site. We believe, however, that the reason Mr. Flower gave for playing the part of a "Peter Funk" was untrue. We have excellent authority for saying that the governors of the Bloomingdale Asylum had not been approached by the Fair Committee on the subject of surrendering their grounds until within the last week; so that it seems probable that when Mr. Flower said he had been playing the mock auctioneer, and never meant to take the Park, he was making use of a mock auctioneer's most valuable privilege; that he really meant to take the Park all along if he could get it; and that he fell back on the Asylum grounds as a last resort. The Committee will now have an opportunity of finding out whether they can get the necessary money for a site outside, to which nobody has any objection if the property-owners have none; but every honorable man in the community must blush or groan, as his manner may be, over the fact that we are to face the civilized world on such an occasion through representatives of the Flower type.

The *Home Market Bulletin* of Boston is as silly as a moth about the candle in the matter of that Home Market Club quotation from the London *Times*—"The only time an Irishman is of any service to England is when he emigrates to the United States and joins the Democratic party and votes for free trade." When we ran this to earth in the campaign of 1888, we were referred to Congressman Butterworth, who, in answer to our inquiries, said he had used it in a speech in Congress, in which he gave it as something he had read "some years ago" in the London *Times*, but he could not give the date. A correspondent of ours in Cleveland, O., has since found it in the New York *Tribune* of July 5, 1852, quoted from the Albany *Evening Journal*, and attributed to the London *Times*, showing that it was started at a very early period. Now here comes the *Home Market Bulletin* and says Col. Dudley, who was Consul in Liverpool under Lincoln—that is, from 1861 to 1864—heard it then from a certain Mr. William Evans, M.P., at a dinner at the Reform Club. But the *Bulletin* will now see that if Evans, M.P., ever said this, he must have stolen it either from the New York *Tribune* or Albany *Evening Journal*, and the *Bulletin* must remember that when it was circulating it in 1888, it had not heard of Evans, M.P., or any other authority for it. We now caution the *Bulletin* again against taking up this lie and expounding or ornamenting it without consulting the New York *Tribune* of July 5, 1852.

That elaborate legal device, intended to suppress competition in the sugar trade, called the Sugar Refiners' Company, or Sugar Trust, received a telling blow on Thursday from the General Term of the Supreme Court affirming the decision of Judge Barrett, which dissolved one of the amalgamated corporations for violation of charter. We presume that greater pains were never taken in the preparation of legal instruments than were in the case of the Sugar Trust to make the consolidation iron-clad and bomb-proof in contemplation of law. We have held from the beginning that, however carefully the lawyers might have done their work, the holders of Trust certificates could have no standing in the courts to enforce the rights appertaining to shareholders of incorporated companies, and hence that they were putting their money into a blind pool. Judge Daniels's decision amply confirms this conclusion, and it goes much further. It takes from the Trust the element of continuity, or right of succession, and leaves it swinging in the air without rest or support of any kind. Nobody except the "head centre" can know from day to day where he stands. Nobody can get any information as a matter of right. The payment of dividends cannot be enforced even after they have been declared, because the certificates are not legal evidence of anything.

Of course an appeal will be taken, but in the meantime the position of certificate-holders other than the managers of the Trust is most unsatisfactory. They have no legal status. They must depend upon the honesty of the officers altogether. There is no reason to doubt their integrity or their responsibility, but it has been shown within a few days that the officers of the Cotton-Oil Trust, men of as fair name and of as good purposes as any in the street, lost more than half-a-million dollars speculating with the money of the Trust, in attempts to "sustain the market," and that they were able to make good out of their own pockets only one-half of the deficit. This should be a warning to the public to let what are called "industrial stocks" alone. The captains of this sort of industry may be all right now, but the chevaliers will get possession in due time. There is nothing that will answer in the place of publicity and legal remedies to protect investors in the long run.

The Court of Appeals has recently decided a case of which the circumstances are unprecedented in our jurisprudence. About the year 1880 one Francis Palmer, a farmer somewhat advanced in years, made a will by which he gave his estate, subject to certain charges, to his grandson, Elmer Palmer. This Elmer was a boy of about fourteen years of age, who seems to have been a favorite with his grandfather, living with him and being aware of the provisions of his will. Unfortunately for several of the parties interested, the elder Palmer incontinently proceeded, being a widower, to involve himself anew in the toils of matrimony, and, as might have been expected, began to talk of making another will. His affectionate grandson, who had by this time reached the age of sixteen years, was naturally distressed at this untoward change in his prospects, and effectively prevented all further vacillation by administering to his grandfather a dose of poison. A considerate jury found that this act was murder only in the second degree, and the ingenious Elmer was committed to the Elmira Reformatory, and in due time proceeded to claim his grandfather's estate under his will—somewhat after the manner of the parricide who besought the court for mercy on the ground that he was an orphan. The lower courts, being unable to find any authority for altering the will of the testator, felt compelled to grant this request. The majority of the Court of Appeals, however, were unable in this instance to extinguish the man in the lawyer, and held, in an opinion by Judge Earl which is a very pretty specimen of judge-made law, that it would not do to allow legatees to expedite the course of nature in this shocking fashion. They went further and declared that the same principles should govern inheritance.

It is true that cases of this kind are provided for in the civil law, but, as shown by Judge Gray in his dissenting opinion, this rather makes against the conclusion of the court; for the Roman law punishes such crimes by forfeiting the inheritance to the State, which shows that the testamentary disposition, or the law of inheritance, is permitted to operate, and that then the law steps in and deprives the legatee or heir of his property. This is not the law as settled by the Court of Appeals. They hold that the principle that no one shall be permitted to take advantage of his own wrong is sufficient to exclude those who murder testators or ancestors from claiming under their wills or as their heirs. They are not able to cite any case in support of this opinion except one from the United States Supreme Court, which certainly goes far to support their position. In that case a person procured insurance upon the life of another, and then murdered him. The Court held that to allow a recovery on the policy would be like allowing a man to get the insurance upon a building that he had set on fire. But in the latter case the terms of the policy preclude recovery, and the Supreme Court must sustain its position upon the maxims of equity alone,

PATRONAGE AND THE ELECTIONS.

THERE appears to be no question in any quarter that Tuesday week was a very bad day for the Republican party as well as for the Administration. Both were defeated in New York, Virginia, Ohio, and Iowa, and came very near being defeated in Massachusetts. What was the cause of this catastrophe? The President says, we observe, and his private secretary, Mr. Elijah Halford, confirms him, that it was all due to "local causes," working in an "off year." But as we, and we believe the public generally, understand the matter, the redistribution of offices in which the President and his Cabinet have been busily engaged during the past eight months, was intended to operate as a general preventive of disaster of this nature from any cause whatever. It was as a general insurance against *all* risks that Mr. Clarkson has made his 20,000 changes in the post-offices, and that the President and Mr. Windom have made all the custom-house and internal-revenue changes. When the President began to turn out the Democrats and put in "good Republicans" in their places, in Virginia to oblige Mahone, in Ohio to oblige Foraker, in New York to oblige Platt, and in Iowa to oblige Clarkson himself, he did not say, "I do this to secure the party against defeat on account of the tariff, or silver, or civil-service reform, or pensions, or other Federal questions, but I do not guarantee it against defeat from local causes in off years." He said: "I do this to produce harmony among Republicans of all shades, so that when election day comes they will act together so as to win victories at the polls; this, and not mutual edification, being the object for which parties exist. I would not undertake the immense labor of the last half-year in satisfying claims, for any object less important than this. I am making the party safe against all known risks."

What has happened must therefore spread dismay through the ranks of the faithful. They have relied on the proper distribution of the offices to put both the Mugwumps and the Democrats to shame and confusion. They have been so confident that they had hit on the right instrument for the purpose that they have thrown aside the civil-service promises of their platform with a grin over the simplicity of those who took them seriously. If they have no security against "local causes," they have no security at all, for who can tell the moment when a "local cause" may show itself? The President's plan is, in fact, like insuring a ship against loss from all causes except fire or collision. It is but just to President Harrison, however, to say that while he was still Senator, he recognized the fact that there was no safety for an administration in spoils. In that great speech of his, on the 26th of March, 1886, from which we have so often quoted, he said:

> "I freely say to my colleague that the Republican party would be stronger in Indiana if you put every Republican out of office; and I think the Democratic party would be weaker in precisely the same proportion that you put Democrats in."

This is exactly what has happened in Iowa. In no State has there ever been such a clearing out of post-offices as the wise and able Mr. Clarkson—an Iowa statesman and publicist—has made in Iowa. What with his precautions and the natural tendency of the Iowans to Republicanism, the Republican majority ought, on the spoils theory, to have been about 75,000. Instead of this, they have lost the State for the first time since the Republican party was founded in 1854! In Ohio, Foraker has had everything he could ask for in the shape of help from the patronage—with the result that we see. He has been sunk by collision, and now finds to his astonishment that his policy of insurance does not include this very serious and very common risk. Judge Thurman explained the whole matter when he said to a reporter that the Republican defeat was due "primarily" to the fact that "the national Administration and President Harrison have not been acceptable to the Republicans so far as the distribution of patronage is concerned, and the Ohio Republicans have not received what they consider their full share."

This, we admit, does give the President a loophole of escape from responsibility. He may very well ask how can he make the party safe in any State if he has not offices enough to go round. Give him offices enough, he may add, and he will carry any State in the country, but with the present limitations on the number of post-offices and custom-houses, how is he to keep the enemy from climbing over the breastworks?

We do not think it will be easy for Foraker or Mahone to answer these questions satisfactorily. The difficulty caused by the inadequate supply of offices has been present to the minds of Republican statesmen ever since the party was formed. They have all felt, ever since they came into possession of the Government, the force of Senator Sherman's remark the other day, that as there are usually seven candidates for every post-office, when you give it to one, you necessarily make enemies of the other six. This is true of all offices. Each satisfies one man, but exasperates and disappoints a good many. In earlier days, the spoils system was prevented from working the party ruin by the strong hold on the voters of the party ideas. Of late years the managers have relied less and less on ideas and more and more on the offices. Under President Harrison they have actually undertaken to face the country with offices alone, knowing well that their supply of these was short, but thinking that public praying and Sunday-school-teaching would carry them through. But voters must have ideas. They will not be satisfied with other men's getting post-offices. If they cannot have national ideas, they will get up local ones and vote on them without regard to national consequences. The high tariff is as great an electoral failure as the post-offices, and for precisely the same reason. It does not make profits enough to go round. The mass of the voters hear of the fine dividends of the manufacturers, but they never see the color of the money themselves. Other people's prosperity excites no man's enthusiasm. When you bring politics down to a purely cash basis, you have to make the dividends as well as the salaries reach the million, in order to produce really widespread satisfaction.

Every right-minded man must sympathize with the President and Mr. Clarkson. They have done the best they could with the means at their command. The results of eight months' patient, prayerful labor have vanished in a day. And Mr. Quay, who went down into Virginia with his "mailed hand," and Senator Hoar, who was watching through his spectacles for the "morning sun" in that quarter—what shall we say of them? May this affliction be blessed to them both! May they put their trust in better things than post-offices and custom-houses!

THE KENTUCKY TRAGEDY.

AN attempt to explain the double murder committed in Lexington, Ky., on Friday last, has been made in the *Evening Post* by an old resident in the State; but it does not hang together with the local view of it, which we copy from the *Kentucky Leader* of Saturday:

> "The sad affair which threw the entire city into a state of excitement Friday, is to be deplored more than pen can chronicle. The excitement lasted only for a brief period, and was succeeded by a feeling of sorrow so deep that it bordered on gloom. There seems to be no feeling of resentment in the matter towards either Col. Swope or Col. Goodloe. The general expression is one of sorrow. None has been heard to utter bitter words against either of the combatants. Anger has been overshadowed by the blacker clouds of grief, and if anybody has been disposed to take sides in the matter, they have been restrained by the awfulness of the situation. The citizens of Lexington appreciate full well the length and breadth and depth of the calamity that has fallen upon them by their home having been selected as the scene for such a terrible encounter. The families of both the principals in this, the deadliest duel ever fought within the confines of our fair city, have the unbounded sympathy of a whole community. Col. Swope had no wife or children; Col. Goodloe had. It is on them that the main burden of a weight of woe rests. They deserve the greatest sympathy, and it may be a consolation to them to know that a city and a nation share their sorrow."

The state of feeling described here is in a large degree what the state of feeling would be if Tom Platt had met Mr. Warner Miller in the Post-office, and they had brutally murdered each other. There would be "a feeling of sorrow bordering on gloom." There would be no resentment towards the two murderers, because it is hard to feel resentment towards dead men. There would be considerable disgust at having the city made the scene of such an encounter. Finally, there would be great sympathy for the unfortunate families of the deceased. But it is because such an occurrence would be received in this way that none of us thinks of it as a possibility. It is because no man among us raised by education or social position above the "toughs," gamblers, confidence men, or professional thieves and burglars, thinks for one moment of either killing or being killed as among even the remotest chances of his day, that such encounters as this never take place among us. What is puzzling and mysterious about this Kentucky horror is that the whole community, including the newspapers and the clergymen, receives the news of it just as it would be received in a

community where decent men never carry arms, or engage in street-fights, or think for one moment of murdering or being murdered by an enemy, or of settling disputes in any way except by litigation or arbitration. The post-mortem sentiments of Kentuckians are, in fact, in astounding contradiction to their ante-mortem sentiments. The entire city of Lexington, high and low, knew well that a murderous collision between Swope and Goodloe was among the probabilities of every day that dawned. They knew well, too, that every man in the city who cared for his good standing with his neighbors was expected, if he quarrelled with anybody about anything, to be in a state of readiness for a murderous armed conflict with him in the public highway. They knew that boys in that State are brought up to consider the taking of life in petty disputes to be often necessary, and possibly praiseworthy, and to consider armed self-protection, in disregard of police and courts, and churches, and colleges, manly and admirable, and not brutal, savage, and degrading.

Why, then, this "sorrow" and "gloom" and sensation and sympathy, and so forth, when the moral sentiment of the State is expressed in action? Could there be an odder caricature of Christian casuistry than the excuse for Swope put forth by Elder Strouse in his funeral sermon, that Swope was not carrying the pistol with which he shot Goodloe, for Goodloe, but "for a less honorable opponent, who he thought might take advantage of him when he was unarmed"? Is Kentucky in a much more advanced condition socially than Ireland in the fifteenth century, when one of the Fitzgeralds defended himself in good faith, before the Council, for having burned down the Cathedral of Cashel, by alleging that he thought the Archbishop, with whom he had had a "difficulty," was inside? And how will Goodloe's boys interpret his death in the light of Kentucky social morality? Will they think of it as meaning anything but "Be ready to take offence; be ready to avenge insults and settle quarrels by knifing and shooting; be ashamed to restrain your temper, to respect the law, to respect human life, to set an example of peaceableness and forbearance and legality to the ignorant and poor, and to raise the credit of your State among the civilized communities of the world"?

Goodloe was, we are informed by those who knew him well, a man of high character and considerable cultivation and refinement, who abhorred the Kentucky standard of "honor," and would have left the State and brought up his family under better social conditions if he could have afforded it. Other men of the same kind have, we know, done what he wished to do. What really civilized man wishes to live in a community where the most trifling dispute with a neighbor over a fence, over a stray hog, over a trespassing hen, over an unpleasant remark in a speech, over a boy's quarrel on a playground, may compel him to "go armed" and bid a last farewell to his family every time he leaves his house? But the more light Goodloe had on the detestable nature of his moral surroundings, the less excuse there is for the final act of his life. Nothing makes the Kentucky situation seem so hopeless as the readiness of those who loathe it to accept and live under its requirements, and die under them if necessary. This barbarism is retarding the growth of a State which is extraordinarily blessed in "sun and soil and station." It turns away emigration, and expatriates, or weeds out by assassination, men who have either force of character or strong convictions, as the Inquisition did for so long in Spain. Such men naturally seek regions where they can speak the thing they will, and lead the secure lives of modern gentlemen, and not the terror-haunted existence of African savages or mediæval Jews.

THE WAGER OF BATTLE.

For a long while Sir Jonah Barrington's recollections of the humors of Irish duelling and faction-fighting in his youth, at the close of the last century, were considered the best reading of their kind in English literature. But of late the Southerners have been far outdoing the Irish in this department of human comedy. There is a ferocity, too, in their fun which was not visible in that of the Irish, and can hardly be paralleled except in the stories of the feuds of the Scotch Highlanders before '45. In fact, there is, except Corsica, no country in the civilized world to-day which recalls so vividly as some parts of the South, do the state of society in which some of the Macgregors served up under a dish-cover, at a house where they were staying, the head of their hostess's brother, whom they had slain in a "difficulty" an hour previously.

We ask any one who thinks this an exaggerated or highly colored statement to read the account (say that which was printed in the Baltimore *Sun*) of a little encounter which occurred last Friday in a court-room at Brownsburg, Rockbridge County, West Virginia. Henry Miller was charged by Mrs. Dr. Z. J. Walker with having insulted her in the absence of her husband, Dr. Walker. On hearing of it the Doctor — presumably a man of education—determined to inflict capital punishment on him without any of the preliminaries which in other communities precede the execution of the death sentence. He accordingly started in pursuit of Miller with a shotgun, and Miller, hearing of this, and being naturally desirous of putting in a defence of some kind before his death, swore out a warrant and had the Doctor brought before a magistrate, with the view of doing what we at the North are constantly urging Southerners to do in like circumstances, namely, having his enemy bound over to keep the peace. The case was heard, and the Doctor was called on to give bail in $500 to keep the peace for twelve months. He refused, and was then gently threatened by the Justice, "an experienced official, and a man of high personal worth," with commitment to prison. Here the fun began.

The Doctor at this point asked, whether as a right or as a privilege we do not know, to be allowed first to eat his dinner and then to "slap Henry"—the prosecutor—"in the face." As Bishop Eastburn said of the demand of Dives on Lazarus for a cup of water—"to this apparently reasonable but, under the circumstances, wholly inadmissible request"—a negative answer was returned by the upright magistrate. He did not absolutely forbid the slapping anywhere, but said it could not be done "here," *i. e.*, in the court-room. Dr. Walker then rose with the air of a man who had a painful duty to perform, and drew his revolver. It was wrenched from him by a son of Miller, after which the scene in the court-room was said by the presiding justice to have become "indescribable." The parties and the audience rolled together in an undistinguishable mass, with much "shuffling of feet." Some were peace-makers, apparently, and some were fighting men, but all were firing pistols or wielding chairs or knives. Some fled from the room, but this, doubtless, only facilitated the work or play of the combatants. Dr. Walker got at Henry with a large dirk-knife, and managed to hold him firmly while he stabbed him effectively in various parts of his person, Henry being more than sixty years old and the Doctor about fifty-five. But the "Miller boys" were in the meantime operating on the Doctor's rear, with such effect that he had to let Henry alone and go and lie down on a bench. Here he was promptly attended by his wife with a bottle of smelling salts, and while engaged in this wifely office she was slain by the Miller fire, and dropped on the floor. The Doctor tumbled down beside her, and while he lay here the Miller boys finished him with repeated shots.

The best of the story has still to come. Justice Bosworth, who had previously been acting as a magistrate, now turned coroner, as, apparently, the local law allows, and held an inquest on the parties who had been pleading before him. The jury found that James Miller killed Mrs. Walker, that the Miller boys, collectively, killed Dr. Walker, and that Dr. Walker killed Henry Miller. Besides these casualties D. O. Miller is mortally wounded, T. A. Beaver has a knife wound in the neck, and John Dempsey a pistol wound in the side. What puzzles Justice Bosworth now is where all the pistols came from which were used in the fray, and he advances the theory, though with diffidence, that some were brought into the room after the fight began, that there were several varieties of them, and that one man had a "gun." No light is thrown, however, on the magistrate's own rôle during the mêlée. There must be many precedents regulating the conduct of a presiding justice when the parties to a cause or proceeding suspend their pleadings, and fall to with deadly weapons, but we are not acquainted with them. We surmise that in this case the magistrate hid under his bench until peace was restored, and then prepared to discharge his duties as coroner.

But battles in court-rooms are not, to our minds, so enjoyable as the fights in school-rooms and churches. There was a fight out-

side a church-door in Tennessee a year or two ago, when the wife of one of the combatants was prevented by the roll of the organ from hearing the pistol-shots, and a fight of school trustees in Mississippi about the same time, which seemed to us to unite the sacred and profane, the tragic and ridiculous, more pleasingly than any other we have heard of. In Mississippi the sight of the blood and hair of the trustees on the benches and walls, when the children came to school the next day, must have been a most impressive and improving experience for the little dears.

MEXICAN RETALIATION.

If it be true, as is reported, that the Government of Mexico intends to retaliate upon us, in a commercial sense, for Secretary Windom's obstruction of importations of silver-lead ore from that country, what a spectacle will greet the Pan-American Conference when it meets, a few days hence. The two countries, members of the Conference, lying nearest each other, the two having the greatest facilities for mutual trade, having lately spent millions upon millions of dollars in building railways, opening mines, and constructing smelting works for the explicit purpose of promoting such trade, are now taking steps, in the face and eyes of all the conferees, to undo the work in which they have spent so much time and money, and to bring to naught the very aims of the great international conference. Is not this a brave encouragement to the other members to try and bring about closer commercial relations when they see existing ones, that have been created by private enterprise, frustrated by the Governments of the two countries?

We hope that Mexico will retaliate to the fullest possible extent and by all the means in her power. It is of the first importance that all the interests in this country which depend in part upon Mexican trade should feel the thumb-screw that Secretary Windom has applied to the smelting industry, so that all may make common cause in removing the pressure. Señor Francisco Bulnes, who made a speech in the Mexican Congress the other day calling attention to Mr. Windom's "regulations," is an enlightened statesman and economist and an especial friend of the United States. He was never more a friend than when he denounced those regulations and advised that retaliatory steps be taken.

The regulations are as contrary to law (our law) as they are to common sense. One of them prescribes that the products of different Mexican mines shall not be mixed together before arriving at our custom-houses—as though *we* have any right to instruct foreigners what they shall or shall not do with their own property within their own territory. What we have the right to do, when a consignment of ore comes to the frontier, is to determine whether it is silver ore or lead ore in contemplation of our tariff. Mr. Windom himself has said that if it contains more silver value than lead value, it is silver ore, and hence duty free. If it has more of value in lead than in silver, it is subject to a tax of 1½ cent per pound. It is the duty of customs officers to decide which is the preponderating metal. They have means for reaching such decision and they rest under responsibilities well defined in the law. If the importers bring any ores in which the lead preponderates over the silver in value, they have the alternative to pay the duty or to take the ore back. In any case of attempted fraud the Government may confiscate the lot. All this is plain, legal, and customary, but the new device for restricting trade is extra-legal, and therefore illegal. A regulation forbidding English manufacturers to mix wool and worsted together in cloths, or brass and nickel in buttons, to be sent to this country, would be just as outré and indefensible.

The other regulation, which prescribes that the value of lead in Mexican ores shall be the value of lead in New York minus one cent per pound, has no foundation in law, but is opposed to express provisions of law, which assign to appraisers the duty of fixing the values of all imported merchandise and determining the methods of procedure in all cases of doubt, and require them, in such cases, to ascertain the value in the principal markets of the *exporting country*, not the importing country.

It is evident that Mr. Windom, being satisfied at an early stage of the game that he could not rule these ores to be lead ores, took steps to satisfy the carbonate mine-owners by indirection. But he has not satisfied them. Their newspapers in Montana are now demanding his removal from office because he did not "go the whole figure," and the Mexican press is holding language which ought to make every American blush for shame. Says the Mexican *Financier* of October 26:

> "If the Mexican delegates to the Pan-American Congress promptly withdrew, refusing to participate in a conference called under the pretence of increasing international trade, and assembling just at a time when the American Secretary of the Treasury was doing his best to restrict that trade, they would be justified by enlightened public opinion in this country."

And in another article the same paper says:

> "The Mexican delegates will, we hope, ask bluntly what the policy of President Harrison's Administration is to be regarding the importation of the characteristic staple products of this country; but, if that Administration has no satisfactory reply ready, it is difficult to see any reason why the Mexican delegates should remain to discuss the glittering generalities of international relations."

The Mexican *Financier* is perhaps not aware that the prime object of the Pan-American Conference on our part is to promote steamship subsidies rather than to promote trade. Lead ores from Mexico would not be carried by water in any case. It is of no importance to our Government whether the trade that goes by land is killed or not. Or, rather, viewing the case in the light of Secretary Windom's regulations, it *is* of importance to us that it should be obstructed in every possible way. If the Mexican delegates will "stand by" long enough to vote that the United States ought to pay some millions a year out of its abounding surplus to half-a-dozen steamship lines, they will render us the only service we expect from them. They can then return home with our blessing, and send their raw ores and coarse wools to John Bull to the end of the chapter, and we shall not mind a little retaliation, because all such things go to the further obstruction of trade.

SOUTH AMERICAN MAILS.

Some surprise has been expressed that the subsidy-hunters should have been at such pains to win Mr. Wanamaker over to their schemes, and should let out the fact that they have won him by complacently addressing him as "your good self." It is because they know that a subsidy must be disguised to pass Congress, and they count upon the Postmaster-General to recommend it under the mask of payment for carrying the mails. Shipping subsidies in the United States came to an end in 1875, when Congress, by an almost unanimous vote, rescinded the contracts with the Pacific Mail Company, on the ground of fraud. What the fraud was, the *Tribune* declared when it said: "It has been abundantly proved that a million dollars, more or less, has been spent by the Pacific Mail Company to get its subsidy passed." It will be good news to the lobbyists that it is proposed to bring back those good old times. What the subsidy really was, we leave the *Tribune* of those days to say—"a wanton theft of $500,000 under the plea of sustaining American commerce." It will be sad news to the taxpayers that it is proposed to renew the same sort of thieving under the same plea. But the attempt will now have to be made indirectly; the reek of the Pacific Mail scandal still attaches too unpleasantly to a subsidy pure and simple.

The steamship-owners assert that the Government does not pay them decently for carrying the mails. To be entirely fair, we will admit that one part of their complaint appears to be well grounded—their actual pay is made considerably less than their nominal pay, through their having to meet some incidental expenses which it would seem the Government ought to provide for—expenses of cartage and delivery, for example. If their only aim were to have some such slight injustices remedied, no one could object. But when they attempt to make out a case of peculiar hardship for themselves, assert that the Government asks them to perform a great public service for a pitiful return, and even go so far as to argue a studied discrimination against them in favor of foreign steamship lines, they forfeit all claim to sympathy or respect.

There is a discrimination, but it is in their favor. Postmaster-General Vilas concisely stated the fact when he told the complaining proprietors of the American lines that their rate of pay was three times as great as that "for carriage across the Atlantic," and also "three times as great as foreigners are willing to serve it [the Government] for" on the same routes as those followed by their vessels. That is to say, Mr. Vilas took advantage of section 4009 of the Revised Statutes, which allowed him to pay both sea and inland postage to the American lines, or to make their rate of pay $1.60 per pound for letter mail and 8 cents per pound for papers

and parcels. This, for letters, is at the rate of 320 times the freight charges of the Brazil line on coffee, and sixteen times for papers. Yet this is the rate spoken of as a "miserable pittance." To state the facts in another way: for the year ending June 30, 1887, the mails carried by American lines amounted to but one-tenth of all our foreign mails, but for performing that service they were paid one-fourth of the total outlay for carrying foreign mails. That is the sort of discrimination there is.

The real pinch comes, of course, from the fact that our South American mails are so small that even these high rates of pay for carrying them do not yield large returns. All the indignant declamation over the smallness of the sums paid for the carriage of those mails really only serves to call attention to the fact that our business relations with Spanish America are too slight to create a heavy correspondence. For example, the Brazil mail, about which such Homeric lamentations are made, was, in 1886, only one-hundredth part of the bulk of the mail to Great Britain, one-eighth of that to Austria, about the same as that to Portugal, and only about twice as great as our mail to Turkey. The mail to the Argentine Republic, in the same year, was actually less than the mail to Turkey. This famous Brazilian mail amounted, in the year named, to about 2,000 pounds of letters, less than 2,000,000 letters and postal cards, or about half as many as were mailed in the New York Post-office in six days of that same year.

But, say the subsidy-hunters, look at the enormous distances we travel. Is it right that a steamer running between Portland and Halifax should be paid as much as one plying between New York and Rio de Janeiro? That depends upon the amount of service. This is something almost impossible to get into the head of a man with subsidies before his eyes. He will not look upon the Post-office as a business department of the Government, seeking to serve the people, adjusting its pay to the service rendered, and watching the balance between outlay and income with the jealous eye of a responsible business man, but wants it to forget everything but "the flag" and "the encouragement of commerce." How would the argument from distance work when applied to our domestic postal service? Texas, with its vast area and difficult routes, had expended upon its mail service in 1888 $1,642,967, at the same time that New York, a State of far less extent and much greater ease of communication, drew from the Treasury $6,129,223. This is wholly inexplicable from the subsidy point of view, but is perfectly natural from the business point of view, since the mail receipts from Texas were but $1,010,414, while from New York they were $9,270,151.

The obvious truth that business creates mails, and not mails business, with its consequence—that the way to get large pay for carrying the mails is to get large mails to carry—is hard for the advocates of subsidies to learn, plainly as the statistics of trade and of correspondence teach it. We have before spoken of the increase of trade with South America during the past two years—a gain of 15 per cent. in our exports; in perfect keeping with this is the fact that the letter mail to Central and South America, in 1887, increased 19 per cent., and the pay for its carriage correspondingly. In that year there were 831 sailings of steamships for South America from the ports of New York, New Orleans, and San Francisco, as against 712 for the preceding year. Yet the subsidy men think that the way to get warmer weather is to carry the thermometer to the fire.

THE PANAMA CANAL.

PANAMA, October 19, 1889.

WHEN we sighted the coast of Colombia, the air was full of rain, and a mist spread over the waters, half obscuring the line of hills close by the sea, and wholly eclipsing the higher inland ranges toward the south, which later emerged from the shifting clouds. The day was sunless, but sultry. In sheltered nooks the perspiration flowed freely; exposed to the breeze, the drops still stood out upon the forehead, and clothes clung damp and clammy to the flesh, while a chill penetrated to one's very bones. At times a fresh breeze stirred the clouds, giving glimpses of serrated mountains clothed to their summits with dark-green tropical forests. Nowhere was to be seen the suggestion of any endeavor to compel nature to subserve the needs of man—no clearing, no house, no settlement save Porto Bello, tucked away in a narrow gorge, with a schooner or two at anchor in front of it. Even Porto Bello, with its history dating back to the days of early conquest, has no sign of a garden or of a banana grove—has apparently only a few adobe houses, the ruins of an ancient fort, and what may perhaps be a wharf. Late in the day the steamer came into the Bay of Limon, or Navy Bay, with the green-painted, red-roofed houses of Aspinwall set among cocoa-palms on one side, and a long low point of land looking like a tangled maze of cloud and jungle on the other. The mists and showers are now succeeded by a drenching flood of rain, followed by the sudden fall of a tropical night.

Our first morning on the Isthmus, and it is a fair type of those which succeeded, opened with a bright, clear sun shining over the tranquil bay, and illumining the silvery mists that rose from the marshes in the distance, but in less than a quarter of an hour the sky was dark and threatening, and then the floods descended again. With equal unexpected suddenness the sun reappeared with scorching heat; again the clouds closed over it, with more pelting showers, and so continued, like the alternating swing and return of a pendulum. The air was too dense to be inhaled with comfort. There was no exhilaration in it, and the rich fragrance of tropical plants made it still more oppressive. Inland it is just the same, for the marshland continues throughout the width of the Isthmus. Whole villages are built on piles—mere slender posts driven into the reeking swamp, with board walks similarly supported leading from house to house. Some of the towns are on higher ground, but even that would be deemed uninhabitable marshland in the United States. On the hills here and there are buildings erected by the Canal Company, in which the questions of drainage and ventilation have been well considered; but even these are not far removed from the pestilential morasses below, and the earth to the very crests of the little peaks is a saturated vegetable mould, which it were all but impossible to drain and render free from decaying matter.

In such a place as this, where the utmost caution can with difficulty protect an unacclimated stranger from disease, it would require an extraordinary faculty for the organization and management of workmen to achieve results at all commensurate with the force employed. The climate exercises a most deleterious moral effect. The imagination, haunted with the fear of speedy death, leads to reckless and fatal exposure, or to a numbing of the faculties, from apprehensions of danger, which serves only the more readily to ripen disease in the system. The influence of luxury-loving officials, enjoying almost the comforts of Paris in their exotic hotels, sallying forth on horseback in order to avoid fatigue and hardship, is not such as to inspire workmen with confidence of security in their own less protected habitations, or in the exposure incident to laboring in the rain and heat and miasmatic airs of a tropical climate. The problem of controlling and caring for men on such an enterprise, under such conditions, requires something of the military genius for its solution. The luxury, and the excessive precautionary measures which have attached to the average Frenchman in every detail of his life here, diminished the courage of the workmen to an extent which has been poorly appreciated. More of that plain living which gives physical endurance to the soldier in the field, more sober prudence and less tremulous caution on the part of officials, while it would not have proved a panacea for the troubles besetting the undertaking, would certainly have resulted in a larger cube excavated to date, and would have eliminated many pages from the history of trials, delays, and disasters at Panama.

There are many "ifs" on the lips of those interested, in reviewing the unfortunate past: *if* the negroes were less shiftless, *if* they would not carouse from sunset on Saturday to sunrise on Monday, *if* the Colombian Government did not license gambling houses, and a host more of like sort; but it may be answered that a work of the magnitude and importance of a trans-isthmian canal need not be conducted in the manner of building a railway in a populous and healthy region; its international character would give warrant for the strictest discipline of employees, for protection of them against imprudence and the snares of licensed dens for drink and gambling. A rigid system, assuming responsibility over the workmen even to the details of dress and diet, would have rendered it far easier to secure a full quota while yet there were resources within reach of the Company.

The thought of reviving the Panama Canal scheme, which has so evidently entered the list of historic failures, may seem laughable in the United States. We think confidently of our Nicaragua plan, and smile at the impetuous Frenchman, whom many fancy as dreaming that he could cut his way at random across lofty mountain ranges. There seems to be a misconception in the popular mind regarding the physical characteristics of the Isthmus. It is very mildly mountainous, quite as mildly so as the region of the Orange Mountains of New Jersey. Passing from coast to coast, it appears very low indeed, and the hills seem not aligned into ranges, but scattered promiscuously about, with deep gaps between. In fact, Culebra, the highest summit, barely exceeds 500 feet, and the canal cut at this section, to bring it down to sea level, would only be 269 feet in depth. Such excavations are not un-

paralleled. Nochistongo, in the valley of Mexico, was dug out to a depth of 700 feet some two centuries or more ago. It required thirty years to do it, to be sure, but then there were no steam drills, no dynamite, no excavators, no patent dump-cars to make it easy, in those days either. Other great cuts are on record, and a sane body of English engineers has recently threatened to dig a canal from the Mediterranean to the valley of the Jordan, and thence to the Red Sea, on the line of which would be a trench 728 feet from top to bottom! Still, Culebra has been the point from which contractors have recoiled in despair. There is much in the statement of M. Charles de Lesseps that this section "is a great and difficult work." One-fourth of the entire cube of the canal is included in this section, the exact figures being, according to the Company's estimate, 95,150,000 cubic metres for the original total, and 23,000,000 cubic metres for Culebra alone.

Of the total cube it is fair to say that nearly one-third has been excavated up to the present time. But a difficulty of equal magnitude, and more perplexing than Culebra, is met in the control of the Rio Chagres. Much has been heard of the proposed Gamboa dam, which is intended to restrain and regulate the waters of this stream, but it is worth while to state once more its dimensions, which, by the plans, were to be 115 feet in height and 980 feet wide at the base, and all this to be of solid masonry. It is almost impossible to estimate the cost of such a structure on the Isthmus of Panama, but it would be enormous. Then comes the question of its ability to serve its purpose, even with a storage capacity of over 250,000,000,000 gallons, in a country having an average annual rainfall of 119 inches! The Chagres crosses the line of the canal twenty-eight times in a distance of twenty-seven and one-third miles, which has necessitated an extensive system of "derivations," or artificial channels, connecting the natural channel from point to point on each side of the canal, so that when completed there would be two rivers instead of one, with the canal between them.

On the Pacific slope the same difficulty is met, but in a less degree, in the control of the Rio Grande. Two aqueducts are contemplated in the Company's plans for conveying the waters of this stream across the canal, in addition to a system of "derivations." The total length of these "derivations" would be forty miles, only six miles less than the total length of the main canal. The cross section, however, would be so much smaller that the estimated cube would only amount to 10,000,000 cubic metres, or about one-tenth that of the canal proper, of which nearly 5,000,000 cubic metres have already been excavated.

Work, as is well known, has entirely ceased, but the canal has not been abandoned to the mercy of the elements, as is commonly believed. Large forces of workmen are constantly engaged in painting the machinery and doing what is needful for its protection. A very large portion of the plant of the canal is well housed in sheds, where it is safe enough, and roofs have been erected over excavators and other heavy machinery where it stood when work was discontinued. So far as could be seen, careful attention has been paid to the preservation of the minor parts of all machinery, and the condition of the plant seems to be exceptionally good when the nature of the climate is considered. There are scrap heaps and side-tracks on which cars and worn-out engines are to be seen rusting out, and at least one dredge is going to decay within sight of the passing tourist; and these may have been the basis for many hasty and ill-founded generalizations to the effect that canal, plant, and all were speeding towards ruin and obliteration.

A commission of engineers will visit the Isthmus during the month of November, whose first duty will be to take an inventory of the entire equipment of the Company, and then to consider once more the threadbare question as to the practicability of completing the work for any reasonable sum of money. American engineers have the answer all ready for them, but the hopeful Frenchmen, the Colombian politicians, and the practical business men on the Isthmus reply, "The talk of the Americans about the ease of building the Nicaragua Canal, and the difficulties at Panama, is all part of a big game of bluff. When they find that they can buy out the concessions and plant of the Panama Canal Company for a mere song, they will transfer all their ardor and enthusiasm to the Isthmus." This is the current feeling on all sides here, and they point out a dozen obstacles at Nicaragua which are never heard of at home. The only circumstance lending any color of reason to the argument is the fact that, although only one-third of the work has been finished, enormous difficulties have been overcome by the installation of the plant, a benefit which any purchaser would find of immense value. At the same time the almost utter impossibility of controlling the unruly Chagres, and the excess of excavation over that to be done at Nicaragua, will of themselves preclude the revival of the Panama Canal.

The French have left their impress upon the Isthmus in other works than the canal. Art and comfort follow them from France and take root wherever they plant their banner. On approaching Aspinwall, the first object which attracts the eye is a fine statue in bronze of Columbus standing at the end of a concrete pier overlooking the Bay of Limon. On this pier are also the palaces of the high officials of the canal, surrounded by a thriving grove of young cocoa palms. The city of Panama has profited even more by the spirit of convenience inherent in the recent occupants. From being a filthy, ill-kept town it has been transformed into a clean and well-paved city. The old board side-walks, which used to rot and breed disease, have been replaced by concrete, and the road to the railway station, which was formerly one long puddle of mud, is now as firm and smooth a driveway as one could wish for. The yellow adobe houses still crowd close upon the street, with artistic balconies overhanging, so that none of the old-time quaintness has been lost. The plazas, the courtyards filled with bananas and palms, the gardens, with their luxuriant foliage and gorgeous flowers, are still there, only enhanced in beauty by the aid of the Chinese, who, swarming to the Isthmus, have brought with them from Cathay the skill in landscape gardening which the Colombian has not been slow to utilize for the adornment of his home. Panama has much of beauty in it, the land is high and not difficult to drain, and there is seldom a day when a breeze sweet and cool from the Pacific fails to sweep across the town. It is difficult to see why Panama should not be a comfortable and healthy place.

ENGLAND.—THE TORY SUCCESSION.

LONDON, October 25, 1889.

EACH of the two great historical English parties is at present in a predicament which, with some differences, presents some remarkable similarities. Each feels that it will before long have to select a new leader; each is sorely puzzled over the selection. The Liberals cannot hope to enjoy for many more years the chieftainship of Mr. Gladstone, for, great as is his physical and mental vigor, he must before long think of withdrawing to a less fatiguing life. It is generally supposed that when he retires, his place as head of the whole party will be offered to a much respected peer, Lord Spencer; but this will leave unsettled the more troublesome question of who should lead in the House of Commons. The Tories have similarly to provide not only for the contingency of Lord Salisbury's abdication—and his health is far from strong—but for the nearer difficulty of providing a successor to Mr. William H. Smith in the leadership of the House of Commons. As there is nobody among the Tories in the House of Lords sufficiently eminent or influential to become Prime Minister, the choice of a leader in the lower house will be virtually the choice of a head to the party as a whole, and a successor to Lord Salisbury in the place of First Minister of the Crown.

There are practically only two members of the present Tory Government who are "in the running," as it is expressed, for this great post —Mr. Goschen, the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. A. J. Balfour, the present Chief Secretary for Ireland. The other members of the Cabinet are, with two exceptions, too insignificant personally to be thought of as possible candidates. Lord George Hamilton, for instance, or Mr. Stanhope, or Mr. Chaplin has neither the debating power, nor the influence in the party at large, nor the weight of character that is needed to make a man available. Sir Michael H. Beach has a better position, and once did lead the House of Commons for two months; but his health is not strong, and he has latterly fallen into the background. Mr. Matthews, the Home Secretary, has plenty of talent, but has not won authority either in the House of Commons or in the country. Neither could be thought of for a moment as against the two whom I have first named. It is these two who have practically done all the debating work of the Government during the last three years, and have thereby established a strong claim to the confidence of the party. Mr. Smith, though nominally their chief, has neither the gifts nor the taste for oratorical conflicts, and has confined himself to attending to the order of business and making such almost formal motions as devolve on the leader of the House. Every one on both sides likes and respects his amiable and upright character, so that little of the fire of Opposition or Irish Nationalist invective has been directed against his head.

The choice between Mr. Goschen and Mr. Balfour is a difficult one, and not the less difficult because their qualifications are diverse in nature. The Chancellor of the Exchequer is much the older man, and has a range of knowledge and experience wide in proportion to his age. He is a thoroughly trained economist, specially conversant with financial questions, and well acquainted with the politics of Continental Europe. He has filled a great many different administrative posts: has been Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, President of the Local Government Board, First Lord of the Admiralty, Ambassador at Constantinople, all in the service of Liberal Governments. It is a great advantage to know something of the inner working of various departments, and to be acquainted with the character and capacity of the chiefs of the permanent civil service. His oratory, if not graceful or polished, is ready and forcible. Few speakers used to be listened to with more general and close attention; and, though both in matter and in style his

speeches have suffered from the more declamatory tone which he has lately adopted, he is unquestionably one of the four or five best debaters in the House, and probably, taken all round, the strongest man on the Conservative side. He has almost too much of that pugnacity which is a useful quality in a Parliamentary leader, for he often insists on attacking or refuting an opponent when it would be more prudent, and conduce much more to the progress of business, to display that indifference or contempt which was one of Mr. Disraeli's most effective weapons. However, if he is rather too prone to irritate his foes, he succeeds in inspiriting his friends; he is always ready to say the strong things which the Tory party relishes, and he is never at a loss for some sort of argument which, whether sound or not when examined in cold blood, will pass muster in debate.

The chief objection to him, besides his slightly too eager or pugnacious temper, is that he was not born a Tory, but is a recent recruit to the Government, and would indeed probably still prefer to describe himself as a Liberal-Unionist. No one can blame him for joining a Tory Administration, for he had been left in the rear by the rapid march of his former party even before the great home-rule schism broke out, and it was at the express request of Lord Hartington, the chief of the Liberal-Unionist section, that he placed his great talents at the disposal of Lord Salisbury. Still, the rank and file of the Tory party do not feel the same attachment to and the same kind of trust in a former opponent as they felt towards a politician bred up in their own beliefs and imbued with their own traditions. So far as one can judge from conversation with average Conservatives, whether in or out of Parliament, Mr. Goschen has not become to them one of themselves, and they do not yet appreciate at their due value his abilities and the services which he renders to their party. They do not quarrel with his opinions; in fact, he is more of a Conservative than many among them, having no liking for the so-called "Tory-Democratic programme," in which the future strength of the Tory party is generally supposed to lie. But identity of opinion has less influence on most men than identity of sympathies and habits. The career of Mr. Disraeli shows that an English party can subordinate its sympathies to its interests when the need arises; but it took Mr. Disraeli many years to acquire his unparalleled ascendancy over those who had at first regarded him as an unscrupulous Jewish adventurer. Mr. Goschen has no such prejudices to overcome. In position and character he is everything which Mr. Disraeli was not. But it is not yet three years since he joined the Tory Government, and he has within his own party, within that very Government, what Mr. Disraeli never had to contend against—a formidable House of Commons rival, whose rising brilliance distracts the attention of the crowd.

Mr. Arthur Balfour's qualifications and claims are less easily summed up, because his record has been much shorter than Mr. Goschen's. Both his possibilities and his limitations are more largely matter of conjecture, because he is seventeen years younger, and has filled comparatively few official posts. It may indeed be said that his administrative capacity is still unproved, for it has been tested only in the government of Ireland; and party spirit rages so fiercely round everything that proceeds from the Irish Government that even a dispassionate observer, standing outside the tempest of charges and countercharges which surrounds Mr. Balfour and his Nationalist foes, finds it hard to judge acts done under circumstances which are described quite differently by friends and foes, and whose results have (in many instances) not yet appeared. Such a dispassionate observer would, however, probably say that Mr. Balfour had not yet proved himself to possess any qualities beyond those of courage and consistency. Tact—the sort of tact which avoids difficulties—he would appear to want; while as to foresight, and that kind of judgment which refuses to employ stronger means than the desired end requires, it is too soon to pronounce an opinion, because the outcome of the policy of coercion has not yet appeared.

But though this might be the view of the detached observer, it is not the view of those in whose hands Mr. Balfour's fortune lies—the rank and file of the Tory party. They are full of admiration, an unbounded and undoubting admiration, not only for his courage and consistency, but also for his penetration, his skill, his mastery of the whole position. Their common praise for him is "the greatest Minister since Pitt." This admiration is strongest among those feminine politicians who have now become a powerful and effective battalion in the Conservative host. It prevails also among the working members of local Conservative organizations, and is perhaps least strong among the calculating middle-aged Parliamentarians, who fear that the "vigor" by which Mr. Balfour fascinates the vehement men of the party, may provoke a reaction among that large class which is waiting to judge his Irish policy by its results a year or two hence. In the House of Commons Mr. Balfour deserves less hesitating praise. He is not a great speaker, and gives little promise, so far, of becoming one. But he is rapidly becoming an excellent debater. He is quick, keen, ingenious, full of courage, willing to encounter Mr. Gladstone at the shortest notice, and even when he feels his position to be a weak one, he seldom betrays it by his manner. It used to be said of him that his mind was too scholastic, too purely dialectical—that he argued, so to speak, *in vacuo*, like one supporting an academical thesis rather than endeavoring to persuade ordinary men, many of them slow or obtuse. But his immersion in affairs, and the need thrown on him of dealing in every speech with facts, have gone far to cure this fault.

His weak points would seem rather to be an extreme scepticism, or rather "negativism," of mind, which makes him far more effective in demolishing an antagonist's case than in supporting his own, and an unnecessary bitterness of tone and scornful attitude towards his opponents, which tend to make the debates he joins in more fierce and more protracted than they might otherwise be. Like his uncle, Lord Salisbury, whom, consciously a little and unconsciously much more, he imitates, he has not only a great power of sarcasm, but a great pleasure in indulging it, and often aggravates the difficulties of his position by a sneer or a scoff which prudence would have suppressed. He is by no means malignant, and is much more socially popular in the world of London than Lord Salisbury has ever been; but his supercilious manner has roused against him an antagonism which is to some extent personal as well as political, and is to be regretted in the public interest as well as in his own. The ferocity of partisanship at this moment, particularly in the press, but largely also in the speeches of the more active politicians, exceeds anything England has known since the fall of Peel more than forty years ago, nor needs the addition of an element of personal rancor to a contest of principles and projects. The attacks of which he is the object have, however, done much to endear Mr. Balfour still further to his party. He is beyond doubt the most popular figure it contains, the person whose elevation to the leadership would excite most enthusiasm. He also seems marked out for it by a sort of hereditary right as the nephew of the present Prime Minister. Yet it would be difficult to put him over the head of Mr. Goschen, a far older as well as far more experienced man, whose fighting powers, though different, are certainly not inferior.

The usual British device in these cases is to remove the elder politician to the House of Lords. But the Tory party could not spare Mr. Goschen from the House of Commons. A calm-judging Tory, free from personal prepossession, and looking solely to the interests of the party, would, I think, advise that Mr. Goschen should succeed to the post of leader in the lower house. Whether this ought to carry with it the reversion to the office of First Minister is another question, and a more doubtful one. It is comparatively easy to induce a small body like the Conservative majority in Parliament, to rally around a leader who is himself a late recruit; it would be much harder to fill the party in the country with enthusiasm for one whom they have scarcely yet learned to think of as one of themselves, and who does not appeal to any of their favorite sentiments or prejudices.

It may be asked whether the choice is so limited as has been here represented. Are there not two other persons who might be elevated to the Tory leadership, both of them conspicuous politicians, both of approved parliamentary talents? One of these two would be glad enough to accept the post. Lord Randolph Churchill seems to have bitterly regretted the precipitancy with which he threw up his place in Lord Salisbury's Government in January, 1887. He would welcome any opportunity of recovering the position in his party which he then threw away. What the distant future may have in store for so restless and indeed irrepressible a spirit, no one will venture to predict, but for the present the path of ambition is closed to him. Lord Salisbury has no wish to bring him back into a Cabinet in which he was not a tranquillizing element. Mr. Balfour has got distinctly in front of him, and could not be expected to surrender an advantage gained by three sessions of severe and brilliant combats. Between Mr. Goschen and Lord R. Churchill, who claims to embody the programme of Tory democracy, there is so strong a reciprocal repulsion that it is hard to imagine them working harmoniously together. The only prospect at present open to the latter of retrieving his fortunes is that which would be offered by the return of Mr. Gladstone to power. Were the Tories again in opposition, Lord R. Churchill's talent for criticism and invective would find full employment, and his claim to share in the spoils when the Tory party was next victorious would be irresistible.

The other possible leader is of a different and far higher stamp. Lord Hartington would, but for the home-rule schism, be now the acknowledged second in command of the Liberal party, certain of the succession to Mr. Gladstone in its leadership and of the post of Prime Minister in any Liberal Government. To secure his services would be the best thing the Tory party could now aim at. Both Mr. Goschen and Mr. Balfour would willingly accept his leadership, while his social position and the influence of his character would make the Conservatives throughout the country glad to have him not only as a House of Commons

chief, but ultimately even as Prime Minister. He is, however, a Cavendish, the head of one of the oldest and greatest of the great Whig houses, and he shrinks from entering the ranks of his hereditary enemies, even though the differences of opinion which separate him from them have become comparatively slender. If circumstances compel a fusion between his forces and those of Lord Salisbury, he will endeavor to give the united party some new name rather than call himself a Tory. In the meantime he desires to maintain the position as an ally standing outside. He is quite right to do so as long as he can, but it may be doubted whether the approach of a general election will not force him, for the sake of his followers, to accept that closer union which he has hitherto resisted.

ÉMILE AUGIER.

PARIS, October 31, 1889.

THE death of Émile Augier has thrown a gloom over our literary world. He was liked as a man as much as he was admired as a dramatic writer. He was not often seen in society, and lived chiefly in his country house near Bougival; but he went from time to time to the Academy, to the French Theatre, which was, so to speak, his own house. One who has ever seen him there will not forget his tall stature, his frank look, his head which resembled the pictures of Francis I. Those who had the good fortune to speak to him will no more forget the original and clever turn of his mind, the good sense of his remarks—a good sense which never took a commonplace and trivial form, but which found amusing and witty expression.

Augier was essentially a Parisian, though he was born at Valence; he was sometimes called a *Gaulois*. He was the grandson of Pigault-Lebrun; his father was a bourgeois of Paris; all his family ties were in Paris. He was brought up in a Parisian college, and his father wished him to become a notary like himself. But young Augier preferred the muses to the law, and at the age of twenty-four he gave to the French Theatre a little piece in verse, called the "Ciguë," which immediately established his reputation. The "Ciguë" was a reaction against the Romantic movement. Romanticism had nearly gone out towards the latter part of the reign of Louis Philippe—a reign which has sometimes been called the reign of the bourgeoisie. The author of "Hernani," of "Ruy Blas," of the "Roi s'amuse" seemed asleep in his chair in the House of Peers. Romanticism in 1844 seemed a little out of fashion: the day of the unfortunate young Werther, of Chateaubriand's "René," of Alfred de Vigny's "Chatterton," of Alexandre Dumas's "Antony" ("Elle me résistait, je l'ai assassinée"), was past. "Antony" seemed almost comical. The heroes of the Romantic school were too diabolical; they constantly threatened society, they defied the law under a quiet, well-constituted government, which seemed in 1844 to be perfectly safe, at a moment when nobody could prophesy the Revolution of 1848 and all that followed it.

A new literary school was timidly founded by Ponsard, the author of "Lucrèce," and Augier became the first lieutenant of Ponsard. "Lucrèce" was the type of the new classic tragedy; the "Ciguë" was the type of the neo-Greek comedy. I confess to having but a moderate admiration for the now forgotten "Lucrèce." The versification of the "Ciguë" is pure and at times charming, but the play has no solidity. Young *Clinias*, the melancholic Athenian who is on the point of committing suicide, but who condescends to live for the young slave *Hippolyte*, finding a new reason for living in her beauty, is as false, in one sense, as the Greeks painted by Ingres in his "Stratonice." The "Ciguë" is a very clever imitation, but it is an imitation; it was written by Augier when he was still full of his college lessons. This return to antiquity was a protest against Romanticism. There was, fortunately, another way of protesting against it, a way better suited to the robust mind of Augier: the Romantics were always, so to speak, out of nature; the return to nature was the true method, which Augier finally adopted. He became an unconscious founder of the modern realistic school, which studies the true man and the true woman, which takes its dramas and its comedies from life itself.

I see the first symptoms of this change in the "Aventurière." Though this drama develops itself in a somewhat fantastic region and the costumes are antiquated, it is inspired by direct analysis; and, if you change the costumes and the names, the "Aventurière" might almost be called the "Demi-monde." It is a prophetic piece, realistic under a Romantic garb; and beneath the versification, which at times is splendid and almost Cornelian, you feel the movement of passion as rapid as if the play were entirely written in prose. I have, I admit, a great affection for the "Aventurière," perhaps because I have seen it so admirably played at the French Theatre by various actors and actresses.

Augier always liked to write in verse, though he adopted prose more and more frequently as he became more and more realistic. He had, however, not much of the poet in him; he was not lyrical. Let us compare, for instance, two passages from Augier and from Musset on the same subject, the development of feminine modesty—the transition, if you like, from the girl to the woman. In "Philiberte" *Julie* says to her sister:

"Tu n'étais qu'un enfant, ma sœur, jusqu'à ce jour;
Tu viens, en un instant, de faire un pas immense,
Car c'est à la pudeur que la femme commence,
Et la pudeur, au fond, n'est que le sentiment
Qu'un homme peut nous voir avec des yeux d'amant."

This is Augier; now, here is Musset:

"NINON.

"L'eau, la terre et les vents, tout s'emplit d'harmonies.
Un jeune rossignol chante au fond de mon cœur.
J'entends sous les roseaux murmures des génies.
Ai-je de nouveaux sens inconnus à ma sœur?

"NINETTE.

"Pourquoi ne puis-je voir sans plaisir et sans peine
Les baisers du zéphyr trembler sur la fontaine,
Et l'ombre des tilleuls passer sur mes bras nus?
Ma sœur est un enfant—et je ne le suis plus."

The moralist in Augier comes before the poet. He soon gave himself entirely to the study of modern society, "a society," he said in his reception speech at the French Academy, "quite new, without a past, without traditions, without a belief, and even without prejudices; a land of equality in which wealth has become the object of every ambition, since it is the only possible inequality." Augier struck a very happy vein when he dramatized the contrast between this new society and what remains of the old, in the "Gendre de M. Poirier." I think that the "Gendre de M. Poirier" and the "Demi-monde" of Alexandre Dumas, the son, are the most typical plays of our modern theatre. They will probably outlast any other in what the French Theatre calls the *répertoire*, that is to say, the collection of plays which can be played at all times, the substratum formed by Molière, Racine, Corneille, Marivaux, Beaumarchais, etc. It is no small glory to have added something to this *répertoire*.

If we had to write the history of what may be called the realistic theatre of our time, we should have to pay much attention to dates, and the dates would show that Émile Augier preceded Alexandre Dumas, the son. "Gabrielle" appeared in 1849, and the "Dame aux Camélias" in 1851, three years afterwards. And here it may be said that the "Dame aux Camélias" hardly belongs to realistic art: it is half romantic; it introduces on the stage the fallen woman, the venal woman, whom our ancestors always kept in the background, but she is poetized and surrounded by a halo—"Et l'amour m'a refait une virginité." She is even more poetical than the *Marion Delorme* of Hugo. The realistic work of Dumas only really begins in the "Demi-monde" in 1855. Here we see the guilty woman in her true aspect, and before the "Demi-monde" Augier had already written "Gabrielle," the "Gendre de M. Poirier," and "Ceinture dorée." But why should we make odious comparisons? Let us simply enjoy the happy rivalry which gave us at the same time, in the same years, the "Mariage d'Olympe" and the "Question d'argent," the "Lionnes pauvres," and the "Fils naturel," "Maître Guérin," and the "Ami des femmes." Augier and Dumas have both tried to bring moral lessons on the stage. Those of Dumas are perhaps the more original, those of Augier are on the whole sounder and better. Augier is less paradoxical, less sophistical; his morality, if the expression be allowable, is more moral.

The revolution which they wrought in the French stage was of some importance, as, ever since 1850, social questions have all been discussed under a dramatic form. The divorce law which was passed a few years ago, would perhaps never have been voted if the divorce question had not been many times treated by the modern dramatists. The social position of the natural son has been a favorite subject for Alexandre Dumas, and it is not impossible that the French legislation may some day be reformed on this very important question. I will return a moment to the "Gendre de M. Poirier," Augier's masterpiece. Nowhere has he shown more forcibly the contrast between the French bourgeois who has built up a great fortune by his work—full of ambition, also of envy—and the French nobleman, who does no work, and who thinks he is paying a great honor to the daughter of the bourgeois in marrying her: she brings him a fortune, he brings her a title. Got, who played so long the part of *M. Poirier*, resembled much, in that part, M. Dufaure, the great lawyer. He was truly inimitable. Every one in Paris knew whom M. Augier had in his eye when he painted the son-in-law of M. Poirier, so impudent to his father-in-law, so unjust and cruel to his wife. The drama which is represented in the "Gendre de M. Poirier" is seen constantly in our society. Though the French nobility lost its privileges a hundred years ago, there is still in its old names a prestige, a force of imagination, which has preserved all its power; the daughters of our rich, jealous, and proud middle class are often too ready to feel its influence. Augier was essentially a representative of the French bourgeoisie; he knew its virtues, he knew also its defects. He tried, in all his plays, to correct those defects and encourage those virtues. He was severe on the scandals of ill-acquired wealth, its vanities and follies.

During the Second Empire, at the time when the Italian war had endangered the temporal power of the Papacy, and when the struggle between clericalism and anti-clericalism was fierce in the press and in the Chambers, Augier took sides with the Liberals. He believed in the mysterious power of the Jesuits, and the true title of his piece "Le Fils de Giboyer"

might be "The Clericals." Augier never was a political partisan. He was, under the Empire, a friend of Prince Napoleon and Princess Mathilde, and would have been made a Senator if the Revolution of 1870 had not taken place. He was a Conservative, but his conservatism had not taken the form of any particular creed. He lived chiefly, one may say wholly, for his literary work.

Correspondence.

THE OHIO ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers in other States may not be aware of the full significance of the recent election in this State for the cause of tariff reform. For the first time in some years, the Democratic platform was squarely and unmistakably a tariff-reform document. Mr. Campbell, although he had been regarded heretofore as an adherent of Randall and his school, was wise enough to catch the trend of popular sentiment, and came out earnestly for the reform, expressly endorsing Cleveland's position again and again from the beginning to the end of the campaign. His election makes it safe to predict that the mythical high-tariff Democrat will never again serve as a bugbear to prevent an honest declaration of principles.

To any well-informed Ohio Democrat it is hard to conceive how the friends of Governor Hill can keep up the farce of treating him as a candidate for the Presidency. Whatever he might be able to do in New York, the Democracy of the West and South have no use for him. The general belief that his treachery defeated Cleveland, and the general lack of power to see anything worthy of respect in either his character or his ability, are certainly enough to convince any thinking person that his nomination would make defeat inevitable and overwhelming. The effort of the New York *Sun* to couple the interests of Hill and Campbell together, so far as it has any effect at all, will only result in injuring Campbell among the Democrats of his own State.

It may be safely asserted that Foraker's prestige as a leader is for ever gone; but there are rumors afloat which, if true, indicate that he will seek revenge upon certain prominent men of his party who are supposed to have been lukewarm in their support of him. As leader of a band of political "regulators," he would certainly make it interesting for his derelict party associates and profitable for the Democrats as well. The country is to be congratulated that his candidacy for the office of President is no longer a possibility.

The effect of our election on State affairs will not be so great as might be supposed. No doubt a hope that the Democrats would repeal the law against Sunday liquor-selling cost the Republicans a great many votes in Cincinnati, but the hope will hardly be realized. There are very few legislative constituencies outside of Cincinnati with which a vote for repeal would not injure a man's prospect for re-election. The registration law will probably remain about as it is, and a well-directed movement might result in the adoption of the Australian ballot system. W.

Ohio, November 8, 1889.

THE SUICIDE OF NEW ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The decline of prosperity in Vermont and New Hampshire is one of the most important and instructive financial phenomena of the time, and I refer to it because I believe there is a much more perfect explanation than that given by "G. W. A.," and one more consistent with remedy.

Ten years ago, more or less, Vermont passed a law requiring every inhabitant to make a sworn return of his personal property for taxation. In discussions of the subject I argued repeatedly and publicly that if they would enforce that law for twenty-five years, it would reduce Vermont to a desert—a prediction which there is certainly now no reason to withdraw. The reasoning is the simplest possible. All that gives land any value is the quick capital employed upon it. If land in Wall Street is worth $100 per square foot, and land within twenty miles of it is not worth one-tenth as many cents, it is simply because the former is the home of millions of quick capital, while the latter does not enjoy even the value of a man's labor. It follows that any process which brings quick capital to land adds to its value, while that which drives away quick capital decreases the value of land.

Now, land and buildings cannot be moved, but quick capital can be changed from one place to another with comparative ease. Great care must be taken, therefore, in the interest of the land, how quick capital is treated. Suppose, of two States or cities, one says: "Bring your quick capital here. We will never ask what you do with it, will never tax it, and never disturb you in any way." The other one says: "If you bring your capital here, you must make a sworn return of the amount every year for taxation, no matter in what form it may be invested." Is it not evident to which quick capital will go, and in which land will have the most, and most increasing, value, and be best able to pay its taxes?

All through New England the Puritan spirit of narrow but determined justice demands by law that quick capital shall pay its share of taxes, though the effect of bad law is in many parts tempered by bad administration. The climax is reached in Massachusetts, where the law itself faces both ways. It says that every person shall make a return of his personal property, or, failing to do so, shall be doomed by the assessors according to their best knowledge and belief, or, in other words, may pay just what the assessors choose to accept. As a result, there is a curious game of "puss in the corner" going on among the towns. In those where the assessors stand upon the letter of the law, quick capital winces and writhes and takes to flight as fast as it can. Where the assessors have even an instinctive idea of financial policy, quick capital nestles in comfort, and many a town gets nearly all its taxes paid by a few millionaires, whose gratitude for exemption from the inquisitorial methods of the city assessors finds further expression in gifts of town-halls, public libraries, etc.

"G. W. A." says that Vermont and New Hampshire are considering expedients for attracting population. One very simple and effective one lies ready at their hands. If they would guarantee personal property from taxation for the next twenty-five years, and raise all their revenue from land and buildings, they would find the farms taken up even more quickly than they are now abandoned, because the rush of quick capital into the State would create such a demand for farm produce at high prices.

G. B.

Boston, November 9, 1889.

THE JAPANESE CABINET AND LEGISLATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your Boston correspondent "G. B." is very ingenious in finding facts and illustrations in support of his contention that the members of the Cabinet should have seats in Congress, but he has missed one example. In the fifty-fourth article of the Japanese Constitution proper we read: "The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take seats and speak in either house." Again, under the part relating to the law of the houses of Parliament, this privilege is more specifically explained in a separate chapter. To set forth the matter as clearly as possible, allow me to quote from those articles, as follows:

"The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government shall be allowed at any time to speak. But the speech of no member shall be interrupted that they may do so."

"When a bill has been referred in either house to a committee, the Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may attend the meetings of the committee and there express their opinions."

"A committee in meeting may, through the President, demand explanations from the Delegates of the Government."

"The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government, except such as are members of the House, shall have no vote in the House."

The two remaining articles of that chapter, as they have no special connection with this subject, need not be quoted. But in the next chapter we find the following articles concerning the manner of putting all questions to the Government:

"When a member in either house desires to put a question to the Government, he shall be required to obtain the support of not less than thirty members. In putting such a question, the member proposing it shall draw up a concise memorandum and present it to the President, after he shall have signed it conjointly with the supporters."

"The President shall transmit the memorandum on questions to the Government. A Minister of State shall then either immediately answer the questions or fix the date for making such answer, and when he does not do so, he shall explicitly state his reasons therefor."

The Japanese Constitution was written after a careful consideration and comparison of the Constitutions of the United States and of many of the European countries. I am, therefore, pretty certain that "G. B." will be glad to know that the Japanese statesmen agree with him on that question of public policy.

Clem.

Mito, October 5, 1889.

JAPAN AND WORDSWORTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A contribution has come from Japan to the always live controversy, What is art? Mr. Theodore Wores, who exhibited in New York two winters ago a delightful collection of his paintings of Japan and the Japanese, has written a paper for the *Century* (September, 1889), "An American Artist in Japan," in which he lets us into the nature of Japanese art, takes us to a point where we can descry the aim of the artist and watch his methods, as has not been done by Gonse in his 'L'Art Japonais,' nor by Christopher Dresser in his book on the arts of Japan, nor the writers in Bing's periodical, *Le Japon Artistique*.

It is interesting, in reading the Japanese artists' own statement of their aim and their methods, to find that it runs side by side with the statement of his aims and methods made by that other passionate worshipper of nature and reality, but artist in another medium, Wordsworth. Mr. Wores showed to a company of Japanese artists, who were putting eager questions to him about European art and artists, some photographs of pictures which he had with him.

"They seemed much pleased, but were astonished when I told them the amount of time which had been required in painting them. They argued that a painter should spend a great deal of time in observing nature, and, when he had thought out his picture perfectly in his mind, and was saturated with his subject, should seize his brush and dash off the picture in a few hours or minutes. It is the spirit more than the substance that the Japanese artist strives to produce. He does not attempt slavishly to reproduce the textures of the trees, rocks, and other objects in a landscape. A mere suggestion of one of nature's moods that serves to bring back to the mind the impression that it received, is, in his opinion, quite enough, even if expressed in half a dozen strokes of the brush. The graceful and lifelike action of a bird suggested in a few strokes is far more commendable in his eyes than the most clever and realistic rendering of its feathery texture. . . .

"One of these artists afterwards visited me in my studio. Although he seemed pleased with much that he saw, he expressed himself as follows: 'I hardly know what to say, this is all so strange and new to me. However, it seems to me,' he added rather reluctantly, 'that your chief aim is to produce a real effect; in fact, you strive to make your picture look so real as to deceive one into the belief that he is looking at nature. Now, do you think that this can be accomplished with paint? Do you think you can succeed well enough to warrant your making that your chief aim?' And, indeed, I found it to be a very general belief among Japanese artists that European painters strive to produce realistic effects only, and never attempt to express noble thoughts or poetic ideas in their works.

"The Japanese artist depends but little on direct sketches from nature, and his work is almost entirely the result of observation. His mind seems to retain to a wonderful degree the impressions it receives of color and form. Subordinate details, however, are not so firmly impressed on his mind as to cause him to lose sight of the general effects of line and color. It is hardly conceivable to the European artist, who is accustomed to make most careful studies from nature, that realism can be carried so far with mental studies only."

Mr. Wores met a sculptor of works which were masterly in modelling and action and daring in subject, which, in Mr. Wores's opinion, would take rank in any exhibition of European sculpture, and this artist he found, to his astonishment, "worked entirely without models, and knew nothing of anatomy beyond what his observation of living figures had taught him."

One might fancy a transmigration of the soul of Wordsworth into these Japanese artist critics. In the same language does he describe his method in his own art to his friend Aubrey de Vere (I quote from Myers's 'Life of Wordsworth').

"He [Scott] took pains, Wordsworth said; he went out with his pencil and note-book and jotted down whatever struck him most—a river rippling over the sands, a ruined tower on a rock above it, a promontory and a mountain-ash waving its red berries. He went home and wove the whole into a poetical description. But nature does not permit an inventory to be made of her charms. He should have left his pencil and note-book at home, fixed his eye as he walked with a reverent attention on all that surrounded him, and taken all into a heart that could understand and enjoy. Then, after several days had passed by, he should have interrogated his memory as to the scene. He would have discovered that while much of what he had admired was preserved to him, much was also most wisely obliterated; that which remained—the picture surviving in his mind—would have presented the ideal and essential truth of the scene, and done so in a large part by discarding much which, though in itself striking, was not characteristic. In every scene many of the most brilliant details are but accidental; a true eye for nature does not note them, or at least does not dwell on them."

If the Japanese artist, as Mr. Wores has expressed it, is content with "a mere suggestion of one of nature's moods," he is an impressionist. This singleness and isolation of effect converts a scene into a subject, evaporates a landscape into an impression, spiritualizes a figure into a feeling. Such Japanese treatment also lends an individuality, a specialness, a spiritual and personal charm. Such a glimpse of a picture sounds a note struck from the spirit of the artist. To return to Wordsworth. In that essay which brought down in floods the rage and scorn of the *Edinburgh Review*—the preface to the second edition of the 'Lyrical Ballads'—"the feeling therein developed gives importance to the action and situation, and not the action and situation to the feeling." This isolation of effect, by the way, shows itself in the limits and shape of the pictures of this class. A mere slice often will be taken from nature by the Japanese artist.

In Japanese paintings how delicate often is the form, and yet how distinct and arresting is the savor, the feeling, which they exhale. Again Wordsworth is their ally and spokesman: "One being is elevated above another in proportion as he possesses the capability of being excited without the application of gross and violent stimulants."

The same fondness for a mere impression, the same singleness and isolation of effect, has made the little *uta* the favorite form of verse with the Japanese. It is a sort of madrigal, sonnet, Greek epigram. Listen to this *uta* written on the eve of a great battle by a general four hundred years ago. Most *utas* are still shorter:

"The mist of night has filled my tent, liquid is the autumn air,
Across the moon the wild geese darkly draw their flying line.
On this side the mountains of Yetchigo, on that the plains of Noto.
Now the pain I felt at absence from the one I love
Has stiller grown in the beauty of this night."

A. D. SAVAGE.

NEW YORK.

JOHN ADAMS AND BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the reference to the feud between John Adams and Franklin in your review of Mr. Morse's life of the latter in your issue of October 24, the following extract from a letter in my possession may be of interest. G. H. N.

BOSTON, November 2, 1889.

QUINCY, May 5, 1817.

DEAR SIR: The volume of Dr. Franklin's Correspondence has seemed to make *me* live over again my Life at Passy. I rejoice that the Publick are to have a compleat Edition of his Works, for there is scarce a scratch of his Pen that is not worth preserving.

I am pleased to see you at length appearing on the Stage of human Affairs. . . . As I am within a year or two of the age of Dr. Franklin at his Decease, I cannot expect to see the Sequel of his Works; but if ever you visit your native Country, a visit from you will greatly oblige your old and sincere

Friend, JOHN ADAMS.

WILLIAM TEMPLE FRANKLIN, Esqr.,
London.

QUESTIONABLE STATISTICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The fifth annual report of the Commission of Labor is devoted to the condition of workingwomen in large cities. Three hundred and forty-three industries and twenty-two cities were selected. The subject is of the highest importance, and some of the tables in this report are valuable, but not all. On page 325 I find a table showing the conjugal condition of the women engaged in those industries, in those cities, to be as follows: Single, 15,387; married, 745; widowed, 1,038; divorced, 43; separated, 214.

Now, can any one believe that there are no more than forty-three divorced women engaged in those industries in those cities? Charleston may have none, but I do not believe that Brooklyn, Buffalo, Indianapolis, and Richmond have no divorced women engaged in those industries. Boston has more than two, and New York more than three, to my personal knowledge, and I feel confident that the other cities mentioned have more than the number returned, viz.: Atlanta 3, Baltimore 1, Chicago 4, Cincinnati 3, Cleveland 1, Louisville 5, Newark 1, New Orleans 1, Philadelphia 4, Providence 4, St. Louis 5, St. Paul 1, San Francisco 4, Savannah 1.

These figures are so utterly at variance with common knowledge as to call for explanation. Can Commissioner Wright inform us how it happens that he has reported the number of divorced workingwomen in these cities so low as forty-three? A DOUBTER.

NEW YORK, November 4, 1889.

A PLEA FOR OCCULTISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Reading your article about Mr. F. Legge's 'The Origin of Modern Occultism,' I feel compelled to protest against this offhand way of judging people whom to know one would have to study carefully in their writings. It would take me too long to try a refutation of what is stated in your paper, but I want to mention that I have had the advantage of a German college education, where our teachers of religion were exceedingly impartial and analyzed the Christian religion from the point of view of logic. I have found, when comparing the writings of certain Occultists with those of dogmatic Christians, that there is infinitely more logic in the claims of the Occultists than in those of dogmatic Christianity. If any of your readers likes to decide the question, I can only advise him to study profoundly the writings of both, and compare for himself; but people who would go to such trouble are already so far above the great mass of the people that I am afraid only a few are ready to undertake such a task. It is so much easier for the average money-maker to buy a corner lot in heaven by subsidizing some church than it would be to use his own judgment and tackle intricate questions concerning the destiny of man. W.

MORE LIGHT ON MYCENÆ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Two new items in confirmation of the barbaric character of the interments at Mycenæ discovered by Schliemann have just come to me and are worth noting in the general connection. One is the relation of excavations made in the Ukraine by Dr. G. Ossowski of Cracow, in which excavations were found a vase with ornaments closely analogous to the animal decorations on some objects found by Schliemann at Mycenæ, but also in company with others of undoubted Greek provenance, and which Dr. Ossowski assigns to the art of Panticapæum and the interval from 650 to 480 B. C., the provenance being made most probable by coins of that town. I should have hardly put the Greek pottery so early as even 480, but it is possible. The gold buttons and ornaments for the robes of the dead also strikingly resemble the similar objects in the Mycenæ tombs, and the grave was that of a Scythian lady of rank, probably of a royal family. As in the Mycenæ tomb, the work is divided into two categories, one of Greek provenance, and the other, which is very nearly identical in the two interments, of barbaric authorship,

attributable only to the time and authors of the interment.

The other item is contained in a note which I transcribe fully, from an American dentist in Dresden:

DEAR SIR: In your interesting letter on the tomb of Pharis, published in the *Nation* of August 8, you speak of the skeleton which Schliemann supposed to be Agamemnon, as that of a woman, apparently a northern barbarian. Some years ago I saw the lower jaw of this skeleton, the only fragment of it which was at the time in the Schliemann collection in Athens, and at once declared it to be of Slavic type. As an American dentist, with a practice which has for many years extended over a great part of northern Europe, I have come to regard the race type as stamped upon the most enduring portion of the human frame, the jaws and teeth, as a record which, when we are able to read it aright, will have a considerable significance. Therefore I venture to send my recollection of the impression that lower jaw made upon my mind nine years ago. You are doubtless aware of the fact that abnormally large jaws are usually female. Believe me, etc., Yours very sincerely,

N. S. JENKINS.

Dr. Jenkins's communication loses none of its value from the mistake he is under, viz., that the jaw-bone he alludes to is that of the "Agamemnon," which skeleton is left at Mycenæ, and has never been in the Athens Museum that I know, and as I believe; for the determination of the Slavic type for either of the skeletons in the collective tomb has the same significance, as proving the barbaric origin of the race which made the interment. The proofs of this are now so many and so convergent that there can remain no doubt, in the mind of an unprejudiced archæologist, that the graves are those of invaders of the Morea in post-classic times, and of no Hellenic race.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, October 23, 1889.

BE DONE AND *HAVE DONE.*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A London newspaper that I have just been reading contains a letter, attributed to Mr. J. R. Lowell, in which, taking a correspondent to task for the phrase "I *would* be very much obliged for your autograph," or the like, that gentleman writes: "If you *would* be obliged, be obliged and be done with it." While, however, the desirableness of discriminating aright between *would* and *should* is not to be questioned, it is also not to be questioned that one who uses "*be* done with" for "*have* done with" still requires a lesson in idiom. "When the wine *is* done with, the dice are produced," is a perfectly correct form of speech which I find in Southey; but I apprehend that Mr. Lowell's expression, though extremely common in America, has no countenance from any English author who could be appealed to as critical.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 20, 1889.

Notes.

THE Appalachian Mountain Club of Boston will publish, with an eye to the holidays, 'Mountaineering in Colorado: the Peaks about Estes Park,' by Frederick H. Chapin. Mr. Chapin is a capital narrator of such experiences, and an agreeable text may be expected. The numerous illustrations will be from the author's own photographs, and will be partly in heliotype (full-page), and partly "process" of a high order. The volume, to judge from its sample sheets, will be very handsome. Orders should be sent to Mr. Albert S. Parsons, 9 Park Street, Boston.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. publish at once 'Betty Leicester,' a story for girls, by Miss Sarah O. Jewett; 'A Summer in a Cañon,' by Mrs. Wiggin; and 'Wilbur Fisk,' by Prof. George Prentice, the second volume in the series of "American Religious Leaders."

The Paris 'Salon of 1889,' which Estes & Lauriat will put on the American market, will be supplied with critical and descriptive text by George Lafenestre, Conservator of the Louvre, translated by Henry Bacon. One hundred photogravures of the prize paintings will adorn this edition, the first specially prepared for the Anglo-American public.

Thos. Whitaker has in progress 'New Points to Old Texts,' by the Rev. J. M. Whiton.

Worthington Co. announce for immediate publication 'Henriette; or, A Corsican Mother,' by François Coppée, translated by Edward Wakefield, with photogravure illustrations.

We misread the recent announcement, by the Messrs. Putnam, of their newly projected biographical series, "Heroes of the Nation." The enterprise is, commercially, wholly American, and of this house. Mr. Evelyn Abbott of Balliol College, Oxford, will have the general editorial supervision, and publication will be simultaneous in London and New York.

Longmans, Green & Co. are about to publish an authorized Life of Cardinal Lavigerie, which will fully exhibit his plan for suppressing the slave trade. This house has just issued a new edition of the late Walter Bagehot's essay upon a universal money. Strictly speaking, it is a plan for assimilating the English and American money as a step towards the final goal. It was first published in 1869, but the situation has not materially changed since then, and, considering the enormous difficulties in the way of any change, the book may be said to be as timely at one period as at another. Like all Bagehot's writings, it is interesting and suggestive, but the argument is after all not very cogent.

Gustav Freytag will publish shortly his reminiscences of the late Emperor Frederick of Germany—'Der Kronprinz und die Deutsche Kaiser-Krone' (Leipzig: Hirzel; New York: Westermann). The demand for copies has delayed the issue of the book, as several editions were required to meet it. Freytag says in his preface: "These pages would have been printed soon after Frederick's death had not other publications, and what followed in their wake, so disgusted the author as to prevent his taking part in the disgraceful excitement over the person of the dear departed." His success might have been greater then, but his ambition never was to write for the day. He was Frederick's literary adlatus during the French war, in correspondence with him, and his intimate friend always. Freytag's sketch of the good Prince, his wife, family, and surroundings, will do much to shape the final opinion of posterity. The advance sheets of the book were submitted to Emperor William and Bismarck, and approved by them.

J. B. Lippincott Co. follow up their 'Half-Hour Readings with the best Authors' by a collection, in four volumes, of 'Half Hours with the Best Humorous Authors,' edited by Charles Morris. The fact that the earlier series included many of the best humorous productions available, and that it has been thought advisable not to reproduce them in the later one, limits the choice of the editor to a narrower range, but the material has been found abundant. Two volumes are devoted to American and two to English writers. It is a pleasure to find that the earlier humorists of our country have not been slighted, but that the selection has historical proportion. A noticeable effort has been made, too, to include eminent names—Washington, Longfellow, Everett, etc.—whose gift of humor was of the slightest; on the other hand, anonymous authors are represented by the waifs and strays of literature. The English section is somewhat too much confined to the great writers of literature, every age since Chaucer being put under contribution. In the last volume the assigned limits are exceeded, and specimens from Le Sage, La Fontaine, Voltaire, Bürger, Béranger, Cervantes, Richter, Molière, and Rutebeuf are given in translation. The entire collection is thus various in interest, and affords light and agreeable reading, of which the greater part is of good literary quality.

Mr. Eugene Field is one of the humorists of America whose "comic copy" is the flotsam and jetsam of journalism. His sole incursion into literature hitherto has been a volume of collected sketches, called 'Culture's Garland,' which was sporadically clever, but unfailingly journalistic. Now he has put his best foot foremost, both in prose and verse, and makes a great stride, as any critical reader will say who may chance to acquire one of the two hundred and fifty copies (to which the edition is limited) of 'A Little Book of Western Verse' and 'A Little Book of Profitable Tales,' beautifully printed at the University Press, and issued only to the subscribers. Of the score of "Profitable Tales," quaint, humorous, and pathetic as they are for the most part, and individual (although plainly indebted to Grimm and Hoffmann for not a little of their movement and color) we need say nothing now. But the lovers of humorous verse, which rises at times to the rare level of humorous poetry, will regret that the edition of 'A Little Book of Western Verse' is limited. That the verse is Western is obvious enough, and a doubter has only to read the irreverent paraphrases of Horace to be convinced, to say nothing of the series of ballads telling the tale of "Casey's Table d'Hô e," of "Our Lady of the Mine," and of the "Conversazzhyony," which suggests Bret Harte. The two or three ballads of books are as good as anything which has been written in this vein.

Very welcome to lovers of books whose purses are not sufficiently stocked to allow them to pay the present enormous prices for rare originals, is a beautifully executed reproduction of that truly epochal volume, 'The Shepheardes Calender,' by Edmund Spenser. This is a photographic facsimile of the original edition of 1579. The type comes out clear and bright, and all the accessories of paper, binding, etc., are of the best of the book-making art. An introduction is furnished by H. Oskar Sommer, Ph.D., and is principally devoted to showing that the unknown "E. K." who wrote "the Glosse" accompanying the poem, and professed to be the poet's friend, was Spenser himself. This suggestion was made by students, among whom Craik was most prominent, years ago, but was generally rejected, not without ridicule. In 1888, however, Dr. Uhlemann, a German scholar, revived the hypothesis and supported it with strong argument. Dr. Sommer professes only to make English readers acquainted with this latest study, to the results of which he gives his own unqualified support. If the theory be accepted—and it seems to us entirely reasonable and satisfactory—the comment of "E. K." acquires greater interest and authority. The publisher of this facsimile, which is limited to 520 copies, is John C. Nimmo, London.

Mr. A. H. Bullen adds to his numerous Elizabethan publications 'Lyrics from the Dramatists of the Elizabethan Age' (London: Nimmo),

a companion volume to his 'Lyrics from Elizabethan Song-books.' He includes within his limits the dramatists of James I. and Charles I. The collection is as full as the present taste of the public will permit of, and is in this respect better than Bell's similar work. One is struck by the peculiar common lyrical quality of the writers, who were less uneven in their song than in their dramatic genius, and by the marked difference between this quality and that of the present century. We miss Greene and Lodge from the chorus, but their lyrics are reserved for a promised collection from the Elizabethan Romances, which will round out the series. We observe one unfortunate misprint in the Bacchic song from "Antony and Cleopatra"—"fats" for "vats." The edition is limited to 520 copies.

Among books of travel for the holidays, 'A Handful of Monographs, Continental and English,' by Margaret J. Preston (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), is pleasantly written, and takes the reader over familiar ground in Switzerland, Holland, and England. The literary tastes of the author give her journey somewhat the character of a pilgrimage, but the only special topic in her pages is a sympathetic account of the Paris Mission School. The chapters read like extracts from letters written for home reading, and we cannot characterize them better than by saying that they contain just such observations and familiarities as would usually be of interest to the traveller's own circle; and those of the public who join it in the reading, will find themselves quietly and agreeably entertained. A dozen or more photographic views, principally of Swiss and English scenes, interleave the pages, and the binding is bright and tasteful.

Mrs. Margaret Deland's 'Florida Days,' illustrated by Louis K. Harlow (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is a similar volume, but the text is confined very closely to "impressions," usually of an artistic or poetical character. The light and atmosphere, the gray or golden sea, the leaning palm, the romance of the old buildings and their history, Ponce de Leon, Drake, the river with lilies and turtles—these are the scenes and persons and things sentimentally reflected in the text; and they are illustrated by a large number of sketches and views of all shapes and sizes, some of them in colors, in such a way as to make the pictorial character of the book equal to its literary pretensions. It is printed and bound "luxuriously."

The Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured have determined to supply the public with their little 'Handbook,' at the nominal price of twenty-five cents, through the American News Company. Its wide circulation is much to be desired.

The volume of the *Century Magazine* which closed last month (May-October) is knit by closest bonds to its predecessors, yet has a general diversity of contents which it is hard to particularize. The making of the three books—on Siberia and the Exile System, by George Kennan; on the Italian Old Masters, by W. J. Stillman and T. Cole; and the Life of Lincoln, by Messrs. Hay and Nicolay—goes on; and there is the usual wealth of illustrations, including among the portraits a late one of Tennyson.

"The Queen's Navy," "Ancient and Modern Artillery," "Modern Harbor Defences," "Routine of the Republic"—these titles would not suggest a magazine for children, but we take them from the new volumes (one "volume" in two parts) of *St. Nicholas*. In style, as well as in substance, they hardly differ at all from articles on similar subjects for adults, and the same may be said of "Seeing the Real Mikado," "Ten Weeks in Japan," "The White Pasha," "A Youth of Ancient Rome," etc. This fact most impresses us as we turn over these handsome pages. The demand for writing at once edifying and truly adapted to the young must, we can hardly doubt, far outstrip the supply. Mr. Harris's "Daddy Jake" is one of the features of this volume, and there is a most exemplary little story, of a two-headed turtle, which well deserved to go on record in *Nature*.

Prof. William James gives an account, in *Mind* for October, of the proceedings of the Paris Congress of Physiological Psychology. The subjects discussed were the muscular sense, heredity, hypnotism, a project for an international census of hallucinations, and the abnormal association of sensations of different kinds. A permanent committee of organization was formed, the United States being represented by Prof. James.

Prof. Max Müller, on being invited to inaugurate the lectureship on Natural Religion established by Lord Gifford at the University of Glasgow (see the *Nation*, No. 1147), had no trouble in preparing a course of twenty lectures on the "Science of Religion," nor in giving them to his publisher immediately after their delivery. Undaunted by the circumstance that it would seem impossible for even Max Müller himself not to have been convinced by his reviewers of the flimsiness of his reasoning in the 'Science of Thought,' he proceeds to attack a still more difficult subject with perfect courage. "But," says his reviewer in *Mind*, "the lectures as a whole must have been good to hear. Profusion of personal reminiscence, dear always to mixed audience, swiftest kaleidoscopic turning of subject, not less dear—nobody has the art of these like Prof. Müller."

The New York *Independent* of November 7 contains a very remarkable communication from Prof. G. F. Wright, author of 'The Ice Age in North America,' relating the pumping up from an artesian well at Nampa, Idaho, of a small china-doll-like image of a girl, made of pumice, from a depth of 300 feet. The surface soil counted for one-fifth of this, some twenty feet of lava rock followed, then 200 feet of quicksand and clay, and finally vegetable soil and sand rock, representing an old lake-bed of the Snake River. The corresponding sub-lava deposits of California consist of the gold-bearing gravel in which the disputed Calaveras skull was found; and these in Idaho are pronounced by Mr. S. F. Emmons of the United States Geological Survey to be "probably of far greater antiquity than any deposits in which human implements have hitherto been discovered." The *Independent* gives a cut of the image at scale.

We cannot commend the projectors of "*Nature:* A Weekly Journal for the Gentleman Sportsman and Naturalist," for having chosen a name identified with the foremost scientific weekly in the world. The contributing editors of the American paper are Messrs. William C. Harris, Charles Hallock, Charles Barker Bradford, and J. Charles Davis; and these names perhaps say all that is needful in regard to the character of the enterprise. The size is quarto. A feature of the first number is some disinterested "Reports" from sportsmen who don't mind telling where game is plenty and they are bagging it.

The October number of the *Harvard University Bulletin* contains very careful "Notes" on the MS. volume of Shelley's poems in the Harvard Library, by Mr. George E. Woodberry, who thinks it possible that Mrs. Shelley used this volume for her edition of the 'Posthumous Poems,' 1824, and that it tends to establish her fidelity to Shelley's text. A facsimile of "To a Sky-Lark" is appended, from page 100. These Notes make also No. 35 of the *Bibliographical Contributions* edited by Mr. Justin Winsor.

We have received the reports of Treasurer and Secretary of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women (Harvard Annex) for the tenth year. The number of students has grown in the decade from 25 to 115, the teachers from 23 to 41. Occupation in teaching may be said to be assured to graduates. The alumnæ have a fair prospect of success in endeavoring to found one or more scholarships. The increase of the endowment fund is most urgent, and the quarters of the Annex are far too contracted. English, Latin, History, Greek, German, Philosophy, French, Physics, Mathematics, and Elementary Botany have respectively attracted the greater number of students, in this order.

The American Economic Association, Baltimore, of which Prof. Richard T. Ely is Secretary, has received $500 for two prizes for the best essay on Women Wage-Earners. Any one is eligible to compete, but the American aspect of the subject should be chiefly regarded. The essay must not exceed 25,000 words, must be type-written, and be sent anonymously to the Secretary before November 1, 1890.

—Dr. Hiram Corson's 'Introduction to the Study of Shakespeare' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) is a collection of brief studies upon the verse and prose and their distinctive use in the plays, chronology, the authority of the First Folio, etc., together with special commentaries upon seven or eight of the plays and some notes on the text. The volume is full of interest, and is marked by its individuality; but its great merit is that it exemplifies the spirit in which Shakspere should be studied, standing squarely against the metaphysical and moralizing perversion, the superfine intellectuality, and all the misconception of dramatic art and confusion of æsthetic standards which came upon us from Germany, and have been fostered by the transcendental and latter-day critics of this country. As an 'Introduction' this little book sets the student upon right lines at once, and frees him from many errors before he has time to entertain them; and the writer speaks with such spirit and decision that he cannot be misunderstood. Outside of this, the more interesting special pleas of the writer are in behalf of *Romeo* and *Juliet* as being other than the reckless fools of passion, ruined by their own haste in love, which many commentators represent them; in favor of *Beatrice* and *Lady Macbeth* as being more womanly than they are commonly conceived; and in support of the view that *Macbeth* was not incited by the witches to his crimes, but found his own ideas reflected back in their suggestions. It is to be noted also that Dr. Corson will not hear to the theory of Goethe and others that *Hamlet* perished by the weakness of action induced by an intellectual temperament. In all these cases the argument is very forcibly made, and, except in the case of *Lady Macbeth*, carries conviction on most of the points raised. His general conclusions and principles, however, are of more value than the outcome of a special inquiry in any play. The textual notes upon the Folio readings of "Hamlet" have already been incorporated in Furness's Variorum edition. Altogether, so excellent a volume of Shakspere criticism has not been put forth by an American scholar in many a day. Teachers and students both may profit by it as a model of how to learn in this particular subject.

—The October number of the *Law Quarterly Review* contains an article of especial American interest, "Chancery in Massachusetts," by Edwin H. Woodruff. In no other State was the opposition to the establishment of chancery so long and so stubborn as in Massachusetts. For many years the common law prevailed in unmitigated rigor throughout the commonwealth. The unfortunate suitor was sent out of court remediless, being told that equity and good conscience were on his side, but also that there was no provision of law whereby his wrongs could be redressed. Seventy-five years elapsed after the adoption of the State Constitution before chancery jurisdiction was extended to the three great causes of equitable relief, to fraud in 1855 and to accident and mistake in 1856. The evils resulting from this prolonged refusal to grant chancery jurisdiction arose continually before the common-law judges, who, while confining themselves strictly within the bounds of the powers granted to them, and turning away without relief suitors whose equitable rights were admitted, nevertheless took occasion in their opinions to protest against the prejudice of the Legislature—but for many years without avail.

—The reasons why equity was not administered by a specially constituted court in Massachusetts Mr. Woodruff finds to be three, corresponding to the three periods of Massachusetts's history as a colony, province, and State. Under the colony, none but church members in full communion were freemen. "The Government was an unlimited theocracy, where law was administered with all the sanction of ecclesiastical authority—an authority in which the conscience of equity must have been supposed to inhere." Little need was felt, therefore, to redress the wrongs wrought under a perfect theocratic law. Under the Provincial charter the Crown refused consent to the acts of the General Court (in 1692 and 1693) erecting a court of chancery, apparently on the ground that all equity jurisdiction should be established by virtue of the great seal. From that time to the adoption of the State Constitution in 1780, no further attempt was made by the Legislature of the Province to create a separate court of equity, but suitors for equitable relief turned to the Legislature itself, which supplied by its own judgments a substitute for the remedies of the forbidden court. Moreover, as the common-law courts of that period had few strict rules, and as the majority of the judges were laymen, the common law was often interpreted with considerable elasticity. As a State, Massachusetts began with no court of chancery, but with a constitutional authority in the Legislature to establish one. None, however, was immediately established. The terrors of the proposed court were the terrors of the unknown. Many evils might result from the maladministration of chancery powers, while, as Story argued, the lack of equitable relief operated to make the people of the commonwealth vigilant in avoiding mistake and fraud. But the friends of chancery became numerous and powerful. In 1846 a bill to establish a court of equity was defeated only by a theatrical trick of Mr. Crowninshield's, who exhibited to the House as a typical bill in chancery a stout volume the latter half of which was blank leaves. In 1877 complete equity jurisdiction was finally established. Such, in brief, is the history of chancery in Massachusetts, now traced for the first time by Mr. Woodruff. The article may well interest the lawyer as a contribution to American legal history, and not less the layman, on account of the light thrown on methods of thought and reform in thoughtful and reformatory Massachusetts.

—It is a perhaps curious fact that not on any pretext does man or woman born in the years 1829–1831 find a place in the 'Library of American Literature,' edited by Mr. Edmund Clarence Stedman and Miss Ellen Mackay Hutchinson (New York: Chas. L. Webster & Co.). The ninth volume opens with Theodore Winthrop, whose birth-year was 1828. All the rest of the long list of writers were born in the thirties, and such of these esteemed contemporaries as are now living are all fifty years of age or something more. Very few of them, therefore, had much to do with shaping the events which led up to the civil war. Moncure D. Conway and W. D. O'Connor are exceptions —the latter well represented by a stirring extract from his anti-slavery novel, 'Harrington'; the former commemorated only from his later and scholarly productions. This was essentially the fighting generation, and no small number took part in the war, as soldiers or as press correspondents in the field. The press, indeed, determines, more than all else, the complexion of this volume. For example, Albert D. Richardson, Junius Henri Browne, Whitelaw Reid, Geo. W. Smalley, William Swinton, T. W. Knox, E. H. House, J. J. Piatt, J. R. G. Hassard, I. H. Bromley, John Hay, William Winter, George Arnold, Chas. H. Webb, "Artemus Ward," "Mark Twain," "Orpheus C. Kerr," "Petroleum Nasby," are all associated with the daily journalism of the past thirty years. This fact, and the stormy time in which these writers began to produce, fully account for the literary inferiority of the present volume compared with those which have gone before. Not a few enduring works have emanated from this group of the thirties, like Mr. H. H. Bancroft's histories and Mr. H. H. Furness's Variorum edition of Shakspere; there is nothing better in its class to set over against Prof. T. R. Lounsbury's Life of Fenimore Cooper; Aldrich, and Howells, and John Burroughs all have admirers who predict for them a lasting fame. But these emerge from a rather low average of thought and style, and the most distinctive talent of the period is humorous, and the great lights already mentioned, to whom Mr. Frank Stockton must be added, were all newspaper men. There is a corresponding failure on the part of the women on the list to reach high-water mark. We are glad to learn that while the next volume of the series will dispose of the youngsters of the forties, an eleventh, supplementary, volume is contemplated, in the nature of a "compendium of brief but trustworthy biographical notices of all the authors quoted in the work." It will also include specimens of the most notable productions of the past seven years, especially in the West and South, and an index.

—It is discouraging to find that, in spite of the production within a few years of some splendid and elaborate illustrated books, the general level of holiday publications is not raised. Not to mention two or three atrocities, we have received a number of those thin little books with the finikin woodcuts and sprawling "decorations" that we know so well and have grown so tired of. The drawings are usually by several artists who agree in nothing —neither in the types of the figures nor in the features of the landscape—and the result is distressing when it is not burlesque. Of this general type are 'The Earl's Return' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), and 'The Miller's Daughter' and 'Legend Laymone' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), but they offer slight variations from it. Thus the first is illustrated by a single artist, while the last gives us photogravures instead of woodcuts. Some of the drawings in the latter are by good artists, but they have not been highly inspired by a text the inanity of which passes belief. Mr. Magrath's illustrations of Lover's 'Low Back'd Car' (Lippincott) are better, and present a certain harmony among themselves which is pleasant, but fail through monotony. There is too little matter in the poem for so much illustration, one would be tempted to say, if one did not remember Mr. Abbey's exhaustless invention. Dora Wheeler's illustrations of Mary Mathews Barnes's 'Epithalamium' will prove pleasing to many, and contain some pretty fancies; but her draughtsmanship is unfortunately too feeble for the seriousness of her themes.

—'A Century of Artists' (Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan & Co.) is "A Memorial of the Glasgow International Exhibition of 1888." It is in the form of an illustrated catalogue of the works in the Loan Collection of that Exhibition by a hundred-odd selected artists. One work by each artist is illustrated, and the others carefully catalogued and described, and of each deceased artist there is a short critical and biographical notice by W. E. Henley. Some of these notices are reprinted from the 'Memorial Catalogue of French and Dutch Pictures at the Edinburgh International Exhibition, 1886.' The illustrations range from slight pen drawings in the text to elaborate full-page photogravures and etchings, and are printed in a variety of tints. The subjects of illustration hardly seem well chosen in all instances, many of the greater names being inadequately represented, when, judging from the catalogue, better work was to be had. Mr. Henley's criticism is good and sound. He is a devotee of "paint," and the word recurs, perhaps, a little too often; but a critic of his sort, who firmly believes that the ultimate value of a work of art is in its intrinsic beauty of workmanship, and who scouts at the literary element in art, must be so lonely in England that he may be forgiven a certain aggressiveness in stating his case. His delicate and just appreciation of such men as Corot makes it sufficiently plain that "paint" does not mean "paintiness," but "painting." His criticisms of Turner and Rossetti are almost startling from an English source. The book is sumptuous in heavy paper and wide margins, and the printing of rubric and initial letters (from the Edinburgh University Press) is magnificent. What one likes least about it is the deep red, rough canvas cover, with its somewhat too staring gilt lettering.

—With the opening of Clark University at Worcester after a thirteen years' successful experiment in university work at Baltimore, every question pertaining to university instruction in America—using the term in the stricter sense—assumes a new importance. With Clark University devoted exclusively, and Johns Hopkins University in great part, to post-graduate instruction, and with all our stronger colleges and universities increasing their facilities for such instruction, it is evident that this country has distinctly entered upon the stage in which scholars in every department may expect before long to find at home the opportunity for prosecuting studies of the highest order. Until recently all discussions of questions pertaining to university policy in America were naturally regarded as having reference to undergraduate students only; this must soon cease to be the case. Among such questions the most prominent is that of

the admission of women to men's colleges, and in no question is the distinction between the two cases so sharp as in this. We do not recall a single argument that has ever been adduced against coeducation that has any weight whatever in support of the exclusion of women who have equipped themselves for special and arduous studies, from classes formed of men similarly equipped. If the new opportunities which our country is acquiring for the pursuit of the higher learning are to be for a generation placed beyond the reach of those few earnest and ardent and trained women who are hungering and thirsting for the means of gratifying their intellectual aspirations, let it be for some reason that can be distinctly stated, and not merely because our conservative colleges have thought it imprudent to have boys and girls recite in the same classes. When one reads the admirable address of President Hall at the opening of Clark University, one cannot but feel saddened by the knowledge that, almost at the same moment, a young woman of Massachusetts, educated in a Massachusetts college for women, was writing for advice as to what European university it would be best for her to go to for a course in advanced mathematics.

—The generous gift of $100,000 by Mrs. Caroline Donovan of Baltimore County to the Johns Hopkins University acquires exceptional importance on account of the time of financial trial through which the University has been passing. It is not too much to say that this gift, following as it does a series of contributions which have been made to the University's resources within a twelvemonth, may be regarded as putting an end to the fear that the University might be allowed to become crippled for want of means. It is notable that within this short period there should have been contributed by living persons in Baltimore and its neighborhood a quarter of a million dollars for the uses of the University. It is interesting to remark the variety of ways in which these contributions have come. One hundred thousand dollars was contributed anonymously, chiefly in sums of $5,000, for the immediate pecuniary needs of the institution; two sums of $20,000 each were given by individuals for special purposes; this last gift of $100,000 is for the endowment of a professorship in a department to be determined by the Trustees. In addition to all these sums, the University has fallen heir to the library, and has become residuary legatee of the estate, of the late Mr. John W. McCoy, one of Baltimore's best citizens; the value of the residuary legacy will exceed $100,000. All these things show conclusively that Baltimore is not unprovided with citizens who have a due esteem for learning, and who are proud of the work which her young University has done in its cause. She may, with these precedents, be counted on to do her full share in the future for the maintenance of her greatest public institution; and it is to be hoped that the liberality of her citizens, so far from forestalling assistance from outside, will encourage givers in all parts of the country, as assuring them that they will not be contributing to a declining institution, but to one which looks forward with confidence to a future of progressive achievement.

MARY HOWITT.

Mary Howitt: An Autobiography, edited by her daughter, Margaret Howitt. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

It was for a generation that reached its term some twenty-five or thirty years ago that William and Mary Howitt wrote with much mutual satisfaction. They enjoyed their work, and their readers enjoyed their simple stories, poems, studies in natural history and rural life, journals of travel, and translations from the literature of Germany and Denmark and Sweden. Much of their work, especially the husband's, was of the book-making sort, but good after its kind—full of the love of nature and humanity, relying not on reading, but on personal observation for its accounts of poets' homes and haunts and places famous in the ecclesiastical and political history of Great Britain. The lowest deep to which we find Mary descending is the writing of a series of poems for pictures furnished her by the publisher of some periodical. The Howitts were in excellent repute on this side of the Atlantic, especially among anti-slavery people, liberal Quakers, and Unitarians, and the number of their American friends was always large. Some of their best work was the introduction of Hans Christian Andersen and Frederika Bremer to the English and American public, and with them a general knowledge of Scandinavian literature.

They were not, however, more remarkable for their literary activity than for their humanitarian sympathies and their philanthropic work. They engaged in more than one journalistic enterprise having for its object the amelioration of social or political conditions, in which William, like the father of Charles Lamb, evinced a "most incorrigible and losing honesty." One of the most agreeable encounters in the book is that of William Howitt and the reader with the son-in-law of Major Carmichael Smith, the active manager of the *Constitutional*, "a daily Liberal paper which should especially support the political, economical, and financial reforms advocated by Joseph Hume." The paper was in the worst imaginable financial straits when the Major informed Howitt that he had sent for his son-in-law to edit it. The narrative proceeds:

"Just as I was going out of the office, which was in Fleet Street, I met on the stairs a tall, thin young man, in a long dark-blue cloak, and with a nose that seemed some time to have had a blow that had flattened its bridge. I turned back and had some conversation with him, anxious to know how he, Thackeray, proposed to carry on a daily paper without any funds and already deeply in debt. He did not seem to know any more than I did. I thought to myself that his father-in-law had not done him much service in taking him from a profitable post for the vain business of endeavoring to buoy up a desperate speculation. How much longer the *Constitutional* struggled on I know not. That was the first time I ever heard of or ever saw William Makepeace Thackeray."

There are people who are greater than the sum of all their parts, whose personality engages us in a quite unaccountable manner. William and Mary Howitt were of this kind. The least mention of them always called up a cheerful image in the mind. Their readers liked and loved the man and woman, and not merely what they wrote. Their autobiography —for it is William's almost as much as Mary's —fully justifies that delightful personal affection which their books inspired. Their lives were blended not only in marriage, but in literature; and not only were they married lovers for more than half a century—they were also married friends.

The construction of these volumes is somewhat irregular and lacking in proportion, but what preponderates is the better part—the account of Mary Howitt's childhood and youth. This was written in 1868, and the remainder not till after William's death in 1879, when he was eighty-seven years old. Mary survived him until January 30, 1888, when her eighty-ninth birthday was near at hand. Letters are freely drawn upon in the latter part, which, if they bring us closer to reality, lack something of the charm of reminiscence. If the account of her ancestry is prolonged unduly, it contains many interesting incidents and personal traits. Her most famous ancestor was that William Wood, the Irish patentee, whose farthings and half-pence were the best copper coin ever made in Ireland, but on which Dean Swift wreaked his animosity to Sir Robert Walpole, greatly to Wood's undoing. Her paternal grandfather lingers long upon the stage, a collector of simples, an herb-doctor, a blundering speculator, and a "crank"; yet it may be questioned if Mary Howitt did not get from him her best inheritance—her love of nature and of flowers. The story of her childhood is compounded of the most meagre elements, but it is full of charm. Nothing more grimly Puritanical could be conceived. The wonder is that the bedevilment of nurses and the "waters tasted in secret," in self-defence against intolerable restraints, did not incurably injure Mary and the sister who was the companion of all her joys and sorrows. Their salvation was the little brother—Plutarch's best gift for a child; a good home teacher; and going away to school, though that had much of bitter with the sweet. For Mary Howitt's final alienation from Quakerism any explanation is imperfect that stops short of the utter dreariness with which it cursed her childhood and her early youth.

When Mary Botham has brought her story up to her marriage with William Howitt in 1821, she introduces a chapter from his hand bringing the story of his life up to the same point. The interest of the narration centres in the gravitation of his mind to literary pursuits. Thrift, economy, and sobriety only came into the race of Howitts with William's father. Before him, they were a roystering set, who had dissipated their property till they had hardly a roof above their heads; the younger sons "hunting, feasting parsons, rectors of Eastwood, persecutors of Quakers and other religious vermin." The father was the first Quaker in the family, marrying another, Phebe Tantum, of the *only* family of that name, says William, that he ever knew. The boy was a great admirer of Byron, and some familiarity with Newstead and a glimpse of Byron there did much to nurse the flame.

William and Mary were famous walkers; the year after their marriage walking five hundred miles on one excursion in Scotland without seeing a guide-post all the way. They were nomadic as well as peripatetic. The "moving accident" was certainly their trade. The reader who has thought of them as living a quiet, stable life will be astonished at the discovery of its shifting character: from Hanley to Nottingham, thence to Esher, then for three years to Germany, mainly at Heidelberg; next to Clapton; to St. John's Wood, near Hampstead; to the "Hermitage," near Andrew Marvell's cottage at Highgate; to West Hill Lodge near by; to "The Orchard"; once more to Esher, where the husband and wife convinced themselves that Bacon said truly that planting a garden is the sweetest of human pleasures; then for the remainder of their lives to Switzerland and Rome.

This migratory habit of their lives may have contributed to the change which gradually took place in their opinions. With William this did not proceed so far as with his wife, and, had he survived, it is most unlikely that she would have joined the Roman Catholic Church, as she did in 1882, three years after his death, when she was already eighty-three years old. But it would be difficult to fix a time

when they were not drawn to the Roman Catholic more strongly than to the Established Church of England, partly by the disabilities of the Irish Catholics, partly by their easy gravitation to the supernatural as a present reality, and not merely a matter of the distant past; much also by their sympathy with the devout and kindly temper of the Roman Catholics of the Tyrol. William was the first to give up "Friends' peculiarities," but, notwithstanding his own changes, continued to like a Friend's bonnet; so Mary did not give up hers, nor "the language," thinking that the bonnet and the language went together. In 1833 we find her apologizing for not attending Yearly Meeting with "so many hundreds of women, who really resembled a large flock of doves more than anything else." The sense of Quaker limitations grew. She writes in 1840:

"Nothing has given me a more unpleasant confirmation of my opinion of Friends' contracted and sectarian feeling than our experience in this neighborhood, including the town of Kingston. Some Friends came from that meeting to announce to us the receipt of our certificate, with the utmost solemnity and shut-up-ness. They never said they were glad to have an addition to their meeting, that they hoped our residence had proved so far agreeable, or that it might do so, or even that we might have our health. They had no congratulations, no good wishes. Perhaps they felt none. But if so, it was not according to my notions of Christian charity that wishes good to all men. They warned us against literature and politics, and when William inadvertently used the word Radical, the man Friend asked *if he thought that word a desirable one for a Friend to use.* Everything with these Kingston Friends was warning and prohibition. They would not read books. They would not go into society. They would not look at a newspaper—nay, even would not admit a newspaper into their houses. Now, is not this a miserable state to be in? Yet these are among the approved and most orthodox members."

Later in the same year she writes:

"We dined on Sunday with the women Friends who are delegates from America to the Anti-Slavery Convention, and with that noble American Abolititionist William Lloyd Garrison. The English Friends, whose women go up and down preaching, and who have their meetings of discipline, have, nevertheless, refused to receive these women delegates from America. I wish thou could see and hear Lucretia Mott. She is a glorious, noble-minded woman, and a plain Friend too. The English Friends will not receive her because she is a Hicksite."

It is evident from these and many other passages that it was the narrowness of her old associates that drove her, at length, from their assembly. In her case, there was none of the reaction from the meagreness of the Friends' worship to the splendors of a ritualistic church, which has carried so many Quakers into the English and the Roman churches. The simplicity of Roman Catholics attracted her, and she went to them at last in spite of their elaborate ceremonial. She and her husband went little to Friends' meetings after 1844. She writes: "I could go one Sunday to the Church of England, another to a Catholic chapel, a third to a Unitarian, and so on; and in each of them find my heart warmed with Christian love to my fellow-creatures and lifted up with gratitude and praise to God." She remained true to this spirit. Her connection with the Unitarians grew closer for a time, the saintly Dr. Sadler, who, later, was George Eliot's friend, and conducted the service at her funeral, being very dear to her; as also Dr. W. B. Carpenter, the scientist, who played the organ in Dr. Sadler's modest church. Soon, however, we find her wishing that she might be a Catholic. In 1862, reading John Henry Newman's 'Miracles of Ecclesiastical History of the Early Ages,' she is "sure these Roman Catholics are very near the truth." William writes in 1870: "What an extraordinary thing is Roman Catholicism! . . . At top all is rotten, but at bottom God, who overrules all things, has caused it to strike its roots into the soil of the common humanity, and send up shoots and crops of an active, holy, and indefatigable beneficence such as present Protestantism knows nothing of." The same year Mary takes a furtive dip of holy water in a little chapel in Brunnen, praying that God would give her the right faith. Ten years later she protests, "Now, don't think I am going over. There is no fear of that." She went over in May, 1882. That the tone of Father Ceslas, who baptized her, did not violently repel her, will seem strange to many readers of his words, the quintessential oil of that "priestcraft" whose history William Howitt had essayed to write. She says, "I told him I should never know what to say in my self-defence when a Catholic." Evidently her act was sentimental and emotional, without any intellectual seriousness. The Pope's Jubilee occurred shortly after her reaching Rome for the last time, in September, 1887. We are obliged to read the signs of a happy and pathetic second childhood in her enthusiasm over this, culminating in her presentation to the Pope. She was eager to kiss his foot, but he withdrew it and gave her his hand. Evidently the excitement was too much for her, for her last sickness began immediately after, and ended before many days had passed. The Cardinal-Vicar of Rome gave express permission for her burial by the side of her husband in the Protestant cemetery where Keats and Shelley lie, too far apart.

It would be easy to emphasize too much Mary Howitt's conversion to the Roman Catholic faith. Of much more importance is the fact that it cost her nothing of her sympathy with the genuinely earnest and religious of every church and sect, nothing of her gratitude for every spiritual help from her youth up. Through many theological changes her character remained the same, overflowing with sympathy for all human excellence, and kindliness for all oppressed and suffering folk. One of the most conspicuous enthusiasms of her life was for the American anti-slavery cause, "the real thorough abolitionist view, which would cut up this crying sin root and branch." Anti-slavery meetings and petitions found in the Howitts helpers of the most sterling quality. It is a pretty picture that we have of Mary's aged mother, in the last days of her life, knitting "such a quantity of nice things for the anti-slavery bazaar in Boston." That ardent abolitionist, Henry C. Wright, is seen at a garden-party delighting the children whom Hans Christian Andersen's stiffness and vanity repelled. Wordsworth is at his best, routing an American general who defended slavery at Rydal Mount: "To think of his coming, of all things, to this house with a defence of slavery! But he got nothing by it. Mr. Howitt and I gave it to him pretty well." The Mr. Beecher indexed as Henry Ward, vol. ii, pp. 100, 101, is certainly his brother Charles in the second instance and is probably one of his brothers in the first.

But the book is more a record of domestic peace and love and sorrow bravely borne than a history of the Howitts' literary life or an account of the distinguished people who were attracted to them by their admirable qualities of mind and heart. It is a high privilege to be admitted to such companionship.

MORE CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

'Captain Polly,' by Sophie Swett (Harpers), is a fine tale of a wise and courageous girl, who may serve as a good model for other girls to grow like, and also as a lesson in shame-facedness to boys for their silly airs of superiority over their sisters. Nothing shows more plainly the greater nearness of boys to their savage ancestry than the fiction which still holds among them that it is they who hold the reins of government. The Captain Polly of this book was the natural and actual ruler of her family, but that did not in the least shake the confidence of her brothers that both their organization and their stock of ideas were in every way superior to hers. The part of the book which concerns another sister, Del, is less to be commended as food for children. An overweening love of fashion should be treated very lightly and with ridicule, if it should be admitted at all for castigation. There are some vices that are best eradicated by being ignored, and that cannot be minutely described without causing contamination. The incident of the pocket-book, moreover, is overdrawn. Of the illustrations, the frontispiece, Captain Polly herself, is admirable; the rest are conventional, and have too little excuse for being.

Susan Coolidge's stories always exhibit an easy moral. Good girls do not mind a moral, and, in her books, the setting is so pleasing that doubtless the bad girls, too, can take it down. 'Just Sixteen' (Roberts Bros.) consists of sixteen stories, addressed to girls of different ages. "Snowy Peter" is easily the worst of them. "Ninety-three and Ninety-four," which concerns the furnishing of rooms, would do great good if it could sink into all girls' minds. "The Pink Sweetmeat" is very fresh and charming, and "Who Ate the Queen's Luncheon?" furnishes a beautiful picture.

'The Princess Liliwinkens,' by Henrietta Christian Wright (Harper & Bros.), is a very satisfactory fairy book. There is plenty of invention, plenty of fun, and a thoroughly good style—in fact, the contents are quite up to the beautiful cover. But there is one respect in which it falls short of a high standard. There is no reason why a nonsense-tale should not have a perfectly definite structure. The best stories that can be made are none too good for children of the tenderest years, if we wish them to have, when they grow up, intellectual powers as good as we can make them. Every child is able to see, in any story that it can understand, whether the beginning has any bearing upon the end, and whether all the parts work together to further or to retard a common result. The writer has known very young children who distinctly objected to Grimm's Tales on account of their deficiencies in this respect. They said, "What's that got to do with it?" and the best critic in the world could have said nothing better. That clear vision which can grasp a large series of events, with their connections and interdependences, is one of the best possessions that our children can have, and its growth is interfered with every time that they struggle to exercise it upon a picture that is itself hopelessly confused and turbid. It is a pity to make these remarks apropos of one of the best fairy-books of the day, but still it is only the writers of the best children's books who can be expected to profit by them.

'Feathers, Furs and Fins,' stories of animal life for children (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), has passed through four or five editions already, and is probably destined to pass through several more. It is illustrated in an artistic man-

ner, and the animals are true to nature. The stories are interesting, amusing, and in good taste. It is pleasant to be able to give hearty commendation to a book of this character and scope, since so many of them are objectionable on the ground of inaccuracy, poor literary form, or defective mechanical execution. In the present case none of these defects are notable, and the book is thoroughly adapted to its audience.

'Paddling in Florida' (G. W. Dillingham), by St. George Rathborne, is a bright and interesting account of a canoe cruise of two lads in Southern Florida. We should not advise any but the most expert canoeists to follow their example. But those who are at home in a canoe in all kinds of weather, and are willing to rough it, would find great enjoyment in a like trip. To such this book might prove an excellent guide, especially as to what it would be necessary to carry. Making Key West their starting-point, the lads penetrated to the heart of the Everglades, which do not appear very attractive from the description, sailed over the mysterious and dismal Lake Okeechobee, and from thence down the Caloosahatchee to the Gulf. Their adventures with wild-cats, bears, alligators, and outcasts are numerous and exciting, but the pleasant air of reality which the first part of the book wears is lost by the necessity under which the author is laid to make his narrative fit some old pictures which had better have been left out. In the course of his description of a bird-hatchery in the Everglades, Mr. Rathborne refers to the fact that birds, like the scarlet ibis, of the most beautiful plumage, are nearly extinct from their indiscriminate and wholesale slaughter, and he laments the lack of any legislation for their protection.

The unusual indulgence of the parents of two green boys, luxuriously brought up, in allowing them to start on a trapping expedition into the wildest part of Maine furnishes the text of 'City Boys in the Woods,' by Henry P. Wells (Harpers). From this text he gives a generally accurate and interesting description of life in the woods and of the modes of making one's self comfortable and happy on small means and by devices from the storehouse of nature. The two boys, ill provided with outfit, and utterly ignorant of what they are to do after leaving civilization, naturally come to grief, and, after a series of misfortunes, providentially find a trapper named Dant, who becomes their good genius at once, feeds and clothes them, teaches them the art of trapping and other arts of woodcraft, and finally restores them well and hearty to their unnatural parents. The only human weakness shown by Dant during the period the boys sat at his feet is described on p. 120, where he says he left a boat in the water of a Maine river tied by a rope to a stake. The boat had been taken there, a long distance from Dant's camp, the February previous, and thus secured. As the stream must have been frozen in February, the boat could not have been put in the water, but left on the ice. The risks it ran from the spring freshets, from passers-by, and from being exposed to the mercy of the elements for eight months, would amply account for its disappearance without imputing to a poor beaver the gnawing of the rope. A boat or canoe taken for use to a distant piece of water is always (by a man knowing his business) kept concealed near the shore, never in the water, is turned upside down, and covered with boughs or bark.

The visitor to the Adirondacks who makes the ascent of Mount Marcy or of its surrounding satellites at the cost of the tribute exacted by the company of sportsmen from Pennsylvania who own those parts and permit people to walk over them on certain onerous conditions, is sure to have his attention called to an occasional stump, or a few chips, which he is told is a "sable," or, as the natives call it, a "saple line." Why these infrequent vestiges of human labor should be called a line, the tourist never discovers from his guide. The general attitude of the latter towards his victim is as superior and inimical to all trifling as that of the average railway conductor or hotel clerk, and asking him to show the line (if this liberty is taken) brings forth such an ironically indefinite response that the traveller never dares to ask what a "saple" may be, and in all probability never would know but for Mr. Wells, who in chapter v. of the book under notice not only tells us what the "line" and the "saple" (or, as he calls it, "sable") are, but how the sable line is to be laid out, baited, and attended to. This alone is worth the price of the book. The chapter on beavers, xii., is most interesting, and its substance and capital illustrations were published some months since—in *Scribner's*, we think. The mingling of sound instruction in natural history, woodcraft, and sport which runs through the whole book, cannot fail to interest the grown reader as well as the young one. The illustrations, though generally good, are in some cases misleading, and have no reference to the text. Scenes in the Rocky Mountains, incidents of elk-hunting, and other pictures quite as much out of place in describing the Maine woods, injure greatly the unity which should exist between a book and its embellishment.

It was with some misgivings that we started on a European trip in 'Personally Conducted,' by Mr. Frank R. Stockton (Charles Scribner's Sons). Our apprehensions were soon dispelled, however, for we found that he had discarded the antiquated and creaking machinery common to works of this kind. He assumes at the start that he is accompanied by all his readers, and we wander from place to place with a dim consciousness of being one of a party of eager boys and girls who jostle each other good-humoredly in their efforts to keep close to their genial "conductor," as he describes this or that object of interest. We smile with them as he points out at Rome the den "in which the old wolf established her little orphan asylum," or gravely doubts whether the Pallavicinis invited the Empress Maria Theresa to sit down in one of their squirting swings, or pictures Giotto as buying one of Mr. Ruskin's books to find out what he meant by some of his groups and symbols on the Campanile at Florence, or refers to those schools in England with "classes where ignorance of America is taught to the pupils." Mr. Stockton's descriptions have just enough history to quicken the intelligence and not overtask the memory. The best chapters are possibly those in which he describes English country life and scenery. It should be added that the pictures, which are well chosen and excellent, illustrate the text.

'The Red Mountain of Alaska,' by Willis Boyd Allen (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), is a boys' book, as we infer from the advertisement. For those boys who like their adventures without any spice of probability, without any real thread of interest in the plot, without a good English literary style, without any genuine local color belonging to the region depicted, or any common sense among the dramatis personæ, and stuffed with inverted chronology and anachronisms like a pudding with suet and plums, this is just the sort of book which they will like. It would be time wasted to criticise it in detail.

Witch, Warlock, and Magician: Historical Sketches of Magic and Witchcraft in England and Scotland. By W. H. Davenport Adams. J. W. Bouton. 1889. 8vo.

THIS is one of the books which make the reader regret that the invention of printing has enabled any one who can wield a pen or a pair of scissors to exhibit his ignorance to a long-suffering public. Apparently Mr. Adams is a gentleman, with a taste for the marvellous, who has accumulated, in the course of somewhat miscellaneous reading, a lot of scraps which he now empties upon the world in heterogeneous fashion, with a little maundering talk to cement them together. His plan is exemplified in his account of Roger Bacon, occupying twenty-three pages, of which the major portion consists of extracts from the chapbook, 'The Famous Historie of Friar Bacon,' and from Greene's 'Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay.' He has been at no pains to consult the original sources, and he retails the traditional legends as though they were unquestioned facts. Albertus Magnus is "the first of the great European alchemists," and Raymond Lulli, who expressly declared the transmutation of metals to be impossible, is described as "the great Spanish alchemist and magician." Curiously enough, there is no mention of Michael Scot, which shows how imperfectly Mr. Adams has worked, even in his own unmethodical method.

That method is carried out to the end. The final chapter, of fifty pages, is entitled "The Literature of Witchcraft," and is announced in the preface as, "I hope, tolerably exhaustive." Great part of this is occupied with extracts from Gifford's 'Dialogue concerning Witches,' 'The History of the Black Art' attributed to Defoe, and other equally accessible works. The bibliography is absurdly meagre, and thrown together without arrangement. Scattering titles of books, many of them of no importance, are given, while others, absolutely essential to the history of Demonology, are conspicuous by their absence, such as Nider, Jaquerius, Silvester Prierias, Basin, Ponzinibius, Bernardo di Como, Grillandus, Gaffarel, Ciruelo, Binsfeld, Grosius, Rickius, Guaccio, Le Brun, Thiers, etc. Even so epoch-making a book as the Jesuit Spee's 'Cautio Criminalis' is not alluded to. If Mr. Adams had consulted a work which he names —Grässe's (not Graessel's, as he gives it) 'Bibliotheca Magica et Pneumatica'— he would hardly have included Horst's 'Zauberbibliothek' and omitted Hauber's 'Bibliotheca Magica.' The modern authorities fare no better. We have Soldan's 'Geschichte der Hexenprocesse,' 1843, and not the enlarged edition in two volumes by Heppe, 1880. Diefenbach is absent, and Rapp, Lilienthal, Längin, Carl Meyer, and the numerous other Germans who of late years have thrown so much light on the superstitions of our forefathers; while, to compensate for this, we are gravely referred to "the Encyclopædia Britannica *in locis*."

Worthless as the book is from all serious aspects, it might serve to amuse an idle hour but for its pervading vices of style and feeble efforts at jocularity. Objectionable as are the long extracts with which it is padded, they are a relief from the original matter connecting them together, of which this is a sample:

"It is satisfactory, therefore, to be able to state, on the weighty authority of Dr. Thomas Smith, that Dr. John Dee, the famous magician and 'philosopher,' was born at forty minutes past four o'clock on the morning of July 13, 1527. According to the picturesque practice of latter-day biographers, here I ought to describe a glorious summer sunrise, the golden light spreading over hill and pasture, the bland, warm

air stealing into the chamber where lay the mother and her infant; but I forbear, as, for all I know, this particular July morning may have been cloudy, cold, and wet; besides, John, the son of Rowland Dee, was born in London."

La Lettre de Christophe Colomb annonçant la découverte du Nouveau Monde, 15 Février -14 Mars 1493. Texte original espagnol, *édition princeps*, in-folio, différente des deux éditions in-4° connues jusqu'à ce jour. Reproduction en fac-similé d'après l'exemplaire récemment découvert en Espagne, actuellement en la possession de l'éditeur. Paris: J. Maisonneuve. 1889. Folio.

The Letter in Spanish of Christopher Columbus, written on his return from his first voyage, and addressed to Luis de Sant Angel, 15 Feb.–14 March, 1493, announcing the discovery of the New World. Reproduced in fac-simile from an unique copy in the possession of the publishers, with introductory and critical remarks, accompanied by a revised Spanish version, and a literal translation into English. London: Ellis & Elvey. 1889. 4to.

Lettera in Lingua Spagnuola diretta da Cristoforo Colombo a Luis de Santangel (15 Febbrajo–14 Marzo 1493.) Riprodotta a fac-simile ed illustrata per cura di Gerolamo D'Adda dall' unico esemplare a stampa sinora conosciuto che si conserva nella Biblioteca Ambrosiana. Milano. 1866. 4to.

THE discovery during the present year of two printed copies, unknown before, of the original letter written in Spanish by Columbus to Luis de Sant Angel on the discovery of the New World (or, as Columbus designated the newly found lands, *the islands found in the Indies*), leads a writer in a recent number of the London *Athenœum* to suggest that sooner or later there may be unearthed an edition of the Latin translation, or even an English version, from the press of Wynkyn de Worde or Pynson, or one of their contemporaries. There is certainly some encouragement to hope for such a discovery in view of the fact that, until the copy in the Ambrosian Library at Milan was identified, about twenty-five years ago, no printed copy of the original Spanish text was known to exist. Two more copies have been discovered or made known to us this year, so that now we know of three copies of the same Spanish text, but of different editions. Exact reproductions in facsimile have been made and published of the three copies, which are now before us, and their titles are given herewith.

It is well at the outset to remind the reader that the titles of all the rare early editions of the first letter of Columbus have been supplied by their respective editors or printers, and have only the authority of individual opinion. These titles, in the cases of the early Latin editions, have served an unforeseen use, the errors in them having assisted in efforts to identify the *editio princeps*. There are doubtless other copies somewhere of the letter of Columbus in Spanish to Sant Angel, and possibly also copies, printed in 1493, of his letter to Sanchez. Of the latter no copy in Spanish is now known, if any was ever printed. It is also highly probable, as has been suggested, that the tracts of Columbus and Vespucius were reprinted by the early English typographers, and that copies bound with other tracts, in volumes, may be lying unnoticed in some old library. Here, then, is a new field for bibliographical enterprise worthy of our mighty book-hunters and collectors of Americana—such, at least, as have good bank accounts.

Hitherto the chief bibliographical treasure among books relating to America has been the Latin translation, printed in 1493, of the letter of Columbus to Gabriel Sanchez. Of this translation there are six editions, all which have been candidates for the glory of *editio princeps*. R. H. Major has given good reasons for deciding in favor of the edition of four leaves, having thirty-three lines on a full page, printed at Rome, in 1493, by Stephen Plannck. Varnhagen gives the first place to the edition printed by Silber, while Brunet and Harrisse decide in favor of the Plannck edition which has thirty-four lines on a full page. Where such eminent authorities disagree, it will be justifiable for the owner of any of these three editions to claim the honor for his copy. Yet there are reasons for suspecting that the Latin *editio princeps* has not been discovered. A majority of all the copies known of the six editions above referred to are in this country. Of course, reprints or reproductions issued since 1493 or 1494 are not here considered.

The original manuscripts in Spanish of the letters of Columbus are lost, though what seem to be attested manuscript copies are in existence. Enclosed with the letter written to Sant Angel was a copy addressed to the sovereigns Ferdinand and Isabella. The letter to Sant Angel is not so full as that written to Sanchez, though it is more highly esteemed, as being probably the first written. But, of course, either of the printed Spanish texts is of greater value than any translation, for, next to the original manuscript of the navigator (could it be produced), will ever be prized the first printed copy of the actual words used by him. As we have seen, there are three editions now known of the most important Spanish text, but only one copy of each has been discovered. It is hardly likely that these are the only copies in existence, and possibly yet other editions will be found, so that ere long we may be discussing different editions of the printed Spanish text in our efforts to identify the *editio princeps*, while the early editions of the Latin translation will occupy a secondary rank in our estimation, being then chiefly valuable as incunabula, though, should any version from the press either of Wynkyn de Worde or of Pynson be discovered, English-speaking bibliomaniacs would hardly place that second to any other.

The titles prefixed to the reproductions of the three Spanish texts are given at the beginning of this article in the order of their importance. First on the list is that recently issued by Maisonneuve of Paris. It is a full-sized folio, of four pages, the form usual in the time of Ferdinand and Isabella for proclamations and similar documents, and—so far as we know now—is entitled to the designation *édition princeps* printed in the title. Both the others are in small quarto, with eight pages, thirty-two lines in a full page. The two are alike, page for page, and line for line, the edition published in facsimile by Ellis & Elvey being doubtless the earlier, since errors in that are corrected in the Ambrosian edition. The Ellis & Elvey edition, besides the reproduction and critical remarks, has a revised Spanish version, with marginal notes showing the variations from the Ambrosian text. It seems to be settled that the type of all three editions is Spanish, but the places where printed have yet to be determined. The extreme rarity of these printed copies is indicated by the fact that neither Navarrete nor Muñoz had seen them; their knowledge was derived from the attested later manuscript copy already referred to. The reproduction from the edition in the Ambrosian Library was published by the Marquis of Adda, and, since his beautiful volume was printed, the original letter has disappeared, probably stolen from the library.

All these editions suggest bibliographical questions which are of the nature of problems, and which we are not at present able to deal with. It is certainly an interesting circumstance that, while we are discussing plans for celebrating the discovery of America by Columbus, the two most important printed copies now known of the actual letter written to announce that discovery to his friend and helper, Luis de Sant Angel, should be brought to light. It is to be hoped that both these letters, each in its way unique, may be secured by some appreciative American and placed in the Metropolitan Museum.

Anonyms: A Dictionary of Revealed Authorship. By William Cushing. Part I. Cambridge: W. Cushing. 1889.

THIS work forms a companion volume to the same author's 'Initials and Pseudonyms,' and together they cover much the same ground as Halkett and Laing's 'Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain.' There is no doubt that Halkett and Laing's work is very unsatisfactory so far as American books are concerned, and a volume devoted to the anonymous and pseudonymous products of American presses would have formed a useful and welcome supplement to the Dictionary. Mr. Cushing, however, has attempted to do more than furnish merely a supplement to Halkett and Laing's work, the result being that he reproduces much, though not all, of what is to be found in their Dictionary, with considerable additions of his own, and has given us more than a supplement, yet not a work which can take the place of the Dictionary as a work of reference for bibliographers. Thus, for some unexplained reason, he takes no notice of books printed before the year 1700, and even of books of later date he omits many which are given by Halkett and Laing. On the other hand, he has enlarged the scope of his work, as compared with theirs, by including a great number of anonymous articles in periodicals, and, on a rough estimate, about 15 per cent. of the entries in 'Anonyms' belong to this class, the inclusion of which may be considered a measure of doubtful utility.

In separating, as he has done, the anonymous from the pseudonymous works, Mr. Cushing seems to have had no clear conception of the distinction between the two, and it is, perhaps, a matter of no great consequence whether he considers a book "by the author of Waverley," for instance, as anonymous or pseudonymous, provided only he is consistent in his treatment of such books. Consistent, however, he is not; for while some books of this class are given in 'Initials and Pseudonyms,' the majority are to be found in 'Anonyms,' and a few are given in both works. So, too, we find 'Chrysal, or the Adventures of a Guinea, by an Adept,' 'Aureæ Sententiæ, by T. S.,' etc., recorded in 'Anonyms' as well as in 'Initials and Pseudonyms.'

It is to be regretted that Mr. Cushing did not follow the good example set by Halkett and Laing, and give the authority for his statements as to the authorship of anonymous works. In consequence of his neglect to do this, we have no clue to his sources of information, and are by no means convinced that his ascriptions of authorship are always to be relied upon. Take as an example the 'Collection of Yearly Bills of Mortality,' which he ascribes to T. Birch; Halkett and Laing attribute it to W. Heberden, and in a note say it "has been generally ascribed to Dr. Birch, but is now, on the authority of the author's son, the younger Dr. Heberden, attributed as above." In this

case few will be inclined to accept Mr. Cushing's simple assertion, unsupported by any authority.

Not only is the plan of the work open to objection, but its execution leaves much to be desired, both in accuracy and uniformity. Thus the entries of biographical articles seem to have been arranged at hap-hazard, sometimes under the forename and sometimes under the surname of the subject. For example, we find "Carlyle, Thomas," and "Charles Dickens," "Christopher Martin Wieland," and "Coleridge, Samuel Taylor," "Crofton Croker," and "Croker, John Wilson," among the entries under the letter C, while Dickens appears again in several entries under D. A similar lack of uniformity is shown in the names of British noblemen; thus we have "Rokeby, Morris Robinson, 3rd lord," "Dalrymple, John, 5th Earl of Stair," and, worst of all, "Perceval, Sir John, 1st Earl of Egmont."

In the spelling of proper names we find frequent evidences of carelessness; thus we have Bunson for Bunsen, Reuben Golet Thwaites for Reuben Gold Thwaites, Manduit for Mauduit, Arcadie College for Acadia College, etc. By a curious blunder, the 'Description of the Genesee Country' is ascribed to Charles Williamson O'Callaghan. It is by Charles Williamson, was first published in 1796, and was reprinted by E. B. O'Callaghan, in the 'Documentary History of the State of New York,' Vol. II (1849).

Apparently no effort has been made to ascertain the date of first publication of anonymous works, for, to say nothing of obvious errors, of which there are not a few, in some cases the date given is that of the eighth or tenth edition, while the date of Evelyn's 'A Character of England,' first published in 1659, is given as 1812.

Space forbids the enumeration of many omissions which might be noted; it is enough to say that a hasty comparison with the Astor and British Museum catalogues, and Sabin's Dictionary, shows that Mr. Cushing has not consulted these sources as carefully as he should have done. Therefore, though his work contains many additions to Halkett and Laing's Dictionary, it by no means supersedes it, and its usefulness is so greatly impaired by the defects of plan and execution that we cannot help wishing the author had been content to cover somewhat less ground, and had done his work more thoroughly and carefully.

Summer Holidays: Travelling Notes in Europe. By Theodore Child. Harper & Bros. 1889.

MR. CHILD is a very agreeable travelling companion, and his choice of places for a summer ramble is excellent. He looks upon the scene usually with the eyes of an artist, and renders the impression made upon the senses with considerable literary skill. Holland under this method of treatment becomes almost a new country, and harmonizes with our pictorial ideas of it in a way quite unusual. Materially, the country and its people are as prosaic in these pages as the worst of travellers describe them, but atmospherically and picturesquely they are all that the artists represent them. Mr. Child evidently had commonplace and dreary moments in the jaunt, but he got the one thing which the country has to give, and he describes it sympathetically. The Danube and Constantinople are less fresh than such a picture of Holland, and one is tempted to think that in Italy the author is upon altogether too familiar ground; but it is not so, because—apart from the inexhaustible beauty and sentiment of the land—he had the good judgment to go to Naples in midsummer, and the luck to be quarantined on the island of Nisita; and from such prosperous beginnings he went on to make the acquaintance of the native cuisine and the human gayety of the city, all in the bright weather, and so had the pleasantest summer holiday he remembers. When one enjoys so much, he usually writes well. Verona was another good city for his temperament. Finally, the French chapters—on Limoges, Reims, Aix-les-Bains, and especially the voyage on French rivers—are abundant in novelty and odd bits of interest, as well as in beauty of scene and sympathy. The papers are reprinted from magazines, and gain by being massed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, W. J. Battlefields of '61. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Caird, Prof. E. The Critical Philosophy of Immanuel Kant. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $7.50.
Century Magazine. May–Oct., 1889. The Century Co.
Davenport-Hill, Florence. Children of the State. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Day, Hester. A Snow Flower. James Pott & Co. 35 cents.
Fenn, G. M. The Haute Noblesse. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Gould, Elizabeth P. Gems from Walt Whitman. Philadelphia: David McKay. 50 cents.
Henley, W. E. A Century of Artists: A Memorial of the Glasgow International Exhibition, 1888. Macmillan & Co.
King, Richard A. Passion's Slave: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Lamb, Charles and Mary. Tales from Shakspere. Edited by Alfred Ainger. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Maupassant, G. de. The Odd Number. Harper & Bros.
McCarthy, J. Roland Oliver. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Molesworth, Mrs. The Rectory Children. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Oliver, N. T. Dr. Wilbur's Note-Book. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Perry, J. W. Treatise on the Law of Trusts and Trustees. 4th ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Philips, F. C. Young Mr. Ainslie's Courtship. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Reader, Emily E. Echoes of Thought: A Medley of Verse. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Shaler, Prof. N. S. Aspects of the Earth. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $4.
St. Nicholas. 1889. 2 vols. The Century Co.
Story, Alfred T. A Book of Vagrom Men and Vagrant Thoughts. London: Authors' Coöperative Pub. Co.
Taylor, C. J. In the "400" and Out. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Tennyson's Song of the Brook, illustrated by Wedworth Wadsworth. Cassell & Co. $2.50.
Tennyson's The Miller's Daughter. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Thomas Nast's Christmas Drawings for the Human Race. Harper & Bros.
Tolland, M. B. M. Legend Lamone. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Tuckerman, B. The Diary of Philip Hone, 1828–1851. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Wordsworth, W. Complete Works. 8 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $5.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1889.

The Week.

THE dénouement of the Brazilian revolution is a new thing in history, and shows how commercial is the age in which we live. An emperor who abdicates for a large sum in cash and an annuity is an absolute novelty in politics. Leopold of Belgium made a speech in 1848, from his palace windows, giving notice that he took the throne to accommodate the Belgians, and was ready to leave whenever they were dissatisfied, but he gave no hint that he should expect compensation in money, either in a lump sum or a pension. Amadeo also abandoned the Spanish throne in disgust, but made no terms. In every other case that we can recall, monarchs who have quitted their thrones under duress have gone off without any settlement, if not after a fight. The arrangement with the Emperor of Brazil will, therefore, probably constitute a most useful precedent, which many monarchs will think of with secret satisfaction. King Humbert, we believe, makes no secret of his readiness to retire from his Government whenever the country gives unmistakable proof of a desire to try something else. After what has happened in Brazil, he would undoubtedly expect a retiring allowance of some kind. The Sultan, too, who lives in hourly dread of being driven out of Constantinople, will probably now hold out, when the crisis comes, for a few millions in the way of salve. Nothing could more completely extinguish the old mediæval idea of "divine right." A right which can be appraised and extinguished by dollars and cents cannot be divine.

Senator Frye has expounded the objects of the Pan-American Congress. It is in the first place to show the South Americans our size and resources, and in the next place to get them to adopt us as the arbitrator in their quarrels; they being always, as the Senator politely remarks, "bordering on the ragged edge of revolution." Free trade with them he would on no account permit, except in one or two articles—sugar, for instance, and "a coarse kind of wool grown in South America." He also thought they might be got to adopt "a common silver coin," so as "to facilitate exchange, raise the price of silver, and possibly open some of the closed Western mines." He did not go on to explain how the adoption of a common silver coin would bring more silver into use. People would not use any more silver coins because they were "common," and, if not, how would the Western mines be reopened? But he says the main object of the appropriation was to get a number of their leading men to travel in this country and impress them with our greatness. This process, however, to be effectual, must be frequently repeated. The delegates now here will get old and lazy and stop talking about our greatness, and their sons and nephews will have to be brought on at our expense, and made to go over the old ground. There must also be some provision made for compelling these travellers to give a favorable account of what they see when they get home. If they belittle us, or speak falsely about us, they ought to be punished in some way.

We have received from the British Treasury Department an explanation of the discrepancy between *our* statement of the sums paid by the Imperial Government for the East India and China mail service, and the statement sent by Mr. J. M. Lachlan to Mr. William Eleroy Curtis, and published in a quasi-official document at Washington entitled 'Trade and Transportation between the United States and Latin America,' etc., Mr. Lachlan's statement, it will be remembered, purported to be taken from "the Blue Book, 34th Report of the British Postmaster-General for 1888, presented to both houses of Parliament by command of her Majesty; appendix G, pages 28 and 29," and is vouched for by Mr. Lachlan as "*a literal and verbatim transcript.*" But it appears from the letter we have now received that his statement was *not* a literal and verbatim transcript, but consisted of extract and compilation put together in such a way as to amount to a falsification of the record, making the payment for the East India and China mail service £360,000 larger than it really is. We publish below Mr. Lachlan's "literal and verbatim transcript," and the copy sent to us by a responsible officer of the Government:

MR. LACHLAN'S STATEMENT.

East India and China	£360,000
East India and China—	
Parcel	265,000
Post	2,075

TRUE COPY.

	Contracts.		Payment
	Commencement.	Termination.	
East India and China	1 Feb., 1880	31 Jan., 1888	£360,000
	1 Feb., 1888	31 Jan., 1898	265,000
	1 July, 1885	On six months' notice for parcels post	2,075

It will be noticed that the payment of £360,000 was on an old contract already expired, which had been replaced by a new one at a reduction of nearly £100,000 per year. Mr. Lachlan represented that both sums were paid simultaneously and at the present time, for he carried both into his total.

The following editorial paragraph, appearing originally in the Hartford *Courant*, is doing service in the high-tariff army:

"When the old Connecticut Western Railroad was built, *iron* rails were laid, and they cost $90 a ton. To-day steel rails can be bought for $30 to $32 a ton. The iron rail lasts but a little time; the steel rail is almost imperishable, and it costs but one-third what the iron one used to cost. Let us proceed to anathematize the tariff under whose iniquitous burden this reduction has come about."

The evident intent here is to induce belief that the existing tariff policy has occasioned the recent great reductions in the prices of iron and steel, and strikingly illustrates the manner in which journals claiming to be respectable deceive their readers for party purposes on the tariff question. This may, perhaps, seem to some a harsh accusation, but it is fully warranted, for there is not the shadow of a foundation for the position of the *Courant;* and the author of the paragraph, if he knew anything whatever on the subject, knew it was wholly false at the time he wrote it. There has been a great reduction in the price of iron and steel all the world over during the last thirty or forty years; but this has been due to improved methods of production, and not in the least degree to legislation on the tariff or any other subject. These improvements have mainly originated in Great Britain. So far, moreover, from our tariff policy having encouraged improvements in the manufacture of iron and steel, there is specific evidence that it has retarded their invention or adoption; inasmuch as, by guaranteeing a certain wholly artificial price and profit, it has encouraged the building of furnaces in places where they never ought to have been located, and the continued use of antiquated and wasteful methods of production long after they have been discontinued in other countries. Mr. David A. Wells in his recent book, 'Economic Changes,' has presented indubitable evidence that the aggregate excess of cost of the iron and steel consumed in the United States from 1878 to 1887, above that paid in Great Britain during the same period for a like quantity, has, by reason of our tariff policy, been at least $560,000,000, or an average of $56,000,000 per annum.

Mr. A. B. Valentine, Vermont State Commissioner of Agricultural and Manufacturing Interests, is imitating the example of his fellow-Commissioner in New Hampshire, Mr. Bachelder, in making efforts to secure fuller statistics of agricultural depression in his State, with a view to encouraging immigration. He has just addressed to the "Listers" of every Vermont town a schedule of interrogatories to be filled out and returned to him "for the information of the Legislature, and perhaps for general distribution." These interrogatories relate to the number of abandoned farms in each town, their acreage, the nature of the soil, and the price for which they may be bought, with particulars regarding maple-sugar orchards and the number and condition of the farm buildings. The Commissioner desires like information of farms which are still occupied, but "which can be bought at about the same price as those unoccupied"—an expression very significant as showing that the extent of the agricultural depression is not exhibited by a list of abandoned farms. The questions "How many unoccupied school-houses now standing in your town?" and "How many school-houses once standing

have now gone to decay?" are full of further melancholy suggestion in a State which, Mr. Valentine says, "is entitled to be the leading Eastern State for the raising of horses, for the products of the dairy, and for general agricultural prosperity." The Commissioner thinks that "great benefit to the State must come from this movement," which he says is "to bring our waste places under cultivation, and refill our abandoned farm and school-houses." But supposing a new population to be brought in by immigration, is it to be expected, whencesoever it may come, that it will be shrewder, thriftier, more intelligent, more industrious, than the native New England population? No Vermonter will allow this. How, then, can the new people, under the same conditions, succeed, when the others failed?

There seems to be no doubt that the political overturning in Iowa will result in the repeal of the prohibitory law, and the substitution of a local-option and high-license system. The Democratic platform declared explicitly for such a system, with a minimum license fee of $500, and Gov.-elect Boies has taken occasion since the election to announce that he will approve no measure which falls short of this. The Legislature is so close that, if the Democrats vote solidly for the repeal of prohibition, less than half-a-dozen Republican votes will be needed, and a number of Republican politicians and editors have declared that they thought Republican members would be justified in bowing to the will of the people, which was so plainly expressed in the contest for Governor, and would have been manifested in the election of a Democratic Legislature also but for the Republican gerrymander of the State.

An amusing objection is made by the few opponents of the Australian ballot system who are now to be found that, in its recent trial in Massachusetts, more persons voted for the candidates for Governor than for other State officers. It is argued that they failed to vote for others either through ignorance or sheer laziness, contenting themselves with making a mark of approval opposite one name only. There is no evidence that there were more cases of this kind in the Massachusetts election than usual. In every election more votes are cast for the leading candidates on the ticket than for the others. Many persons do not vote for local candidates at all who vote invariably for candidates for the principal State and national offices. A ballot system which shall compel every voter to vote the entire ticket, or none at all, is yet to be devised. If it were to be put in operation, it would disfranchise thousands of voters in every election, especially in large cities, where it happens often that for a majority of the local offices not a candidate is named for whom an honest man can bring himself to vote.

There is a good deal of explaining and re-explaining on the part of Gov. Foraker and Mr. Halstead of the way they came to be so wofully deceived about that ballot-box paper that contained the forged signatures of Mr. Campbell, Senator Sherman, and Congressmen McKinley and Butterworth. It appears by the latest accounts that the paper was first put into the hands of Foraker, but that when he saw the signatures of his Republican friends, he was dumfounded. He saw that it was a petard and that somebody would be hoist by it. Not liking to be that person, he said: "I can't have anything to do with this, Halstead, but I will turn it over to you," which he forthwith did. Halstead took it and proceeded to experiment with it, with the results already known. The next time Gov. Foraker gets a queer-looking box which he suspects may contain dynamite, he will perhaps know enough to turn it over to the police instead of putting it in the hands of his next friend.

The Milwaukee *Sentinel* wishes to know our opinion of the following letter:

> My Dear Mr. Depew: I don't often ask for favors in the way of passes, but if I could get an annual pass, good until January 1, over the New York Central Railroad—and it would suit me better if I could get it from New York to Erie—in favor of Harry Butterfield, it would be a great advantage to me in my fight here in this district.
>
> Although you are a Republican and I am a Democrat, we do not differ much in regard to our views in connection with corporate property, and I may be able to serve these interests should I pull through again.
>
> I am sure the pass would not be used three times between now and January 1.
>
> Yours truly, W. L. Scott.
>
> Erie, Pa., September 25, 1886.

We have no hesitation in saying that it was a most improper letter for the Honble. William L. Scott to write. To its further question, "Is the Honble. William L. Scott a rascal?" we answer that the evidence before us is not sufficient to warrant a decided judgment on this point. This letter may have been the first offence, or it may have been the last such letter written by a man who is now deeply penitent. If we knew what the opinion of the *Sentinel* would be of a Republican who had written such a letter, it would help us greatly in making up our mind. But that the letter shows that there are elements of badness in Mr. Scott's nature is, we think, beyond question. Why a man should so debase himself for six railroad fares between New York and Erie we cannot conceive.

The Kentucky newspapers are preaching vigorously against street fighting on the text furnished by the Swope-Goodloe tragedy. The remedies proposed are various, the most futile being a more rigid enforcement of the law against carrying concealed weapons. The most promising is simply the improvement of Kentucky civilization, a task of considerable difficulty and not to be accomplished in one year or perhaps in ten. The honors paid to the two victims of the late butchery are undoubtedly having an effect on the rising generation, which will not soon wear itself out. The first step to be taken is some rearrangement of the virtues which will put physical courage lower down in the scale. In Kentucky, just now, it occupies the place assigned to it in all barbarous countries—that is, the very highest. There appears to be a presumption in the State against the possession of it by anybody, and this has to be overthrown by readiness to take offence and engage in street fights. It will only go down, as it has gone down in other countries, by the growth of habits of legality. If any one asks how these habits are to be cultivated, the answer is by every agency which multiplies laudable social interests, religion, literature, science and art, trade and commerce.

We have received from time to time copies of a map and diagram showing "why St. Louis is the place for the World's Fair of 1892." The map has three circles, each drawn upon a radius of 500 miles, having their centres at New York, Chicago, and St. Louis respectively, accompanied by tables showing the railroad mileage and the population embraced in each. Thus it appears that within the St. Louis circle there are 77,571 miles of railway and 30,584,905 inhabitants, in the Chicago circle 54,801 miles of railway and 27,430,779 inhabitants, while in the New York circle there are only 34,369 miles of railway and 24,385,707 inhabitants. This might be called "reasoning in a circle." But why, we venture to ask, should miles of railway count for more than miles of waterway? New York is so situated that one-half of her circle falls in the Atlantic Ocean, but the number of miles of highway there is sufficient to bring New York to the head of the list. Moreover, it is not mere population that ought to be counted, but population that is likely to attend a World's Fair. Who so likely to attend as those who are brought into its neighborhood in the course of their ordinary travel? Why not add to the New York list the people who go down to the sea in ships and do business in great waters—that is, all who embark here for Europe, the West Indies, Central America, and South America, and all who return hither? If these are reckoned at their true value for World's Fair purposes, New York will take the first place under the St. Louis schedule. If "reasoning in a circle" is applicable to the World's Fair, New York might draw one that would be very much to her advantage. By taking one with a radius of ten miles from the City Hall she could enclose three times the population that could be found within any ten-mile radius at Chicago or St. Louis. This kind of a circle would be very much to the purpose, because it is pretty certain that all the people within ten miles of the World's Fair, except children under four years of age, will visit it at least once, while the same cannot be said of all those within 500 miles.

It seems clear that things are growing better rather than worse in regard to the saloon evil in this city. The President of the Board of Excise is quoted as saying that New York now has fewer saloons, in proportion to the population, than any other city within seventy-five miles of Madison Square, and that this advantage is steadily increasing by reason of the rules regarding licenses now enforced. One of these rules is that no new license shall be granted until an old one has been revoked, and another that whenever an

application for renewal of license is not made within a certain time, the license becomes a dead letter, and it cannot be renewed, nor can another be issued in its place. By the adoption of these administrative methods the number of places where liquor is sold by the glass has been reduced from 8,219 on the 31st of December, 1887, to 7,310 on the 15th of July, 1889, and there has been a further reduction by 15 or 20 since the latter date. There has thus been a decided decrease in the number of saloons within the past two years, and a still more marked improvement in the ratio of saloons to population, inasmuch as the number of inhabitants has largely increased during this period.

The figures of the Manhattan Railway Company's annual report give ample explanation of the too obvious fact that its cars are uncomfortably crowded during the busy hours of morning and afternoon. The total number of passengers carried on the four lines during the year ending September 30 last was over 179,000,000, or, in round numbers, an average of 491,700 a day. This was about 8,000,000 more than the same lines carried during the preceding year. Of the 179,000,000, the Third Avenue Line carried nearly 70,000,000, or an average of about 192,000 a day; the Sixth Avenue Line carried over 58,000,000, or a daily average of about 160,000; the Second Avenue Line carried over 33,000,000, or a daily average of over 90,000; and the Ninth Avenue carried over 18,000,000, or a daily average of nearly 50,000. The increase has not been uniform on the four lines, the Third Avenue carrying 1,600,000 of it, or nearly 5,000 a day more than during the previous year; the Sixth Avenue carrying over 5,000,000 of it, or a daily increase of about 14,000; the Second Avenue carrying about 800,000 of it, or a daily increase of over 2,000; and the Ninth Avenue over 300,000, or a daily increase of about 850. It will be noticed that the Sixth Avenue Line has carried more of the increase than all the other lines combined, five of the eight millions of additional travellers going into the already crowded cars of that road. This is striking testimony to the really marvellous growth of the west side.

It is no slight feat in railroad management to "handle" nearly a half-million passengers a day without serious accident, but this is what the Manhattan Company has succeeded in doing. There have been from time to time slight accidents, but they are trivial when the enormous amount of the traffic is taken into account. That there is a vast amount of discomfort for thousands of people every morning and every evening is unquestioned, but this is due not to defects of management, but to the inadequacy of the system to meet the demands upon it. No management can accomplish the impossible, and it is the impossible which confronts the Manhattan Company every day of its existence. The overcrowding will be much worse this winter than it was last, and it was nearly intolerable then. There is no remedy but a new and comprehensive system of rapid transit, either above or below ground; and until the public gets that, it must make up its mind to find the work of getting from one end of the city to the other a steadily increasing hardship.

Tammany is throwing "Turner the Iceman" overboard as a candidate for the Sixth District in Congress, owing to the discovery that he was once a lieutenant in the Salvation Army. In what way this disqualifies him, from the Tammany point of view, is not very clear. But the fact that so little was known of the "Iceman's" antecedents, shows what pitfalls lie in Tammany's path in choosing candidates. The Convention is to meet to-morrow, and it is now said that the "Iceman" will be remorselessly set aside. His having once belonged to a religious organization of a somewhat uproarious character will more than counterbalance his poverty and his connection as a driver of a cart with the business of distributing ice, and, we may add, his unquestioned democracy of sentiment and opinion. In his contest with Mr. Lispenard Stewart in the Eighth District for the Senate, he pressed Stewart hard with the charge of keeping a man-servant and having white hands, displaying the horniness and discoloration of his own with much effect to the assembled multitude. Surely these things ought to wipe out the Salvation Army stain.

Sympathy is certainly due to Miss Caldwell, the American heiress who did not marry Prince Murat, if it be true that that pampered descendant of an innkeeper said, when taking leave of her: "Mademoiselle, the offer you make is too liberal for a butler, but not liberal enough for a husband." This was in reference to the sum of $10,000 per year for pocket money which Miss Caldwell proposed to allow him, in addition to the expenses of the household. Everybody must agree that $10,000 ought to suffice for a man whose board-bill, wines, opera-box, and horse-keeping are already provided for. He can hardly spend more than $2,000 on clothes in the present state of the fashions. He could not possibly smoke $500 worth of cigars in a year without undermining his health. The travelling expenses of an elderly married man ought not to exceed $1,500, in all conscience. This leaves $6,000 surplus, which would be a great temptation to gambling if the Prince were addicted to that vice, but we believe he is not. Probably Miss Caldwell, mindful of the inconveniences attending a surplus in her own country, thought she was doing the Prince a service in not exposing him to such embarrassments. However that may be, we must say that the young woman exhibited prudence beyond her years. The unfeeling remark attributed to the Prince about the butler and the husband deserves a rebuke from the American Minister at Paris.

Mr. J. E. C. Bodley, writing in the last *Nineteenth Century* an interesting and highly sympathetic article on "Roman Catholicism in America" and its great progress during the past century, says that if "the elder branches" of the Church are well advised, "they will look to America to provide the Church Universal with a ruler," or, in other words, will make a Pope out of one of the American Cardinals. This would be a break with the tradition of the last three centuries and a half, which prescribes that the Pope shall invariably be an Italian. It has been already weakened by the loss of Rome as the Papal Capital, but there is little doubt that if it were once broken, and all the Catholic nations admitted to competition for the tiara, the fixity of policy which now gives the Church so much of its dignity and authority would soon go. She would soon become as changeable as all other organizations, and, though change is a law of the universe, it is only the unchangeable which commands the highest reverence of the race. Every new Pope would have new views, and the College of Cardinals would became a "progressive institution."

Parnell has failed in his attempt to get his suit against the London *Times* pushed to trial now, the *Times* having early in the summer obtained a postponement on the ground that it would not be fair to try the case until the Parnell Commission had put in their report. This order, obtained from a judge in chambers, has been confirmed by the full bench, so that the case will now probably not be heard till March or April. Among the new things which it is said will appear on it, is Pigott's diary, which some of the Home-Rulers were shrewd enough to get hold of with some other papers as soon as the news of his suicide arrived. The Parnell Commission's report is said to be nearly ready, and if Sir Henry James's speech does not necessitate serious modifications in it, might now be sent in at almost any time. The interest in it will probably be greater than seemed likely after the Pigott exposure. It will undoubtedly furnish materials for a great many stump speeches on both sides. The impartiality and fulness with which the *Times* has reported the proceedings of the Commission is, under the circumstances, a remarkable example of "journalism" in the highest and widest sense of that much abused term. But it is not more remarkable than the fulness and impartiality with which the same paper reports the speeches of the leading English politicians on both sides all over the country. Not one word or phrase is omitted, no matter how hardly it may bear on the *Times* itself or on the cause with which it is associated. No ridicule or caricature or burlesque, and no attempt to belittle any meeting of its political opponents, are ever allowed to find its way into any report. Everything is described exactly as it occurs. The value of such a newspaper to a free and active political community can hardly be overestimated, in spite of the character of its editorial columns, in which one finds all the usual faults of partisan journalism. There its opponents are all the usual journalistic fools and knaves and humbugs and simpletons and demagogues and liars.

NEW SILVER PROJECTS.

SINCE the results of the November elections became known there have been outgivings at Washington from time to time that the Administration was about to astonish the country with a new silver policy. According to one set of authorities, the President was to recommend the calling of a new international conference to promote bimetallism. According to others, he was to recommend free coinage—*i. e.*, the silver standard in place of the gold standard. Still others believed that the suggestion would be made that Congress pass a declaratory resolution in favor of increasing the monthly coinage of silver dollars from $2,000,000 to $4,000,000 per month, although the discretion to do so is already lodged with the Secretary of the Treasury by law. Whatever the forthcoming proposal might be, it was suspected by the opposition that the main object would be to create a new issue in politics in order to divert public attention from the tariff, since upon the latter question the Republican party is somewhat divided against itself, and is manifestly losing ground.

The Washington correspondent of the *Evening Post* furnishes an explanation of the riddle which we think will prove to be the correct one. He tells us that Secretary Windom will ask Congress to authorize him to issue silver certificates in exchange for *bullion* deposited at any of the mints or assay offices, provided, however, that this bullion shall be the product of American mines exclusively, no Mexican stuff or German Treasury slops being allowed; that the coinage of bullion into dollars be left discretionary with the Secretary as to amount, so that it may be governed by the public demand for such dollars; that the certificates be issued on the basis of the *market value* of the bullion expressed in *dollars* at the time of issue, not in ounces, because the certificates are intended to be used as currency; and finally that the Secretary be authorized to sell silver as well as to buy, in order to give the Government some control over the market instead of being at the mercy of silver-producers and speculators.

This scheme, if correctly outlined, is the most fantastic of all the devices put forth for dealing with silver since the present Coinage Act went into effect. The objections to it are so numerous that they cannot be treated in a single article, but we may enumerate some of them. We now have six kinds of currency, not including the fractional currency or small change, viz., gold dollars, silver dollars, gold certificates, silver certificates, greenbacks, and national-bank notes. Three of these, the gold dollars, the silver dollars, and the greenbacks, are legal tender; the bank notes are legal tender when offered to national banks only; the certificates, being merely evidences of deposit like warehouse receipts, are not legal tender. No confusion has arisen from this multifariousness since the Government has kept all the different kinds of dollars at par with gold. It is now proposed to add a seventh to the list, and what is this seventh? It is another warehouse receipt, a receipt for bullion expressed in the form of dollars. Is it to be legal tender? Apparently not. It would hardly be thought proper to give a higher character to receipts for bullion than to receipts for coin. Is the Government to stand in the gap and protect the holders of these receipts in case silver declines in value after the receipts are issued? This would seem to be necessary, since otherwise the certificates would have no currency. They would not circulate. Nobody would accept them at par to-day unless he were assured that they would be at par to-morrow.

Other questions will suggest themselves to any instructed person who examines the project. What measures, for example, can be taken to insure that only American silver shall be taken on deposit? Silver is admitted, duty free, under our tariff. All silver is alike. The country is full of silver spoons and forks and household utensils, some of which are always going into the melting-pot. Is this kind of bullion to be taken on deposit? But the question of foremost importance relates to the legal-tender character of the certificates, and this looms up before the free-coinage party, whose Convention is to meet at St. Louis on the 26th inst. This party will not accept Mr. Windom's plan as a compromise. They are determined now to have all or nothing. But they cannot make an inch of progress unless they can have the character of legal tender impressed upon silver certificates, for if the American people are put to the necessity of lugging silver about in their clothes or in wagons, they will reject the silver standard with loathing just as soon as they have practical experience of it. What the legal difficulties are, and how great a transformation the "legal tendering" of certificates would produce in our system of Government, Mr. John Jay Knox gave us some idea of in his speech at the recent Bankers' Convention at Kansas City, which our readers will find reported in the *Independent* of last week.

MR. GIFFEN ON THE BIMETALLISTS.

MR. ROBERT GIFFEN, the English economist, has allowed himself for some years back—four or five certainly—to be quoted and vaunted by the bimetallists as a supporter of their theory. His patience or connivance, however, seems at last to be exhausted, and he has administered to them, in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century*, one of the severest rebuffs they have ever received. He says he has "been frequently claimed by the bimetallists as going a long way with them," "but in no respect," he says, "do I go any way with the bimetallists, not even the fraction of an inch; and apart from the interest of the present problem itself, I am the more ready to avail myself of the opportunity of discussing it because it enables me to explain how different is my own view of the relation between the quantity of money and prices from that quantitative theory of money which is the foundation of the bimetallic theory itself."

His difference with the bimetallists is briefly this: They assume that the monetary use of the precious metals is the preponderating use. He maintains that the non-monetary use is the preponderant use—that is, that the quantity of the precious metals used for other purposes than money, in the form of plate and ornaments and hoards, is greater than the amount used for coin; that the stock of gold in England alone used in plate, watches, and jewelry equals probably £50,000,000, while the stock of gold coin is about £60,000,000, and the stock of silver held in non-monetary uses is two or three times the amount held in money, which is about £20,000,000. He says the demand for gold for non-monetary uses is almost equal to the entire annual production, and the demand for silver for such uses about half the annual production. All such silver and gold is merchandise simply. Coin used for hoarding—that is, either as hidden treasure, or as the reserves of banks or the guarantee of paper money and checks—he treats as simple merchandise, or at all events as non-monetary metal. Token money, or quasi-token money, he also treats as non-monetary merchandise. He treats as money only that part of the precious metals which is actually in circulation for the daily buying and selling of the community, the demand for which is regulated by the habits and customs of the people, and in ordinary times varies very little, or is nearly a fixed quantity per head of population. He also treats as merchandise that portion of money used as a guarantee of wholesale payments between one country and another. The demands on this are demands for merchandise, and when more money is wanted they supply it in the ordinary way. In fact, the whole stock of gold is a reservoir from which the demand for money—always imperious—can at any time be satisfied.

His general conclusion is, therefore, that the ratio of exchange between gold and silver and other articles can only be fixed by the influences which affect those articles, and that, far from gold and silver fixing the price of other articles, it is the price of other articles which fixes the price of gold and silver. There is absolutely no difference in gold and silver from any other merchandise, and the theories which presuppose some special and peculiar difference, because the precious metals are used for money, are a "palpable delusion." He also denies that gold and silver are for monetary uses interchangeable, because they do not serve the same purpose. They perform different functions. One answers the needs of rich and advanced communities, the other that of poor and struggling ones; and on this point he turns against the bimetallists the experience of France—their great *cheval de bataille*.

He then goes on to examine how a "theory so baseless as the [bimetallic] theory came to be formed." "After so much bimetallic clamor as we have had, sober men," he says, "may be interested to see how overwhelming is the economic opinion against the bimetallist, and how little claim bimetallism has to be a competing monetary theory with monometallism." The origin of the

delusion he finds in Sismondi. No other economist of any standing has, until our time, given any countenance to it. Sismondi based it, he maintains, on a blunder as to the facts of French coinage, and "is no authority on this question, never having studied it at all." He winds up with the following very discouraging remarks on the labors of our bimetallist friends:

"Such as he is, however, Sismondi is not only the original but he is still the leading authority, as far as I know, for the bimetallic view, and I know of no fuller exposition of the theory of a fixed ratio, which appears simply to have grown like a fungus, assimilating any other theory which happened to be handy, as it has done with the quantitative theory of money. Not only are there no exponents of the bimetallic theory to set against the exponents of the monometallic theory, which has a greater array of economic authority on its side than almost any other conclusion which can be named, but there is no consistent exposition of principles and facts anywhere which can be appealed to at all by the bimetallic rank and file.

"There is nothing, therefore, in the genesis and development of the bimetallic theory of a pool of money and an interchange between gold and silver to entitle it to any respect. The theory is itself rotten throughout, as we have seen, and it is of bastard origin altogether. It is not in the line of economic tradition at all, paving the way for something better, as a first hypothesis to explain difficult facts, and useful, therefore, notwithstanding errors, in the historical study of the subject. It comes, on the contrary, after a true and sufficient theory had been expounded by the greatest authorities, on which the student must still fall back, passing over altogether the bimetallic theorists, who have only interrupted and obstructed the study."

A MORAL FROM LEXINGTON.

THE Lexington tragedy has attracted the attention of the whole country, and provoked earnest discussion from the entire press, North and South. This is natural and proper. When things have come to such a pass that the Kentucky member of the National Committee of one of the great parties slashes a fellow-partisan to death, and is killed himself, in a fight that grew out of an ordinary political difference, it is certainly time to stop and think.

The first idea that occurs to many people, especially if they belong to the school which believes in a paternal government, is that something ought to be done by law to stop such things. It is, of course, a shocking outrage that men of such standing in their community as Goodloe and Swope should go about day after day expecting to kill or be killed—or both, as actually happened. The State ought to prevent it, short-sighted people may naturally say; and, indeed, if they are extremely near-sighted, it would not be strange if they should say, that, if the State will not or cannot stop it, the Federal Government should interfere.

But a moment's reflection will show how absurd it is to think of putting a stop to such slaughters as the recent one at Lexington by passing a law. The State of Kentucky has long had a law designed to guard the sanctity of human life, which forbids the carrying of concealed weapons; but the existence of that law did not prevent Goodloe from carrying the knife which he expected to thrust into Swope's body, or Swope from carrying the pistol which he expected to discharge into Goodloe's body. Nor would the affixing of heavier penalties than now exist for the breaking of this law have deterred either Colonel from breaking it every day. The only thing which will prevent Col. Goodloe's successor as the Kentucky member of the Republican National Committee from carrying a knife and slashing a political rival to death, if what he considers to be the occasion arises, will be the development of a public sentiment which condemns a man for such conduct in Kentucky just as Senator Sherman would be condemned in Ohio, or Congressman Dingley in Maine, if either of them should kill a fellow-partisan for no better reason.

There is a moral in this Lexington incident for such men as Senator Sherman, Congressman Dingley, and the other Republicans who talk as though the troubles about elections in many Southern States could be removed by the simple device of passing a Federal election law. "Unless something can be done by Congress to secure fair elections," said Mr. Dingley's Lewiston *Journal* the other day, "we may as well make up our minds that, outside of Kentucky, Missouri, and Tennessee (where there was a large Union white element, and where the black vote is small), the South will be held solidly Democratic in all elections, even though the Republicans have large majorities of the votes." Many other Republican newspapers take the same view as the *Journal*, that the whole difficulty is only a matter of law—or, rather, of the absence of law—and that if Congress will only enact a statute, there will be no further trouble.

The difficulty about elections at the South grows out of the admission to the suffrage of a race only recently released from slavery and destitute of the qualifications required to participate in the Government. Of the many hundreds of thousands of negroes in the South suddenly invested with the ballot twenty years ago, there were probably not 5,000 who would have been entitled to vote under the educational qualification enforced in Massachusetts. Just before these ignorant Southern negroes were given the ballot by the legislation and constitutional amendments of the reconstruction era, Kansas—"bleeding Kansas"—voted (in 1867) nearly two to one against allowing the few stray colored men in that strongly Republican State to exercise the suffrage. It is the plain truth, which will be confessed by every candid man, that there is not a Republican State in the North which, if by some sudden transformation of its electorate it had suddenly come to have a majority of its voters composed of ignorant and often barbarous negroes, as occurred in South Carolina and Mississippi, would have allowed that majority to rule. What has happened in the South would have been inevitable under similar circumstances in the North.

Fair play for the negro will come in any State only when public sentiment demands and enforces it. Kansas again illustrates how slow is the growth of this sentiment under the most favorable circumstances. A good many negroes migrated from the lower Mississippi Valley into that State about ten years ago, and in 1882 the Republicans nominated a colored man for Auditor. There was no objection to him except his color, and yet his color alone cut down his vote in the State 13,122 below the white candidate for Secretary of State. Only two weeks ago, in the county which includes Topeka, the capital of the State, a colored candidate for County Clerk came within 314 votes of getting beaten simply because he was colored, while white candidates on the same ticket received majorities of 1,225 and more.

The situation in the South is only an aggravation of what still exists in Kansas. That State has advanced beyond the point it occupied twenty years ago, when its whites voted nearly two to one against allowing the few blacks to vote at all, but the black man, because of his color, still runs the risk of defeat when he is a candidate for office. Common sense should teach us to expect the prejudice against the negro to be infinitely stronger and far more lasting in the South than in Kansas. It is that prejudice which stands in the way of his having fair play in elections. He will enjoy equal rights only when the public sentiment of the South condemns that prejudice. Neither the legislative nor the executive department of the Federal Government, nor both combined, can remove that prejudice or prevent its effects at the polls, because any legislation which might be enacted would depend ultimately for its enforcement, as all laws everywhere depend, upon the public sentiment of the community, which is still governed by that prejudice.

Congressman Dingley might just as reasonably say that, unless Congress can do something to make men like Goodloe and Swope stop carrying concealed weapons, we must expect Lexington tragedies, as to say that, unless Congress can do something to secure fair elections at the South, we must expect intimidation and fraud. Lexington tragedies will cease when Kentucky sentiment condemns them—not before. Unfair elections at the South will cease when public sentiment in the South condemns them—not before. Kentucky must work out her own salvation in this matter of deadly encounters between "gentlemen"; and in like manner, as Mr. Dingley's Republican colleague, Mr. Butterworth, has well said of the election matter, "the South will have to work out its own salvation." In both cases there is likely to be great occasion for patience on the part of outsiders.

STREET CLEANING.

A MORNING contemporary, speculating on the reasons why the streets of New York are no better as regards cleanliness than those of Constantinople, says:

"Why is it that we are thus behind the capitals of Europe in our civic arrangements and our municipal administration? It is not that our people are less intelligent or energetic, less wealthy or less willing to contribute of their wealth for public purposes, than those of London, Paris, Berlin, and Vienna. In fact, they pay heavy taxes, and would certainly pay them ungrudgingly if they could see the results in solid public improvements. They would be willing to pay for fine docks, grand boulevards, good pavements, clean and well-lighted streets, handsome public buildings, and all the appointments of a first-class metropolitan city if they

had any assurance of getting them by a liberal and at the same time honest and economical expenditure of their money. There's the rub."

That is not "the rub" at all. The taxpayers of New York pay the bills that the tax-gatherer presents to them, because they must. They pay, not because they like to, but because their property will be levied on and sold if they do not pay. Whether these bills are for street cleaning, or for water supply, or for policemen's salaries, they do not particularly inquire. They know that the law possesses enginery to enforce payment, and therefore they pay. Some few make a practice of going before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and giving their opinion on the subject of the specific needs of the city. Of this small number who show themselves once a year inside the rooms of the tax-levying authorities, not one in ten ever urges that more money should be spent for street cleaning. Nor are they at all concerned lest the street-cleaning money should not be honestly expended. Nine out of ten of them are large taxpayers, who are only concerned to keep the total appropriation down to the smallest aggregate sum. A few who are moved by public spirit ask for larger appropriations for school-buildings or charities or some specific purpose in which they feel an interest.

The real "rub" is that the people of New York do not appreciate clean streets until they have made a journey to Europe and seen the difference between clean streets and dirty ones. They go away from home thinking that New York is about as fine a thing in the way of a modern city as can be found anywhere. The average condition of its streets is a subject that is hardly ever in their minds, they are so used to filth under foot. After making a tour of Europe, longer or shorter, their first exclamation after landing at home is, "How confoundedly dirty the streets are!" Although they may not have noticed the streets of London, Paris, Berlin, or the lesser towns at all during their absence, yet the contrast comes upon them suddenly when they disembark at home, and they then perceive that they have been made acquainted in the Old World with one mark and achievement of civilization that they had never felt the want of, namely, clean streets. Then they feel ashamed of themselves, of their city, and of their country for a few weeks, and perhaps they write a letter to the newspapers. But soon they get immersed in their business or their pleasures, and gradually the fit passes off. They become again used to mud, torn newspapers, telegraph tape, horse droppings, ashes, and garbage. These things become part of their daily life, like the weather, and they think no more about them until they go abroad again. The one thing they never think of at all is what the *Times* calls "the rub." They never say to themselves, "We would go in for clean streets if we were not afraid that the politicians would steal the money." That idea applies to every kind of improvement and every kind of expenditure, but not to street cleaning more than to other things.

No, the real reason why we do not have clean streets is that, upon the whole, we do not care for them. We can have what we do care for, beyond a doubt. The politicians will give us anything that we really want. Tammany Hall would as soon spend money for street cleaning as for any other purpose, and would not steal or waste any larger percentage of it than on school-buildings, or armories, or other municipal undertakings. Whenever the citizens rise up and say, in thunder tones, "We demand better streets," all the politicians on the Island of Manhattan—all who are in office or expect soon to be—will join in the chorus. They will have the same fits of cleanliness that the majority have. Brooms, mops, shovels, buckets, sapolio, pearline will be the insignia of Tammany Hall, the County Democracy, and the Republican Machine whenever these things become popular. And the stealings and squanderings, we repeat, will not be more in proportion than in any other municipal expenditure.

Mr. Andrew D. White in his comparison between New York and Constantinople has exaggerated nothing. He might have gone further into the Orient to find a parallel to the habitual condition of our side streets. He might have taken Smyrna or Bagdad for example without doing any violence to the truth. Except Broadway and Fifth Avenue and the cross streets in the wealthy quarter where private enterprise supplements the efforts of the street-cleaning forces, the streets are grimy and unsightly in dry weather, inky and pasty in wet weather, and unwholesome in all weathers, just like the alleys of Turkey, Persia, and Morocco. It is certainly not more difficult to keep the east side of New York in good condition than the East End of London. Yet the streets of the East End of London are kept clean. Whatever may be said of the interiors of the houses, the thoroughfares are always fit for a civilized people to walk or drive in. And yet London has more dirt to contend with than we have, because she uses soft coal, and has a moist climate, and she uses less water per capita. The combination of soot and fog peculiar to that city adds much to the difficulty of keeping the streets clean, yet the difficulty is overcome not merely in the aristocratic quarters, but in all the quarters of that mighty metropolis. The cities of the continent are even better swept and garnished than London.

The vice of bad streets is an American vice. Some of our large cities are more tidy than New York, but some are worse. Boston is an example—by no means striking, however—of the former and Chicago of the latter. Taking the country as a whole, dirty streets are the rule and clean ones the exception. We had best acknowledge the truth that we are lacking or lagging in civilization. Our want of appreciation of street cleanliness is akin to our want of appreciation of the fine arts. As we discourage systematically the importation of pictures and statuary by onerous taxes, imposing, for example, a fine of $15,000 for the introduction of a portrait by Rembrandt and $40,000 for the "Angelus," not for any purpose of protection, but in sheer barbaric spite, it is no wonder that the same animus should make little account of muddy boots, and should look upon clean ones as a reproach to democracy.

A REMARKABLE JUDICIAL DECISION.

THE recent decision of Justice Williams, at Utica, in the case of Peters vs. Borst, concerning the ownership of a star-catalogue, is of as much interest to the public at large as to professional astronomers. It will surprise every one to learn that the results of more than three years' assiduous labor of a brother and two sisters, performed "for love" in the privacy of the home circle, may become the property of another party without any compensation whatever. Still more surprising must it be to learn that, in addition to supplying the results of their work gratuitously, they may be compelled to pay the claimant a round sum in cash as interest on its estimated value from the time that they refused to surrender it to him.

The circumstances under which this curious legal decision has been rendered are worth recounting. The plaintiff is an eminent astronomer, a professor in Hamilton College, and the director of its observatory. The defendant was an assistant in the observatory, whose salary was paid by a benefactor of the College. The plaintiff, like many other working astronomers, sorely felt the need that innumerable observations of stars scattered through astronomical publications of every kind should be collected and published in the form of a single convenient catalogue. He had for many years been in the habit of collecting the books necessary for this work, and from time to time had made calculations which might ultimately prove useful in forming such a catalogue. But he found the work so far beyond his power that he does not ever seem to have entertained the idea of bringing it to a conclusion. When the defendant became his assistant, he suggested to him that it would be a creditable thing for a young astronomer like himself to take up this work and carry it through. The defendant accepted the advice, took the papers which his chief had already prepared, and devoted to the work all the time he could spare from his regular duties in the observatory.

What had already been done was so desultory that he found it advantageous to begin the work all over from the beginning. He was aided in the early stages of the work by the counsel and suggestions of the plaintiff, but this aid became unnecessary after he fully understood the subject. At the end of some two or three years the labor of collating and reducing the great mass of observations was found to be so heavy that the chief astronomer, who had passed his seventieth year, might not live to see its completion. His assistant then informed him that his two sisters could render efficient help in carrying on the work and enable him to bring it to a more rapid completion. He took the papers home, and, by the combined labors of the three through some two years more, the work was nearly ready for publication about the beginning of 1888.

So far all had been done without any well-defined agreement as to the ownership or respective rights in it of the chief and his assistant; or, at least, the parties were not agreed as to what the understanding was. The defendant thought it now time to have the understanding placed beyond doubt, and handed his chief a copy of his proposed title-page, stating the respective shares of the two parties in the work. The plaintiff hastily read the paper, threw it into the fire, turned to the defendant, and said, "Bring me all that manuscript." The defendant refused. The plaintiff then brought a suit in replevin, claiming possession of the catalogue as his own personal property.

On the trial the plaintiff adduced no expert evidence except his own to show that the supervision which he claimed to have exercised over the work in its earlier stages was of any importance, or that he had done anything to entitle himself to the right of sole ownership under the custom of scientific men. What evidence he did bring forward was mainly intended to show that the defendant had, in letters and conversation, spoken of the work as belonging to the plaintiff, and that the latter had himself always so believed. He denied ever having agreed that the catalogue should be published as the work of the defendant, while the latter testified that he had so agreed, constructively at least, in desiring him to take up the work without any other compensation than the credit and reputation he would thereby secure. The defendant also called to the stand two of the eminent astronomers of the country, Profs. Asaph Hall of the Naval Observatory and Lewis Boss of the Dudley Observatory, who both testified to the great value of the service rendered by the sisters in computing the "precessions" of some 35,000 stars. It was also shown that, by the industry of the compilers, the catalogue had doubled in size without the plaintiff seeing it or asking to see it.

The Court finds for the plaintiff, and not only awards him the entire catalogue without conditions, but some $240 in money as damages for not receiving it at the time the suit was commenced. In reviewing the evidence, the Judge finds that the plaintiff conceived the idea of the catalogue and gave it the great benefit of his "nice discrimination." He construes evidence in a way which, we venture to say, has no parallel in a court of law. For example, it is known to most astronomers that Prof. Peters was for some time engaged in making researches in the older libraries of Europe upon the celebrated star-catalogue of Ptolemy, prepared 1,700 years ago, and found in the 'Almagest.' The Court quotes from a letter written by the Professor from Paris about his rummaging in the National Library for material for this work on Ptolemy's catalogue, to show how industriously he was engaged on the catalogue now in court. A conversation in which the defendant had spoken of a catalogue of stars as Prof. Peters's great life-work is quoted against him, in the face of his statement that he was referring to an entirely different work called a "zone-catalogue," on which Prof. Peters was well known to be engaged. The testimony of Prof. Hall is discredited, and that of Prof. Boss entirely ignored.

Great stress is laid by the Court upon the merit of the plaintiff in conceiving the idea of the catalogue, selecting the sources from which the stars were to be extracted, and exercising a "nice discrimination" in making the selection of stars to be catalogued. The fact that more than half the work was done without the plaintiff's knowledge, instead of leading the Judge to the common-sense conclusion that the plaintiff's help was unimportant, only gives him occasion to lecture the defendant on his bad faith in carefully concealing the magnitude of the work from his superior. To the reader who, from unfamiliarity with the subject, may not know how much credit should be given for the conception of such a catalogue, we may say that its merit is neither greater nor less than that of conceiving the idea of a railroad between two neighboring cities. We may carry the parallel yet further, and make an apt comparison with an imaginary case. X is a merchant who not only conceives the idea of the railroad, but takes active measures to interest capitalists in its construction. He tells them where they can find maps of the country, shows them statistics of manufactures and trade at each terminus, induces them to start the work, points out to the engineers the most eligible route. When the road is done, he claims the entire ownership, and sues for it. The court finds that the road would not have been built but for the plaintiff, quotes letters from the defendants to him in which they call it "your road" to show that they recognized it as his, and awards him the entire stock of the concern. Of course, the defendant has appealed from the decision.

THE COST OF A SMALL MUSEUM.

More than once we have endeavored to impress upon our readers the importance of collections of casts and other art reproductions as factors in popular education. It is only through these that the body of our people can ever hope to become familiar with the great masterpieces of European galleries, which have had so much effect upon the taste of the people among whom they exist, and might do a similar good work in this country were they only brought within reach. Doubtless there are many who join us in the wish that not only every large, but every small, city might have its gallery of reproductions as well as its public library—a gallery in which children could grow up familiar with the noblest productions of Greece and Italy, in which the laborer could pass some of his holiday hours, and in which the mechanic could find the stimulus to make his own work beautiful as well as good. But the principal reason why such collections are not more numerous is probably that people have an exaggerated idea of their cost, and, among those who might best afford this, there are doubts as to whether an undertaking of the kind would be appreciated in any but the large cities.

Thanks to the liberality of Mr. W. A. Slater, the experiment has been tried in Norwich, Conn., and the results of the first year of the Slater Memorial Museum in attracting and holding popular interest have far exceeded the anticipations of its founder and his advisers. As it has been Mr. Slater's desire that the museum established by him should serve not only to educate his townsmen, but also to stimulate others who had the means to follow his example in other parts of the country, he has given us permission to make public the cost of his collections, which we doubt not will be a revelation to many. In August of last year we gave a long description of the Slater Memorial Museum, not then quite completed, from which it was evident that within the lines laid down by Mr. Slater, by which it was determined that the collection should contain only reproductions and no original works, there were no restrictions as to expense. The works selected were to be the best of their kind, and were to be set up and arranged in the most effective manner possible. The number of objects was to be limited only by the size of the building.

The useful little catalogue of the casts in the Museum, prepared by Mr. H. W. Kent, the curator, to whom we are indebted for the figures we shall quote, shows 124 numbers in the Greek and Roman section, and 103 in that of the Renaissance. Among these are some of the largest casts made, such as the selection from the Pergamon reliefs, the Nike of Samothrace, and the Font of Siena. They were all made expressly for the Museum, and imported from London, Paris, Berlin, Munich, Florence, Rome, Naples, and Athens. In addition to these there is a complete collection of the British Museum electrotypes of Greek coins, handsomely mounted, and the nucleus of a collection of photographs, about 600, including the best plates of Braun, Naya, Brogi, and other celebrated photographers. Most of the statues are mounted on revolving pedestals; two hundred and fifty of the photographs are exhibited in individual frames, the backs of which are movable, that the exhibition may be varied as often as desired; and, owing to the lack of wall-space, draperies have been hung extensively throughout the hall, the material of which is heavy raw silk. We mention these facts only to show that economy was not a consideration in the execution of the Museum, and believe that our readers will be the more surprised to learn that its *gross* cost to Mr. Slater—excluding, of course, the building itself—was exactly $27,112.97. Is there any city or college in the Union in which this sum could not be raised for a similar purpose?

The cost of the building we do not give, because it would be useful as showing how much rather than how little could be put into such an edifice. It contains, besides the museum proper, the floor-space of which amounts to about 10,000 square feet, a lecture-hall with a seating capacity of about 1,200, a library, and four large class-rooms, which, if the intentions of the founder are fully carried out, will be used for practical instruction in the fine arts. Desirable as all these rooms are in a building of the kind, the only one which seems to us absolutely necessary is the lecture-hall. To open a gallery like this to the public, and then leave people to float about in it aimlessly, without a notion of its meaning or its purpose, is to do but half the work. Either regular courses of instruction or occasional lectures upon topics connected with the theory or history of art are necessary in order to make the museum anything more than a collection of curiosities to the uninitiated, and such lectures are given during the winter at the Slater Museum.

Of the amount just quoted the principal item was naturally for casts. The cost of these, including packing and transportation, but not setting up in the Museum, was $13,968.68, making an average of a trifle less than $62 for each number in the catalogue. We ought to say

here, however, that an average is a dangerous guide in a matter of this kind, owing to the enormous difference in the size and price of casts, as well as in the distance from which they come. Obviously, too, the cost of packing and importing a few casts would be proportionately much greater than in a large order.

The casts once received, they must be put together, sometimes repaired, and finally set up. Pedestals must be built for the statues, wall spaces prepared for the reliefs. Therefore a small force of skilled plaster-workers and carpenters is necessary. In Norwich most of the plaster-work was done by two men, a third being added occasionally, and the aggregate of this item in the expenses was $1,626.75. With regard to the carpentry, more work of this kind than would usually be necessary was required by the fact that a number of changes had to be made in order to adapt the hall to its use as a museum of art, its destination not having been determined when the building itself was completed. Consequently, some of the $4,690 paid for material and labor in this department would form a part of the building expenses in a structure designed especially for the purpose.

These were the principal expenses in the preparation of the Slater Museum. In photographs about $800 has been spent thus far, the electrotype coins cost something less than $750, and the balance of the total quoted was made up by such incidentals as the draperies and upholstering, photograph frames, the designer's commission, and petty expenses.

Turning now for a moment to the other side of the balance sheet, we shall try to answer the question, "Does it pay" to undertake a work of this kind, except in our large and central cities? If to the founder or founders of such an institution it be sufficient recompense for their liberality to see their gift used, appreciated, and enjoyed by people of all classes, the brief experience of the Slater Memorial Museum answers the question with a strong affirmative. The Museum was dedicated on November 22 of last year. Since then it has been open regularly ten hours a week, divided among three days, and at other times to students and visitors from a distance. It is always free. There being no automatic machine for registering the admissions, Mr. Kent has requested visitors to write their names in a book provided for the purpose. The number who do so is naturally considerably less than the total number of visitors, particularly when the Museum is crowded, yet up to date the books show more than 10,000 names. The average attendance per week thus recorded, from the time of opening to July 1, was 283, the best month being December, in which 2,163 names were entered, the poorest June, with a total of 483. Especially gratifying has been the attendance on holidays, which shows that the interest in the Museum is by no means confined to those who have plenty of leisure. On Thanksgiving Day 800 names were registered, Christmas 932, New Year's 732, Decoration Day 850. For the benefit of the mill-operatives and other laborers who form the largest portion of the population of Norwich and the adjoining towns, to whom the Museum might do a world of good, we sincerely hope the day is not far distant when the building may be open at least a couple of hours each Sunday. The experience of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts in Sunday opening has been an unqualified success, and we wish that Norwich as well as our own city might profit by it. In Boston, we are told, the average number of admissions during the Sunday hours has reached as high as 1,000 per hour, and of these probably four-fifths are common workmen with their families.

These facts and figures regarding the Slater Memorial Museum are valuable only so far as they go. They show that the first problem of a museum—to interest the public at large—has there been solved successfully. More than that is not to be looked for yet. The ultimate good which the institution will accomplish can be but imperfectly manifested in one generation. It is from the children now growing up, from their children and their children's children, that the deeper results are to be expected. As the beginning has been made, we can afford to wait for the rest, which will come in good time. The lesson to be learned from it now is, that such collections are needed, that they are appreciated not by a few but by many, and that, so far as the cost is concerned, they are within the reach of every well-settled community.

A GOOD FARM FOR NOTHING.

WASHINGTON, November 11, 1889.

IN a late number of the *Nation* (No. 1270) appears an advertisement of a Massachusetts farm, with the suggestive editorial comment that, as the building and fences are worth as much as the price asked for the farm, the land really "must have no salable value." Inasmuch as neither the editor nor readers of the *Nation* know anything about the farm in question, I will now supply a specific illustration of the market value of the better class of Massachusetts farms, giving names and places.

There is now a farm for sale—the Foster farm on the Cold Spring road, a mile distant from the most beautiful village in New England, Williamstown, Berkshire County, and within two miles of the station, at which twenty passenger trains a day stop. To the station runs one of the best of Berkshire gravel roads, and upon an almost continuous down grade. The farm has, I believe, twice taken a premium as the best managed farm in the town, and the owner for more than twenty years has been "putting on more than he has taken off"; that is to say, he has sold butter and bought grain. The price of all agricultural products in the neighboring villages of Williamstown and North Adams are about the same as in the towns of Albany and Troy, excepting hay, butter, and mutton. The farm contains 106 acres, and has upon it the well-known New England farmhouse (white with green blinds, and two large maple trees before the door), *and ten farm buildings.* All of these buildings have been kept painted, and are in good condition. The farm is well fenced, chiefly post and board.

This farmhouse, these ten farm buildings and the fences, probably could not be replaced for $10,000. In their present condition I call them fairly worth $6,500. Yet this farm, to which a good farmer has given a lifetime of intelligent care, has been offered to me, and can be bought by anybody, for that amount. In other words, if you will pay the owner what the buildings and fences are reasonably worth, or two-thirds of what they actually cost, he will give you 106 acres of good land, in high cultivation, *for nothing.*

If you ask my friend Mr. Foster why it is that he wishes to sell his farm at so low a price, he will tell you that it is because he can't work himself as he once did, and can't get "good help." If you ask a young man of the neighborhood why he does not buy the farm on mortgage, as Mr. Foster did, and pay the mortgage off by hard work and thrifty ways, and make for himself a comfortable home as his fathers did, he will tell you that he can do better. If you tell him that he should adapt his agriculture to the changed circumstances of the time; that he has all the advantages that his father had and a thousand more besides; that the soil is actually more fertile, the stones picked up, the stumps dug out, the roads built; that statistics show that certain products bring better prices than they did a hundred years ago, while clothing and farm implements cost less; that two men with a mower and tedder can harvest more hay in one day than four men with scythe and pitchfork could formerly do in two, he will blandly reiterate that "farming pays worst of all," and that he "can do better."

Yet, during this same period in which Mr. Foster has been trying to give away his agricultural land, there has been an "extraordinary boom in real estate" in Williamstown, and land within half a mile of the village, commanding fine views, has quadrupled in value. Tested by actual cash purchases, the encroaching cottager has paid $4,000 for ten acres without a building on them. Midway between Williamstown and Brattleboro', a few years ago, I saw on the summit of a hill against the evening sky what seemed a large cathedral. Driving thither, I found a huge, old-time two-story church, a large academy (which had blended in the distance with the church), a village with a broad street, perhaps 150 feet in width. I drove on and found that the church was abandoned, the academy dismantled, the village deserted. The farmer who owned the farm on the north of the village lived on one side of the broad street, and he who owned the farm on the south lived on the other, and they were the only inhabitants. All of the others had gone—to the manufacturing villages, to the great cities, to the West. Here had been industry, education, religion, comfort, and contentment, but there remained only a drear solitude of forsaken homes.

And here I have placed before you the three distinctive and essential facts of this New England problem—the farm of Mr. Foster, the boom in Williamstown, the deserted village in Vermont.

The deserted village was the old-fashioned "Centre" of the town; on a high hill, remote from railways and mill-streams, unknown to summer boarders—an agricultural village, dependent upon the agriculture around it and from which it sprang. The causes which operated upon Mr. Foster's farm and the surrounding agriculture struck it, and indeed seemed to strike it sooner, and a more effective blow.

The ruin of New England agriculture is due to a combination of causes, the chief of which are these:

I. For many years the Government has been paying the most extraordinary bounty that the world ever knew for agricultural products. It has not paid this bounty upon agriculture to farmers in general, but only to those who would live in the West, and largely, if not chiefly, to the peasants and peasant-farmers and younger sons of Europe. To them it has said in substance, "Come over here and undersell American farmers east of the Alleghanies, and we will give you for nothing citizenship and a farm. Land which in your own country is a monopoly, the property of the great, beyond the hope of the poor, shall be yours without price, without rent, in fee simple absolute."

At the same time the Government has likewise been giving another set of bounties in land and guaranteed bonds to such railroads as should carry the immigrant farmers to their free farms without their being subjected to the dangers and delays and hardships which beset

the "first settlers" of the olden time, and which should bring their agricultural products to the overstocked markets of the world for as nearly nothing as possible, and certainly at freight rates lower than the world ever dreamed of.

Accordingly, under this artificial bounty system, we have seen what was inevitable and what might have been expected, viz., that the most industrious and frugal class in the country, the farmers east of the Alleghanies, is the only class which has not shared in the general prosperity. Instead of letting our agriculture grow by natural causes — hard work, improved methods, better culture, and slowly extending area—we have seized the new land which properly belongs to the next century, and have squandered the riches which nature garnered for mankind with a waste and prodigality for which future generations, if they have any sense, may well curse their fathers.

It should also be noted that these causes have been so overwhelming that their effects have not stopped at the seaboard, and that the term "east of the Alleghanies" really extends to the English Channel. The ruin has not been as complete in England as in New England, and the chances of adaptation to the new order of things are there incomparably better; but, nevertheless, during the twenty years between our civil war, 1866, and the Queen's jubilee, 1886, one-seventh of the arable lands of the British Isles was abandoned to "permanent pasture."

Furthermore, it should be noted that no inconsiderable portion of the public lands given away under homestead and military bounty acts soon found their way to the possession of great landed proprietors, such as we have blamed the crowned heads of Europe for establishing or tolerating; and that the bounties given to Western railroads were speedily transmuted into bonds and mortgages and railroad stocks, which with inconceivable rapidity passed largely into the hands of a few men, and form the staple of the vast fortunes that alarm Mr. Shearman. If about the time the Homestead and Oregon Donation Acts were passed some one had asked, "What classes as classes will be directly and chiefly benefited by our public-land policy?" the true answer would have been: first, the peasants and peasant farmers and younger sons of Europe; second, the great landed proprietors and millionaires of America; third, one Brigham Young and the dignitaries and members of the Mormon Church.

It may be asked whether the sons of New England farmers have not as individuals shared in the benefits of the land system; whether they have not had easier times, worn better clothes, and smoked cigars instead of pipes. To this it must be answered that we are now considering New England and her agricultural conditions. What we do know is, first, that the old nursery of good and great and useful men is, under existing causes, being destroyed, or, to quote from the columns of the *Nation* (No. 1157, p. 176), "The forest, like a rising tide, encroaches upon the former fields; population in the mountain towns diminishes; taxes increase; civilization recedes; the Celtic immigrant succeeds the Pilgrim stock"; second, that there is no rural New England in the West rearing a posterity worthy of the old stock; that the youth who was starved out of his birthplace in consequence of the land policy of the Government, has not been replaced there by a wiser or a better man, and that, in his new habitat, material wealth has been the only gain. The admonition to his fathers was, "*Go forth for freedom and for conscience' sake*"; to him, "*Go West, young man, go West, to make money to buy land to grow corn to fat hogs to make more money to buy more land to grow more corn to fat more hogs.*"

II. The second cause which has operated upon the New England farmer is also of Governmental origin. During the greater part of the period in which the Government has been giving bounties in land to his rivals in agriculture, it has been giving bounties in duties to his competitors in the labor market. On the one hand, the tariff brought a market near to the farmer, which is an advantage not to be lightly estimated; and on the other, it has augmented the cost of everything he buys. Thirty years ago, when this lay before us an untried experiment in our political economy, it was a fair question for political discussion whether the augmented price of his crops would exceed the augmented cost of his purchases. But now there is nothing to discuss—the experiment has been tried, the result reached; and we have, as the residuum, the ruined New England farmer and the abandoned New England farm. In the discussion of the subject, both sides overlooked what has proved to be the most important factor of the case, viz., that the tariff brought to the farmer's very door a competitor, strong in capital, in credit, and in Government subsidies, who could and would outbid him until he should take away from him his best hands, his poorest hands, and ultimately in many cases his sons and daughters. It is a queer way to help a man, to take his hands away from him in harvest. The farmer fought bravely against the overpowering odds as long as health and strength lasted; but when old age or sickness came, he had to surrender and throw the "old place" upon a declining market in which there were many sellers and few buyers. Wherever you find an old man, there you find a farm for sale. Within doors the struggle and the agony took another form, and the residuum *there* is, that the largest proportion of insane women in New England is of farmers' wives. In a word, the Government has been giving the bounty to the wrong man —the stronger competitor.

It is a fine thing to tell to farmers that machinery is doing the work of men; that a manure-cart with a boy to drive it will spread more manure than four able-bodied men. But the cart does not load itself, and the manure must still be forked on to it by human toil. It is a fine thing to tell them that they should adapt their methods to the new order of things; that ensilage can be put away for fifty cents a ton, green, the equivalent of $1.50 a ton for cured hay. But to put ensilage away at fifty cents a ton requires a man at the engine, two or three men at the cutter, one or two in the pit, from three to five teams drawing the corn from the field—in short, ten or a dozen men. The truth is, that the new order of things often requires more hands than the old, and is better adapted to the rich than the poor.

III. The third cause which has operated upon Eastern agriculture is in one sense the converse of the preceding ones, for *they* sprang from the interference of the general Government, while this is attributable to the inaction of the State legislatures. The commercial rivalry of the great seaboard cities, and of the great "trunk lines" which run to them, demanded that as much Western produce as possible be brought into each. The railroads in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland were chartered to promote the general welfare of the people of those States, but their legislatures have been so completely under the influence of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and of the railroad corporations, that their farmers have been practically taxed through discriminating freights to carry other people's grain to market at rates which have more than once been below cost. The commissioners charged with investigating this matter in Vermont and Massachusetts, I believe, intend to report at a future day on the causes of the decline. I will give them a couple of facts which may assist them in coming to one conclusion.

A few summers ago two car-loads of butter came into Boston on the same day. The one came from Vermont in a common car, was spoiled by the heat and sold as grease. The other came from Iowa in a refrigerator car, arrived in prime condition, and commanded the highest market price. *The freight on these two loads of butter was the same per pound.*

A few years ago six farmers in the rich butter region of Orange County, N. Y., established a dairy of about four hundred Jerseys near West Point, Nebraska, for the purpose of supplying some of the most fashionable hotels in the city of New York with table butter. The price paid for the butter is, or was, forty-five cents per pound; it came in a refrigerator car, and the cost of transportation, including cartage, from the dairy in Nebraska to the hotel in New York was *five cents a pound.*

IV., V. The fourth and fifth are natural causes which, unhappily, can never be averted. Nature has made the New England farm a small farm, and its owner is confronted by a winter seven months in length. That is to say, the hillsides, and narrow valleys, and broken table-lands are not adaptable to "wholesale farming," and the man who raises cattle must house and feed his stock through seven long months, or, if he changes to sheep, ordinarily for six. In all parts of the country some of these five causes are of course more or less operative; but there is no part of the country, save New England, where they form so complete and relentless a combination. It is the extraordinary combination which has produced the extraordinary and long to be regretted result.

What, then, shall the New England farmer do? He cannot compete in cereals with the West; in fruit and vegetables with Delaware and New Jersey; in cattle with men whose herds run summer and winter on the free ranches of the Government; in wool with the unhoused flocks of Texas and California, of New Zealand and Australia; in butter with Nebraska and Iowa; in dressed beef with Armour's syndicate; in the labor market with the local manufacturers. What, then, shall he do? The gentlemen who have kindly advised him have in the end come down to saying that he must work as early and late as his fathers did, and live on as little as the Irish or the French. He thanks them for their good advice, but answers that he can do better. And so he can. His industry, probity, intelligence, good sense, and general handiness are in demand everywhere. The loss is not his, but ours.

There are tracts, indeed, in New England, such as the "White Mountain Region" and the "Berkshire Hills," where almost every farm can be made to furnish a picturesque summer home for the city refugee, and there a healthy, natural, and profitable business can be done. It is also among the possibilities that new remedies now unthought of may supply the want. Our indigenous animals which can alone brave the New England winter may be turned to account, such as the half-bred buffalo, whose robe is now worth $50, or the deer of the Adirondacks. If fifty farms were

thrown into one ring-fence and hounds and hunters and wolves excluded, I see no reason why deer should not become semi-domesticated like those in English deer parks, and nearly as prolific as sheep. Subsisting partly in the woods where sheep will not go, and thus upon lands which are now entirely wasted, and helped through the winters with scattered stacks of mountain hay, they may yet be found a source of considerable wealth. But I make these suggestions not in an abounding faith so much as in the hope that some wealthy and patriotic New Englander may come forward and try the costly experiment.

It is very sad that the highest, purest, noblest agricultural population that this world has ever possessed, is being dissipated, and, as a race, merged and lost. As a race it has been rich beyond comparison in human products—in clergymen, soldiers, statesmen, scholars, poets, merchants, inventors, and men who believe in honesty and work. Such statesmen as Webster, such college presidents, past and present, as Mark Hopkins, Eliphalet Nott, and Stanley Hall, such poets as Whittier, such generals as Lyon, such merchants as Edwin D. Morgan, have been born and bred on these small farms, which to-day can hardly be given away. Worthless though they be, according to our material standard, they have done more for the elevation of American thought and character and intelligence and happiness than all the railroads and millionaires and stocks and securities and corn and hogs that the great cities and the great West contain.

Yet the last act of the New England farmer is not unworthy of his sturdy and upright lineage. He faces the situation, and closes his accounts and pays his debts like a man; it is the business which has become bankrupt, not he. When we remember how hard it is for any of us to give up an undertaking on which we have spent time and money, or to throw away a foolish purchase, instead of storing it in the attic; and when we consider how the poor of this world cling to their poverty, how the peasants and crofters of other races obstinately hold fast to their small holdings, and divide and subdivide their insufficient farms only to entail intenser misery on their descendants, we must acknowledge that there is something grand in the farmer of these mountain towns, who, rising to the heroic treatment of his case, turns away from the fields and fences upon which he has toiled through the better part of his life, and, by a decree as unalterable as the laws of the Medes and Persians, writes upon the closed door, ABANDONED.

CHARLES C. NOTT.

THE VULGARIZATION OF THE ALPS.

TOBLACH, September, 1889.

IT is now just four centuries since the voyages of the Portuguese in the South Atlantic and of Columbus in the North Atlantic Ocean began to lift the veil of darkness which had hung round the small civilized world of antiquity and the Middle Ages. Since then, and especially of late years, exploration has gone on so fast that now, excluding the uninhabitable ice tracts of the two Poles, there remain scarcely any spots on the surface of our planet unvisited and undescribed by travellers. It is, in fact, only in some few regions in Central Africa, and still fewer in Central Asia, that imagination finds any field in which to disport itself or the spirit of adventure any scope for the honors of discovery. Merv, for instance, which fifteen years ago was known only by faint reports, since no one could venture among its savage inhabitants, is now a station on a Russian railway; and a British company is preparing to colonize the cool uplands of Kilimanjaro and Kenia in tropical East Africa.

The same process of increasing the facilities of cheap access all over the world has in Europe gone so far as to make every part of that continent which is worth visiting, or at any rate which people know to be worth visiting, actually crowded. One who returns to the Alps or to northern Italy after an interval of some years is astonished to find the change so great. Yet the two causes which have brought this throng of visitors are obvious enough. One is the extraordinary growth of the habit of taking a regular summer holiday. If there were any statistics on the point, it would probably be found that fifty years ago the persons who left their business in Germany, France, or England for more than a week at a time were an infinitesimally small part of the business population. Nowadays it is, especially in Germany and England, a matter of course even for tradesmen and clerks and shopmen, and, still more of course, for the middle and higher strata of the commercial world, to go off from home for a longer or shorter pleasuring, almost always to the seaside or to the mountains. The other cause is the extension of steam communication, by railways and steamers, which makes journeys to the sea or the mountains incomparably cheaper as well as swifter and less fatiguing than was formerly the case. The consequence has been that every summer sees a veritable migration of tens of thousands of persons to spots which even thirty or forty years ago difficulty of access had left secluded and primitive.

Although this has happened all over Europe, it is most conspicuous in the Alps, which have now become the playground not merely of mountain-climbers and the upper classes of western Europe, but of all classes except the really poor. Every American knows how enormously the afflux of American and English, as well as German tourists, has increased in Switzerland. But it has been much less observed that the throng of pleasure-seekers is nearly as great in the eastern Alps, to which, except, of course, to a few choice spots, the English and Americans resort very little. These regions are filled by Germans, and along the southern slopes by Italians also. The accommodation they offer is far less luxurious than what Switzerland provides even off the great tracks. One finds no large and comfortable hotels except in big towns like Innsbruck, or Salzburg, or in such a district as the neighborhood of Ischl, rendered fashionable by the visits of the Austrian Court. Living is from a half to a third cheaper than in Switzerland, but the inns, though seldom dirty, are usually rough, and the food is indifferent.

Votaries of nature who had some years ago begun to retire from Switzerland before the ever-increasing crowd, were wont to enjoy the comparative peace and silence of Tyrol and Carinthia, and the romantic valleys to the north of Brescia, Verona, and Venice. Now, however, within the last decade these regions have begun to draw such hosts of German and Austrian tourists that seclusion is no longer obtainable anywhere, and the wanderer is lucky if he can find a room without bespeaking it several days beforehand. Cortina d'Ampezzo and the Fedaya pass, which in 1865 were as little known to English or German pedestrians as Manitou Springs and Pike's Peak were in that same year to New Yorkers, are now even as Chamouni or Zermatt. The finer parts of Carinthia and Styria are scarcely less overrun; it is not till one gets into the remoter corners of the Julian Alps that the old charm of primitive and unspoiled mountain solitudes can be enjoyed. Even from there it is daily disappearing. The change is passing on Norway and on the Pyrenees, the only other parts of Europe where grand mountain scenery is obtainable. No coming generation will be able to draw the same kind of pleasure from a ramble through mountain countries which the generation now growing too old to pedestrianize drew in the days of its youth.

Doubtless this is a result of cheap travel and holiday-making which every one must have expected; and if it disgusts the few, it seems to promise enjoyment to many. The tourist who traverses Switzerland in a crowded train, or even on foot, along crowded roads and footpaths, where hotel touts and sellers of curiosities pester him, enjoys far less keenly than did the solitary pedestrian of thirty years ago; but there are a hundred who have this inferior pleasure for every one who had that finer pleasure of the old days. We have all had to reconcile ourselves to life in a crowd, even in vacation time. Another change has, however, passed over the Alps which was not to have been expected, which need not have happened, and which has brought an injury not adequately compensated by any resulting gain. This is the injury which is being done to Nature herself in the process of making her most beautiful spots not merely accessible, but accessible in the cheapest and quickest way. Not content with running railroads to the edge of the mountain country and along one or two great international highways, such as the Brenner and the St. Gothard, lines have now been built up many of the minor valleys and along the shores of lakes where hitherto the traffic was carried on by carriage roads and steamers. Irreparable damage has in many cases been done to the scenery, for the cuttings and embankments destroy the original character of many a landscape; the heaps of stone thrown out from a tunnel, the bridges spanning a torrent, the lines scored along the face of a precipice, fatally mar the charms of form and color and native wildness which drew lovers of beauty to the spot. It is alleged that more tourists now come. But they do not see what once delighted us; and, indeed, hurried swiftly along, and craning their necks out of the car window to catch the views, which change faster than the eye can duly appreciate them, or plunged into the darkness of a tunnel when one of the finest points is reached, they are unable to derive anything approaching to the pleasure which the pedestrian or carriage-borne traveller formerly derived.

The last few years have brought a new curse to Switzerland, though happily not yet to the rest of the Alps, in the form of the so-called "mountain railways," worked by cog-wheels on toothed rails, and sometimes by a wire cable. The first of these was fixed on the Rigi about 1870. Now there are seven or eight, and several more are projected. The last six months have seen four such new lines: one at the Giessbach, on the Lake of Brienz; one at Beatenberg, on the Lake of Thun; one to the top of Pilatus from Alpnach, on the Lake of Lucerne; one to the top of the Bürgenstock, on the same lake. A fifth, from Lauterbrunnen to Mürren, is to be begun immediately, when the railroad from Interlaken to Mürren, intended to ruin the valley of the Lutschine, as the new railroad to Zermatt is now ruining the valley of St. Niklaus, has been finished. With the growing increase of visitors and the growing enterprise of hotel-keepers, such lines are likely to be much further multiplied. They inflict, it need hardly be said, an even greater injury on the scenery than do the railroads that traverse the

valleys, for they are even more conspicuous objects. The Rigi—which twenty-five years ago, when there was nothing on it but one moderately-sized inn at the top and a small one at the Kalt-Bad, was a romantic mountain in itself, delightful to roam over even when the weather did not permit the great panoramic view to be visible—is now so scored over by railways and thick set with huge hotels that even the view can scarcely be enjoyed, for there is always at least one hotel and one railway in the foreground.

When one passes east out of Switzerland into the Bavarian and Austrian Alps (Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola), one leaves behind the bulk of the lazy pleasure-seekers who are glad to be carried to the top of a mountain in a railroad car, and finds that German pedestrians, frugal and simple, form five-sixths of the tourist crowd. They walk slow and climb still more slowly, but they are fond of walking, and do their fifteen or twenty miles a day conscientiously. They have organized a sort of huge Alpine Club or society, with branches in all the larger towns of Germany and Germanic Austria, which employs most of its funds in rendering the mountains more easy of access. It has erected a great number of "shelter huts" all over the higher Alps. Sometimes these are mere huts, sometimes they approach the accommodations of a mountain inn. They have certainly made the ascent of high peaks and passes a far more comfortable undertaking than it used to be, when the climber and his guides had to sleep in some hole among the rocks if they desired to avoid the fatigue of a long night ascent from the last house in the valley beneath. The German society, however, has not stopped here. It has furnished all the chief footpaths with finger-posts, and marked them with streaks of red, blue, or yellow paint upon the trees and rocks so that even the solitary pedestrian can hardly miss his way. There is, of course, an obvious convenience in being assured by the finger-post and the blotch of paint that you are on the right track; and sometimes, where the path might have been hard to find without a guide, the expense—after all a small expense—of a guide is saved. But to any one who remembers the pleasurable excitement of finding his own way up a mountain by the help of a map, a compass, and his own practised observation, there is something dull and flat, almost humiliating, in being made, whether one desires it or not, to rely on these artificial aids.

The sense of adventure and solitude is banished; the high Alps seem degraded in being treated like the neighborhood of a fashionable watering-place, where notice-boards direct the nursemaid which way to take her charges. And in the case of some few mountains the wish to remove all difficulties has gone even further. Iron posts or spikes have been driven into the rocks at points where the ascent becomes unusually steep or the foothold precarious; or wire ropes have been stretched along the path, or iron ladders erected. The Matterhorn and the Grossglockner are instances of peaks which have been thus treated, with the result not only of making them too easy to the really competent cragsman, but of inducing persons to attempt the ascent who are so incompetent that, when bad weather comes on, they may be unable to get down, and perish (as happened lately on the Matterhorn) of cold and exhaustion. The Terglou in Carniola, the loftiest summit of the Julian Alps, has been subjected to even more drastic treatment. It was famous for a very narrow *arête* or ridge of rock between two formidable precipices, along which the climber was obliged to pass for some thirty yards or more in order to reach the summit. This *arête* was found too difficult for the average tourist, and accordingly the Austrian Club, not content with putting up iron posts in some places along the ascent and stretching wire ropes along others, has actually broken down the top of the rock ridge, and made a comparatively broad and easy path along it. More tourists make the ascent, but the true lover of the Alps feels that this is not the Terglou as he knew it, and the ascent of a mutilated mountain loses half its charm for him. To accomplish it is no longer the test of a steady head and a firm foot.

It may be thought that complaints or regrets over this vulgarization of the Alps are mere sentimentalism, and that one ought rather to rejoice at the greater number of persons who now traverse the valleys, even in steam-cars, or climb the peaks, even by the help of wire ropes. The point is hardly one to be argued: it must be left to each man's feeling. But, after all, the pleasure we derive from grand or wild mountain scenery is largely a pleasure of sentiment. It is not merely the form and the color that delight us: it is the absence of man and his works; it is what may be called the pure naturalness of nature. The impression which the more striking aspects of nature produce upon imaginative minds, and especially upon poets and artists, is largely due to the contrast between ordinary life, especially that life of cities which most of us lead, and this unspoiled naturalness, this unsullied simplicity, this remoteness or insignificance of all that belongs to human effort. The number of places left in Europe which are capable of acting thus upon poets and artists is daily diminishing, and in this there is surely involved some loss for the European mind in the future. Whether the corresponding gain may not be greater is a question one need not discuss; but those who are jubilant over the opening up of the mountains and the comparative ease with which excursions once deemed difficult are now performed, ought to be reminded that the gain, whatever it may be, is assuredly accompanied by a loss.

Correspondence.

A GOLDEN SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps nothing better shows the ability of the framers of our Federal Constitution to give a predetermined complexion to a body instituted by that instrument than the Senate of the United States.

It is a matter of common knowledge that our Senators are not generally in need of parish relief, and that many of them have accumulated more than Mr. Bellamy would approve. Prof. Bryce, who has told us so much about ourselves, and all in such a marketable way, says: "The Senate now contains many men of great wealth. Some, an increasing number, are Senators because they are rich." In the political press this, our most dignified legislative body, is not unfrequently called "The American House of Lords," "The Millionaire Senate," and its action is criticised as that of a wealthy class, seeking to protect the interests of the rich and with but small regard for the rights of the poor.

Those who defend or apologize for its action have, so far, merely denied these rather hard impeachments, whereas they might well aver that such a body as its critics declare the Senate to be, the founders of our commonwealth sought to make it.

Thus, on Tuesday, June 20, 1787, Gen. Pinckney proposed in the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia that no salary should be allowed Senators, saying: "As this [the Senatorial] branch was meant to represent the wealth of the country, it ought to be composed of persons of wealth, and if no allowance was to be made, the wealthy alone would undertake the service." He moved to strike out a clause for "fixed stipends" to them, and his motion was seconded by the venerable Dr. Franklin, who argued in its favor, and the motion was lost by but one vote.

Mr. Gouverneur Morris, who penned the final draft of the Constitution, and who, all must admit, was a man of fine powers and great influence (despite his conceit, which was more than extraordinary, and his obtrusive impromptu verses, which were less than ordinary), speaking of the Senate July 2, 1787, in the same convention, said: "The aristocratic body should be as firm and as independent as the democratic. If the members of it are to revert to a dependence on a democratic choice, the democratic scale will preponderate. All the guards contrived by America have not restrained the Senatorial branches of the legislatures from a servile complaisance to the democratic. If the second branch is to be dependent, we are better without it. To make it independent it should be for life. It will then do wrong, it will be said. He believed so. He hoped so. The rich will strive to establish their dominion and enslave the rest. They always did, they always will. The proper security against them is to form them into a separate interest. The two forces will then control each other. Let the rich mix with the poor, and in a commercial country they will establish an oligarchy." And again: "By thus combining and setting apart the aristocratic interest, the popular interest will be combined against it. There will be a mutual check and a mutual security."

When Mr. Dickinson, Thursday, June 7, 1787, moved the Convention that the members of the second branch of the Federal Congress "ought to be chosen by the individual Legislatures," a principal reason for his motion was, he said, "because he wished the Senate to consist of the most distinguished characters, distinguished for their rank in life, *and their weight in property, and bearing as strong a likeness to the British House of Lords as possible*, and he thought such characters more likely to be selected by the State Legislatures than by any other mode"; and after protracted debate, Mr. Dickinson's motion was agreed to by a unanimous vote.

Gen. Hamilton submitted to Mr. Madison, about the close of the Convention, a draft of a Constitution such as he had wished to propose, and in that the Senate was to be chosen by electors owning landed estates only, and the Senators were to hold their office during good behavior.

These extracts from the history of our Constitutional Convention might be supplemented by a hundred others as pertinent, all tending to show that the leading members of that Convention desired, and strove to institute, in the Senate, a plutocratic body, and to this end the Constitution was very considerably fashioned. That which is now the reproach of our Senate was, in its origin, its confessed purpose and its supposed merit.

Perhaps it is worth remembering that the creature ought not to be blamed for conformity to the designs of its creator. Then, too, all Americans, and the world and Prof. Bryce as

well, are quite well convinced that, despite "its pewter Senators from silver States," the Senate of the United States answers the uses of an upper house better than any yet devised by our fellow-mortals. It is, however, curious to recall the trenchant suggestions of Mr. Morris, when we consider that the doctrine of protection to American labor by a high tariff finds its stronghold in the Senate, and to inquire whether this illustrates or confutes his theory.

CHARLES NOBLE GREGORY.

NOVEMBER 14.

KENTUCKY AND THE SPOILS SYSTEM ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The barbarous encounter in the Lexington Post-office, which a few days since resulted in the death of two of the most prominent Republicans in the State, has drawn attention anew to the state of public sentiment in Kentucky, which not only permits but almost compels every slight or insult to be wiped out with blood. That such a sentiment does really exist may indeed be deplored, but it cannot be honestly denied; and its existence is admitted even by those who feel most keenly its disgrace. Surely this last tragedy is of itself sufficient to establish the fact. The victims were men of high standing in their community, men of considerable ability and culture. I have been assured by a gentleman acquainted with both that they were in no respect violent or reckless men, provided only that the question of "honor" were kept carefully in the background. What, then, in a moment transformed them? The answer is but too evident: in the first place, a false, a barbarous conception of personal dignity; and in the second, an equally false and barbarous public sentiment which drove each to resent with violence a slight, real or fancied, and which would have branded for life as a coward the man who had the independence and genuine manliness to ignore an insult of such a kind, or to resent it as a civilized man should.

It is a mistake to suppose that there does not exist in this State a considerable body of intelligent men who are alive to the barbarity of this sentiment; but the sentiment itself is so strong, and, it must be confessed, yields so slowly to the educative influences that are unquestionably at work to destroy it, that many men who realize its enormity would hardly be strong enough to resist it. A man confronted with such a difficulty faces a painful dilemma. To rely on the traditional method of settling differences is to violate his own convictions, perhaps to carry with him through life the horrible sense that the blood of a fellow-man is on his hands; to stand true to his higher self is to incur a degree of obloquy which few men are able to bear. The fate of the late Judge Richard Reid is conclusive upon this point.

I have spoken thus candidly of the condition of public sentiment upon this subject in Kentucky because I would not have it appear that the aspect of the matter to which I wish now to call attention, and to present which was indeed my chief motive in writing the communication, is mentioned for the purpose of diverting attention from the main question; still it is a view of the incident which seems to me to teach with emphasis a lesson that is taught, indeed, wherever one looks. The Republican party in Kentucky, like the Republican party throughout the South, exists, it is well known, chiefly for the sake of office, and it was primarily a quarrel about office, or about political precedence, which nowadays amounts to the same thing, that led to this difficulty. As surely, therefore, as the spoils system is responsible for the assassination of President Garfield, so surely is it responsible for the death of these two men. Men kill each other in Kentucky, as they do elsewhere, it is but too true, without being driven to it by political or rather office-holding jealousy; but the argument is not weakened by this admission. In every State in the Union there are quarrels hardly less bitter than that just so fatally terminated, originating wholly in the mad pursuit of office and the distribution of a host of petty positions to "appease" and "harmonize" the "adherents" of this or that politician. The Platt-Miller warfare in New York is a prominent example of the disgusting rivalries existing wherever offices are to be doled out. Every community has its little wars of the same character; and the holy President of these United States, who poses as a living proof that strict attention to religious duties is not impossible in high public station, occupies the position of a man fomenting strife and quarrel by perpetuating a vicious and degrading practice which he had a golden opportunity to eradicate.

The writer is not one of those who seek to clear Kentucky of the blame which justly rests upon her; but he hopes that the incident in question may serve the further purpose of showing once more the barbarous nature and tendencies of the spoils system, and that it may make clear just what kind of responsibility rests upon those who tolerate and extend it.

A. F.

LOUISVILLE, KY., November 14, 1889.

MUGWUMPS AND PARTISANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to suggest an hypothesis which, if true, would account for the apparent recklessness with which pledges as to civil-service reform are broken by both parties, and their indifference as to a possible day of reckoning. This is, that politics are not merely a game, but a game which politicians play almost exclusively for the sake of the stakes—principles, such as foreign policy, civil-service reform, silver, etc., being checkers without intrinsic value. The exclamation, "What are we here for except for the offices?" may have amused politicians by its frankness, but it was merely the utterance of a self-evident truth.

Now, the normal state of parties in countries where, practically, there are only two political organizations, is that of unstable equilibrium; the scales are perpetually tipping, but only slightly. Such an equilibrium is disturbed only by a cataclysm like the Civil War, which, in the North, abased the opponents of the Republican party to such an extent as to put off, for twenty years, the restoration of the equilibrium. A partial balance to this has been the equally strong Democratic feeling at the South, and the increasing proportion of voters who have no personal interest in buried issues has brought back parties to their usual relations. The two parties are, then, in a position like that of two railways fed from the same territory, and having equal facilities for supplying its wants. Railways so circumstanced sooner or later learn that pooling, in practice, if not by positive agreement, is more profitable than competition.

Leaving out of consideration those politicians who desire official position for the opportunities it affords of "striking," or of acquiring knowledge having a money value, it may be said that, for the others, office-brokerage far outweighs all other advantages not merely as a means of obtaining reëlection, but as an occupation and a pleasure in itself. Take it from them, and political life would have no more attractions than moderate success in ordinary business. It would, therefore, be no inducement to the leaders of either party to guarantee them eight, or twelve, or twenty years of uninterrupted power, if this was to be limited to action on public questions. On the other hand, it may be supposed that they believe that half the glory (which, as practical politicians, they would value only as an advertisement) of controlling the Government, combined with possession of the offices for half the time, is better than a larger share of the glory and fewer "spoils." The real or affected sympathy given to politicians in the position of Mr. Harrison or Mr. Blaine seems to me entirely uncalled for. Sympathy for the time and concentrated attention they may be forced to give to questions of law or economy, such as Bering Sea or silver, would be appreciated; but the exhaustion which comes from listening to office-seekers is, from their point of view, healthful, and they sleep the better for it.

If this statement of the case is correct, it is plain that the recent advice of President Eliot, coming as it did from a man so conspicuous both for ability and position, is to be regretted. Parties in a state of equilibrium can rarely be reformed from within, though they may be willing to make promises without number. Even a question so plainly appealing to the commonest feelings of humanity as the abolition of slavery was very slow in acquiring any political momentum: how much more so one which, to most persons, is only one of abstract justice, like civil-service reform. When the principle of tenure on non-political tests is finally established, it will owe as much (and as little) to one party as to the other. It will come about, really, in spite of all to whom politics is a trade or an amusement, and in consequence of a gradually growing sentiment in the community which will affect both parties, though unconsciously, in an equal degree. And this sentiment will influence politicians in proportion to the voting strength of those who hold it. Whoever identifies himself with either party is bound to take the fat with the lean, and to march no faster than the rest of the procession. If the way to effect a reform was to convince party leaders of its justice, such a course might be the best; but this reform will be accomplished not because of its justice, but because from year to year its expediency will be more apparent from the increasing number of independent voters.

W: M. G.

BLOCKS OF FIVE IN ANTIQUITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A learned friend of the *Nation* has been heard to remark that there was "nothing new under the sun except rubber boots and sewing-machines." I had attributed at least originality to the promoter of "floaters in blocks of five," but it appears that, after all, we have here only a modification of an old scheme. Says Suidas, under the word δεκάζεσθαι: "This phrase originated from the practice of bribing men by tens. Candidates for office, or persons with a job to carry through, used to deal out their bribes to blocks of ten." Anytus, the accuser of Socrates, has the discredit of introducing this system into the courts, and, as a recent commentator remarks, "doubtless a juryman would feel greater confidence if he knew he had nine others sitting by him who had been bribed." Scholars have always been in the dark about the details of this scheme, and a monograph on the subject, dashed off by Colonel Dudley in his leisure

hours before the next election, would be very gratefully received.—Sincerely yours,

M. H. MORGAN.

CAMBRIDGE, November 16, 1889.

"FATS" OR "VATS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last number (p. 392) you speak of *fats* as "an unfortunate misprint" for *vats* in the Bacchic song from "Antony and Cleopatra" (ii., 7, 122), as given in Bullen's 'Lyrics from the Dramatists of the Elizabethan Age'; but *fats* is the Shaksperian and old English form, following the Anglo-Saxon *fæt*, cask. The Folio of 1623 reads: "In thy Fattes our Cares be drown'd." The word occurs also in the Bible of 1611, in Joel, ii., 24; iii., 13. See also *pressfat* in Haggai, ii., 16, and *winefat* in the margin of Hosea, ix., 2, where the text has *winepress*.

According to Skeat ('Etymol. Dict.' s. v.), "the difference between the words *fat* and *vat* is one of dialect; *vat* is southern English, probably Kentish. The use of *v* for *f* is common in Devonshire, Somersetshire, and in old Kentish." W. J. R.

CAMBRIDGE, November 16, 1889.

Notes.

THE year promises to be famous for anti-slavery memoirs. 'James G. Birney, and the Genesis of the Republican Party,' by Gen. William Birney, is in the press of D. Appleton & Co. The authorized 'Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe,' by her son, the Rev. Charles E. Stowe, has just been published, by subscription, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This firm, also, announces 'A New England Girlhood, Outlined from Memory,' autobiographic chapters by Lucy Larcom, and a retelling of the life of the Rev. William Augustus Muhlenberg, in the series of "American Religious Leaders," by the Rev. W. W. Newton.

Mr. Horatio Seymour of Marquette, Mich., will be glad to secure copies of letters written by Gov. Horatio Seymour not already in his possession, with a view to the publication of his correspondence.

'Viera; 'Twixt the Real and the Ideal,' a new novel by Count Roman I. Zubof, of which the scene is laid in England, is to be published immediately by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Certainly, one of the most interesting and valuable gift-books of the season is 'The American Railway: Its Construction, Development, Management, and Appliances,' now brought out in a large volume by the Messrs. Scribner, after the several chapters have appeared in their magazine. The nearness of the theme, the authority of the writers, and the scope of the exposition, make this a work for almost every class of adult readers. Children, too, of a curious or mechanical turn of mind—or even, we might say, romantic—will quickly lose themselves in these pages, whose beautiful illustrations will lure them on. The whole production is eminently American, and the historic worth of such a conspectus, in the case of an art which undergoes as rapid changes as railroading, will be appreciated a decade or a quarter-century hence more than it is now.

About two months ago we spoke of the author of 'Froudacity: West Indian Fables, by James Anthony Froude, Explained by J. J. Thomas.' Mr. Thomas, as we then stated, was a pure African of Trinidad, and a pensioned schoolmaster of that colony, author of a valuable 'Creole Grammar' about to pass to a second edition. News has since come of his death. Meanwhile it has seemed as if a certain interest in the controversy with Mr. Froude should be felt in this country, and Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, have put their imprint on an American edition of 'Froudacity.' It is a small book in large type, and can be quickly read, but it ought to be read slowly and thoughtfully—and indeed shamefully—in a land where color prejudice is still undiminished to any large extent either by the abolition of slavery, or by humane, religious, or political considerations. Mr. Thomas's contention that in the United States opportunities to rise "are really free and open to all," is still only nominally true of the black man, no matter what the shade of his complexion.

'Jane Eyre' is the latest addition to the "Camelot Series" (London: Walter Scott; New York: W. J. Gage & Co.). Mr. Clement K. Shorter furnishes an introductory sketch of the Brontë family which covers the ground sufficiently, but which inspires some distrust of the writer's critical capacity. "Like Carlyle, *Emerson*, and George Eliot," he says, "it was Charlotte Brontë's fate to fail as a poet while attaining success as a master of prose style." On this there is nothing to be said except that a few more such failures as Emerson's would, if they could be expected in this generation or the next, bring great joy to the American public. Mr. Shorter appends a Brontë chronology and bibliography that will be useful.

After M. Scherer and M. Taine, M. Ferdinand Brunetière is perhaps the foremost of contemporary French critics. He is a writer of "the old school" in more ways than one, with a solidity of learning and a breadth of judgment as unusual in conservatives as in radicals. From the *Revue des Deux Mondes* M. Brunetière has recently gathered together a dozen of his critical papers written during the past three years, making a volume called 'Questions de Critique' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), which may be recommended to such as wish, for example, to see a vigorous statement of the real value of Gautier and Baudelaire—and it is not without interest to note that M. Brunetière's opinion of these greatly admired French writers is not at all unlike that expressed by Mr. Henry James in his 'French Poets and Novelists.' After an acute analysis of the character of Mme. de Maintenon, the articles most likely to interest an American reader are those on the "Influence of Women in French Literature," and on "La Littérature Personnelle," which latter is to be recommended especially to those who have received with open hands the journal of the Swiss Amiel, the diary of the Russian Marie Bashkirtseff, and the unspeakable self-revelation of the French Goncourts.

Among the new French annuals recently received here is the 'Almanach de l'*Illustration*' (New York: F. W. Christern), which contains the usual miscellany of wood-cuts and letterpress, this time chiefly about the Paris Exhibition. But among the portraits of new rulers, which are a specialty of this publication, there are two surprises for an American. The letterpress tells us that M. Cleveland and M. Turman have been succeeded by M. Harrison and M. Morton, and it appends the names of the present President and Vice-President to two wood-cuts—only the self-styled portrait of Mr. Harrison is really a portrait of Mr. Cleveland, and the self-styled portrait of Mr. Morton is a portrait of Mr. Thurman. This latter blunder is the more curious as Mr. Morton was for years our Minister in Paris.

The Christmas number of the *Art Journal* (International News Co.) is wholly occupied with "Rosa Bonheur, her Life and Work," by René Peyrol. Engravings from her principal paintings and facsimiles from her sketch-books are given—the latter somewhat cruelly, for they are even faultier than her finished work in catching the truth of animal locomotion. For a flagrantly impossible example, see the three horses on p. 21.

In the November number of the *New Review* there is an interesting elucidation of one of the minor mysteries of modern literature. "The Dead Heart," a play by the late Watts Phillips (now being acted in London at the Lyceum Theatre by Mr. Henry Irving and his company with a wealth of picturesque detail), was originally produced almost simultaneously with the publication of 'A Tale of Two Cities,' both works centring about the self-sacrifice of the hero on the guillotine during the French Revolution. Here was one of the coincidences of which the history of the drama is full, and not the least singular. Did Watts Phillips borrow from Dickens, as he afterwards borrowed the strong situation in the "Huguenot Captain" from Beaumont and Fletcher's "Custom of the Country"? Or did Dickens get a hint for his novel from the play of a literary inferior? The article in the *New Review* is by Mr. John Coleman, who shows not only that the "bone of contention" is also in the preceding "Chevalier de Maison-Rouge" of Dumas, of which there had been an English adaptation by Mr. Boucicault, but also that it is to be found in the still earlier 'Zanoni' of the late Lord Lytton. Then, by contemporary letters of Watts Phillips, he proves that "The Dead Heart" was written and accepted and paid for more than two years before Dickens had begun 'A Tale of Two Cities.' That Dickens knew of the unacted play is unlikely; most probably he borrowed unconsciously from Dumas or Lytton.

We have already noted that the little British trade monthly called the *Bookbinder* had a kindly but insular account of the bindings shown at the Paris Exhibition. This rather tradesmanlike correspondence drew forth from Mr. Cobden-Sanderson an admirable statement of the principles underlying the decoration of books, which may be found in the October number; and in the November number the writer of the original letter attempts a retort which only reveals his lack of understanding of the principles of art.

Gustav Freytag's 'Der Kronprinz und die deutsche Kaiserkrone' was printed in full in the *Belletristisches Journal* of this city of November 14.

By the will of the late John Crerar, a free public library to bear his name is provided for in Chicago by a bequest of some two and a half million of dollars—a sum which will make the new institution a respectable rival of the Newberry Library. A censorship in the interest of morality and "Christian sentiment" is stipulated, and "dirty French novels and all sceptical trash" will be excluded from the collection.

Through its President, Richard B. Westbrook, the American Secular Union (whose headquarters are at 1707 Oxford Street, Philadelphia), offers a prize of one thousand dollars for the best essay, treatise, or manual "adapted to aid and assist teachers in our *free public schools* and in the *Girard College* for orphans, and other public and charitable institutions professing to be unsectarian, to thoroughly instruct children and youth in the *purest principles of morality* without inculcating *religious doctrines*, thus recognizing the *legal right* under our *Federal Constitution* of all our citi-

zens, Jews and Gentiles, Catholics and Protestants, Liberals and Agnostics, and all other classes, whether believers or disbelievers, to have their children instructed in all the branches of a common secular education in our *State* schools, without having their tender minds *biased* for or against any sect or party whatever." Not more than 100,000 words nor less than 60,000 are desired on this subject. The (type-written) essays should be sent anonymously as above, before April 1, 1890. Competitors may be of any nationality and of either sex.

An attempt is being made at Vassar College to collect and tabulate certain data regarding domestic service. The work has apparently grown out of a belief that some knowledge of the actual condition of such service, as viewed by both employer and employee, is essential to an intelligent discussion of the question. Three blanks are sent out. The one for employers asks concerning the number of employees, the time employed, and wages paid each; also, in regard to the population and industries of the community in order to ascertain how far domestic service is affected by competing forms of labor. The blank for employees asks concerning place of birth, wages received, and experience in other occupations. The third schedule relates to the women's exchange, training-schools for servants, etc. These schedules, with return postage prepaid, will be sent to all who are willing to coöperate in the work on application to the Department of History, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

—In advance of its approaching publication, we are enabled to give a few particulars regarding Part V. of Dr. Murray's 'New English Dictionary.' The forthcoming part extends from *cast* to the end of *cli-*, and therefore takes in the vocables in *ch-*, which constitute a noteworthy section of our vocabulary. It contains 8,371 words, of which 5,966 are main words, while 1,031 are combinations requiring separate explanations, and 1,374 are subordinate words. Of words in *ch-* there is an aggregate of 4,024. To the verb *cast* it has been found necessary to appropriate fifteen and a half columns, with five to the cognate substantive; to *Christ* and related words, nineteen columns; and to *church*, with its multitudinous compounds, twenty columns. Such facts as these indicate in a striking manner the enormous proportions of Dr. Murray's Dictionary, especially when it is taken into account that he consults economy of space to the utmost consistently with thoroughness of treatment; and they also furnish evidence of the prodigious labor which has been expended in providing him with materials. Distinguishing himself, as usual, in every department of his complicated undertaking, Dr. Murray, in Part V., signalizes, perhaps especially, his matchless ability as an etymologist. His discussion of the origin of *church* may be characterized as a very model of exhaustive induction, acute argument, and discreet conclusion. Those who are so ill-advised as to complain that his progress is not sufficiently rapid, must surely have failed to consider what would be the inevitable consequence if he consented to execute his Herculean task precipitately. It is to be hoped, and, indeed, it is confidently expected, that he will wisely resist all attempts to quicken his pace. *Festina lente*, it should be borne in mind, is the motto of every enlightened and conscientious workman.

— An exceedingly valuable piece of work, done with laborious and conscientious accuracy, is Whitney's 'Concise Dictionary of the Principal Roads, Chief Towns and Villages of Japan.' The volume is a handy, red-covered book of 400 pages, besides containing a folding map showing the post-roads, telegraph lines, railways, and other means of communication by land or water. The itineraries of each travel-route, and of each road connecting the chief towns of the Empire with their nearest neighbors of importance, are given, besides their geographical location and population. The compiler is the accomplished scholar, W. N. Whitney, M.D., interpreter of the United States Legation in Tokio. Besides this mass of geographical and other knowledge (for each name has its graphic equivalent in Chinese characters), there is an appendix containing the full text of the Constitution of Japan proclaimed February 11, 1889, the laws relating to the organization of cities, towns, and villages. There are also statistics respecting territory, population, agriculture, industry, commerce, navigation, banking, insurance, education, religion, hygiene, charities, police, prisons, army, navy, finance, and political administration. The whole work constitutes a very useful handbook of information, made possible only by the concurrence of governmental and private enterprise. Kelly & Walsh of Yokohama, and Trübner & Co. of London, are the publishers.

—Baron Haussmann is about to publish his 'Mémoires,' and has given the *Matin* some early information about their composition and character. When a well-preserved old gentleman sits down to such a task as this at the age of eighty, the world does not expect him to be concise. The Baron will, however, limit himself to the space of four volumes, the size of which he does not state. The first volume will recount his early life and studies in music and the law, and his earlier official years. The second and third will be devoted to the story of his work as Prefect of the Seine, when he supplied Paris with pure water and good sewers, besides "transforming" it by the new avenues and streets that have made his name famous. The whole cost of this transformation of Paris, he says, was five milliards, not a sou of which went into his own pockets. The last volume is as yet unwritten, and will be entirely political. If the Baron is frank, it is very likely to contain some interesting reading, for Haussmann was in a position to know a good many of the secrets of the Second Empire. At any rate there are sure to be in the book a satisfactory number of those indiscreet personalities which in these days (as before them) make the fortune of an autobiography. Baron Haussmann says plainly that he shall be personal in what he writes, and that he expects to be contradicted. He means to be *doux*, he says, and he gives a very pretty notion of his view of what constitutes *douceur* by quoting the following remark which he once made to the Empress: "If anybody gives me a blow, I always give him back four, just to keep him quiet for a while."

— The breath had hardly left M. Émile Augier's body when an active reporter of the *Petit Parisien* set out to interview M. Émile Zola as to his candidacy for the vacant chair at the Academy. Zola naturally protested against the indelicacy of such haste, but said that he was willing, speaking generally, to have it known that he expected at some time to become a candidate. Already for some years, he said, the small group of his friends in the Academy had been urging him to do this. The Academy, they pointed out, has shown by some of its later elections that its old-time prejudice against the new literary forms is weakened; and while Zola might not be successful on a first trial, still he was likely to repeat the experience of Victor Hugo, and be elected at a second. For a while Zola refused, but Daudet's letter of last year has led him to change his mind, and he is now "in the hands of his friends." When they shall say that the proper time is come, he is ready to write the customary letter and make the usual visits. He does not himself think that the time is yet come. Some people will hope that it has; among them those who hold Zola to be a better critic than romancer, and who would like to hear his eulogy on his predecessor.

— The Paris correspondent of the London *Standard* gives some account of a curious diplomatic difficulty which has arisen between the French authorities and the Turkish Ambassador. It seems that a French playwright, M. de Bornier, has written a five-act piece in verse called "Mahomet," which has been accepted at the Français, and has been announced for performance during the coming winter. Essad Pasha, the Turkish Ambassador, protests against this on the ground that it would be a gross insult to his nation and to all good Moslems if the Founder of Islam, whom they all love and reverence, should be put upon a Paris stage. To this M. Spuller is said to have answered that it was no uncommon thing for ministers of the Christian religion to be represented in this way, and Christian religious rites, and that even the Founder of the Christian religion himself had lately been brought into a play at the Théâtre Libre. Of course Essad Pasha made the obvious reply that this was perhaps a matter of taste; and while Christians might not be offended at such representations, good Moslems were, and on their behalf he called upon the French Government to prohibit the representation. The Government has not yet announced its decision, and the matter is still in suspense, though it is said to be most likely that the play will not be produced. There is something in the simplicity and directness of Essad Pasha's demands that recalls, though distantly, a story of Dr. von Döllinger's of a decision at Constantinople that manifested the same qualities. The Armenian clergy had a dispute with the Greek priests concerning the custom of mingling water with the sacramental wine. The dispute was finally brought before the Turkish reis-effendi for a judgment, who promptly ruled: "Wine is an impure drink, condemned by the Koran: pure water only, therefore, should be made use of."

— Mr. Wm. E. Coleman thinks we ought not to have said that Sanskritists have not exposed the nonsense of Occultism, in view of his critique of the 'Secret Doctrine' of Mme. Blavatsky in the Chicago *Religio-Philosophical Journal* for August 10, 17, 24, 31, and September 7, 1889. It is opportune to remark that in the way of being favored with out-of-the-way familiars, it falls to few to compete with Col. Olcott. Some weeks ago we had occasion to speak of certain Himalayan "Brothers," of whom the Colonel mysteriously hints that he knows more than he thinks fit to divulge, and whom he has rather unintelligibly cold-shouldered. And the hard hap of his aversion has been visited on them, notwithstanding that, as it is recorded, one of their number flitted through the air all the way from his frost-bitten habitation to New York, and, before he spread his wings to return home, left his turban with the Colonel as a keepsake. Fearless of their revenge—provided they are capable of such an infirmity—the Colonel has now, we learn, taken to patronizing a new set of supernaturals, infranaturals, or whatever they may be. Information has reached us from Dublin

suggestive of his having lately been cultivating the acquaintance of Fairies and Banshees. It is only the benighted ignorance of materialism, he has discovered, that blindly looks upon these shy and pretty creatures as moonshiny. Science, if it minds its proper business, will eschew the presumption of meddling or making with them. *Suum cuique.* As to the Banshees, who, for reasons of their own, have never thought fit to wander out of Ireland, the irreverent theory that they were bred between Hibernian piety and poteen must, it seems, be discarded. With reference to the Fairies, as they are not peculiar to any country, one may also allow that no similarly discrediting speculation touching their origin is, unless rigorously authenticated, permissible. Let us hope, in their honor, that, on further investigation, when the Colonel comes to know all about them, he will find that their story, unlike that of the Himalayan "Brothers," will bear telling to a profane world, and, moreover, that he will tell it. A London newspaper just received makes mention of Mr. Barnum and the Colonel in ominously close proximity. It would be a pity if the opportunity now offered to the Colonel were to go unutilized. Olympia, to which all Cockneydom is at present flocking, to see the "Biggest Show on Earth," would certainly possess a novel attraction in a troop of Fairies and Banshees with the gallant Colonel to put them through their paces.

—It would be ungracious to apply the strict standards of scholarship to efforts purely literary, especially when such efforts are palpably a labor of unselfish love. We have before us 'Gudrun, a Mediæval Epic,' translated from the Middle High German by Mary Pickering Nichols (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The volume is a credit to both publisher and translator, and we hope it may help to spread the knowledge of mediæval German poetry among those who are debarred the original. We have not examined all the seventeen hundred stanzas; we have, however, read the sixth tale, Horant's Singing, line by line with the German, both in Bartsch's edition and in Martin's. In general we can say that the rendering is correct and also smooth, with occasional pleonasms (*Flicksätze*) that seem to be inevitable in all translating. The cadence of the verse is as adequate as our modern English speech will suffer it to be; perhaps the concluding hemistich of each stanza is a trifle heavy. We have noted a few errors, but do not feel called upon to linger over them. The translation is a pleasing one; many little turns are extremely happy, and the tone of the original is well preserved. One has always the comfortable assurance that the translator is doing her work faithfully. It is gratifying to reflect that the first to render 'Gudrun' is a countrywoman of ours.

HENRY DE ROHAN.

Henry de Rohan: Son rôle politique et militaire sous Louis XIII. (1579-1638). Par Auguste Laugel. Paris: Firmin-Didot et Cie.

Henry de Rohan, the last of the great Huguenot leaders, came from an ancient Breton stock which had formed alliances with some of the noblest families in Europe. His paternal grandmother was Isabel d'Albret, the great-aunt of Henry IV., and in him were to reappear undiminished the unbending spirit and iron resolution of the D'Albret family. His mother was Catherine de Parthenay, the heiress of the Lusignans, a curious compound of sturdiness and oddity, with something of the heroic. She was a Greek scholar and a mathematician; she wrote poetry, and educated her own children. The characteristics of the mother are seen in the son, but he did not inherit all her tastes. Of mathematics he was fond, but he learned nothing of Greek, and Latin he esteemed superfluous. History was a passion, and history with him meant Plutarch, whose heroes, particularly Epaminondas, Scipio, and Cæsar, he took for models. He hardened himself after the Spartan manner, with its days of fasting and sleepless nights. In 1598 his education was rounded off, in the good old style, with "the grand tour," which occupied two years, and took him through Italy, Germany, the Low Countries, and England.

In 1605 he married Marguerite de Béthune, Sully's daughter, but on account of her youth the marriage was not consummated until four years later. This marriage had its trials for a man of Rohan's seriousness and purity of life. Tallemant de Réaux found in Mme. de Rohan a subject to his taste. Fra Paoli tells us that Leo X. would have made a perfect Pope if to his other accomplishments had been added some knowledge of religious affairs and an inclination to personal piety; and with equal philosophy Tallemant says of Mme. de Rohan: "Cette femme en un pays où l'adultère eust esté permis, eust esté une femme fort raisonnable." The marriage was of Henry the Fourth's making, and, with the King, Rohan seems always to have been on intimate and friendly terms. Henry's death changed everything, and the career of the Duke of Rohan as the last great leader of the Huguenots was begun. His position was fully recognized in 1611 at the Assembly of Saumur, and this is the point where M. Laugel's detailed narrative begins. Rohan was so identified with the political and religious movements of the Reformed, that the careful researches of his biographer have thrown new light on the long contest between the churches and the Crown. Although Rohan was arrayed against the Crown, he did not seek to depress the monarchy, like the leaders of the various earlier oppositions of the nobility.

As we look back upon the period, the Reformed seem to have misjudged the times, particularly after the accession of Richelieu to power. They underestimated the strength of the Crown, and their line of action was suited rather to the previous century. They dallied with the party of the Queen mother, a purely political factional opposition, which cared nothing for their cause and would drop them at any time. They decided upon war rashly, without weighing the cost, and in one or two instances against Rohan's advice. They feared the gradual loss of their strongholds by the steady aggression of the Crown, but in appealing to arms as they did, without soldiers enough to defend the strongholds, they invited the certain loss of some of them, and ran the risk of losing all. Their earlier leaders among the nobility gradually forsook the cause. Some had lost sympathy with their belligerent disposition, but more were enticed by offices and honors. Dazzling offers were made to Rohan, but he was a man of different stuff.

The mixture of political and religious elements thus produced intersecting party lines. The King's party contained some Protestants, the Opposition, as a whole, comprised two sections—the Reformed and the adherents of the Queen mother. The party cleavage was less direct and simple than it had been earlier. Had Henry IV. lived, the contest would probably have been avoided, but Louis XIII. inherited his father's taste for war, without his personal magnetism, his open-mindedness, or his tolerant spirit. Louis was serious, and came to think he had a mission to repress heresy. The churches realized this, and were in a state of vague but increasing apprehension. The restoration of the church property in Béarn prompted them to take decisive steps. Rohan would have been glad to mediate, but neither party seemed disposed to such a solution.

Writers in this age of democracy have often moralized upon the democratic tendencies of Calvinism. Without giving adherence to all that has been affirmed on this topic, we may yet find some interesting illustrations of the phenomena upon which the opinion is based in the proceedings of the important General Assembly of Rochelle in December, 1620. Called together in the face of the King's orders, it consisted of fifty-seven members, not counting absentees. Most of them were from the South. They were pure delegates, tied to instructions, with practically no representative power. This exhibits the element of disintegration in democracy. In spite of the warning experience of church councils, the Assembly decided to vote by individuals and not by districts, thus giving the preponderance to the South, which was at once more inflamed and less attached to the Crown. A more striking example of democracy was the levelling the three orders to perfect equality. The small size of the gathering prevented any tumultuous results from these radical methods. The Assembly divided France into eight military departments, and seven noblemen were appointed leaders, but only Rohan and his brother responded effectively. In its rôle of a "Continental Congress," the Assembly assumed sovereign powers and retained them for its own committees. No truce or peace could be concluded without its consent; it was to be represented by a committee of three in the council of the commander-in-chief; soldiers were recruited only in its name, and it appointed all the higher officers. Revenues were to be secured by appropriating the Crown's taxes, the incomes of benefices, ransoms of towns and individuals, a sixth of the spoil, the admiralty court fees, and passport fees. M. Laugel believes that the aim of this *ordre général* was not, as has been supposed by some, the establishment of a republic like the United Netherlands. It was merely a special organization to secure the triumph of their cause, and its seal bore the legend, *Pro Christo et rege.*

The details of the contest we cannot enter upon. It was a death struggle. In its religious aspect it was a struggle for guaranteed rights of religious life and worship against the encroachments of the Catholic reaction; politically it was almost the last phase of the ages-long conflict in France between the forces of consolidation and disintegration. Under the existing views consolidation meant the suppression of the Reformed. In the previous century the Protestants had their own candidates for the crown in case of victory, but now they had no one to set up against Louis. The struggle, as Richelieu clearly perceived, involved the authority of the King in his own realm; it was to determine whether the work of political unification should be completed or should fail. The end was not far when the Reformed were reduced to seek help from Spain, as they did in 1629. The movement of Louis XI. and of his great forerunners had gained too much momentum to fail now with the master hand of Richelieu behind it. The result of the war was the loss of everything the Reformed had contended for.

Rohan had no further interest in French politics, and went to Venice. There he formed the plan of purchasing from the Grand Seignior the island of Cyprus, which he de-

signed as a refuge for Protestant exiles. This novel plan was interrupted by the death of the Patriarch Cyril, who was the intermediary in the transaction. M. Laugel doubts whether this project seriously occupied him. But when we remember the historic position of his maternal ancestors, the Lusignans, as Kings of Cyprus, his devotion to the Protestant cause, and his adventurous spirit, recking little of mere expediency or practicability, it seems not unlikely that the idea may have possessed him for a time. It was while he was in Venice that most of his literary work was done. Later he entered the service of the King, and was intrusted with the occupation of the Grisons and the Valteline. Although he was highly successful for a time, lack of resources and the neglect of the home government so hampered him that his efforts failed at the end. At no time of his life is his fine conscientiousness better illustrated than in his efforts to secure to the Catholics of the Valteline their rights. We next find Rohan in the camp of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar. But the end was near. He was wounded in the foot at the battle of Rheinfelden, February 28, 1638, and died of an abscess on the brain April 13.

Although not an old man, his career was finished. Religiously, he was a thorough Protestant, but of the earlier, less factious type, and the wrangling of the Assemblies drew heavily upon his patience. Once he said he had rather preside over a pack of wolves than over an assembly of ministers. Ministerial manners have no doubt softened since that strenuous age. Rohan was as fine a specimen of the Puritan as it is possible to imagine a French nobleman becoming. Two or three passages in his well-known letter to Condé in 1628 have quite a Cromwellian flavor. Politically he belonged to the previous century; the times had grown away from him. His private life was dignified and beyond reproach in the midst of severe trials. We rise from M. Laugel's narrative feeling that in a happier con juncture of circumstances Rohan's character and abilities would have made him a far greater figure in history than he is. It is strange that he should have had to wait two centuries and a half for an adequate biography, but, doubtless, his own memoirs, which are among the very best of the time, have seemed to preempt the ground.

M. Laugel has given us a most painstaking and scholarly work, and every available printed and manuscript source has been utilized with admirable industry. An appendix contains a considerable amount of Rohan's correspondence on the political affairs of the time. One error may be noted. On p. 82 the maxim given as "Cujus religio, ejus princeps," should read, "Cujus regio, ejus religio."

A NEW EDITION OF BAGEHOT'S WRITINGS.

The Works of Walter Bagehot, M.A., and Fellow of University College, London, with Memoir by R. H. Hutton. Now first published in full by The Travelers' Insurance Company of Hartford, Connecticut. Edited by Forrest Morgan. In five volumes. Hartford. 1889.

We do not profess to understand what advantages the Travelers' Insurance Company anticipates from this publication, nor how it justifies its claim of copyright. There is no show of evidence that Mr. Bagehot's English publishers or his heirs have been consulted in the matter; nor, on the other hand, is there anything in the modest advertisement of the company's name—printed at the head of the alternate pages—that seems calculated to induce the reader to apply for a policy of insurance. As to the matter of copyright, it must be observed that Bagehot has now been gone from us some dozen years, and is beginning to loom up among the classical authors—the pets of posterity, whose reward is enduring fame, and not evanescent profit. Furthermore, his works, including many articles practically inaccessible, in magazines and elsewhere, have received an editing at the hands of Mr. Morgan that has greatly enhanced their value—an editing so careful, so appreciative, so lovingly severe, and withal so indispensably necessary, that Bagehot himself might well consider that he had come very well out of the hands of his captors—indeed, that he had got more from them than they from him.

For Mr. Morgan assures us, and he supports his assertion with abundant proofs, that the text of the previous editions of Bagehot's works is in a shockingly corrupt state. There is nothing, he says, even remotely approaching it in the case of any other English writer of high rank since Shakspere's time. In fact, Bagehot seems to have been about as indifferent and unscrupulous in matters of literary workmanship as Shakspere himself. He could not, living in these days, commit wild anachronisms and wholly disregard geography; but he invented quotations, he credited them to wrong authors, and he mangled them abominably. He wrote a rather illegible hand, and he would not even take the trouble to correct his proofs. What is more difficult for an editor to deal with is the "murdered grammar and impossible syntax" with which his works abound. His writings would have been unhesitatingly condemned by every school-teacher because they could not be parsed, and he even wrote ungrammatically in cold blood when he thought it would make his point more effective. Mr. Morgan, it appears, was quite unaware of the extent of the task that he had assumed until he began to verify Bagehot's quotations, and his groanings over the unforeseen labor are certainly excusable. But they are perhaps a little too loudly uttered; his work speaks for itself. It is in a sense its own reward, but its irksomeness will be appreciated by a considerable and increasing circle of readers whose gratitude is to be presumed.

The principles upon which Mr. Morgan has conducted his revision seem to be both scholarly and judicious. He has religiously abstained from altering what Bagehot really wrote or unquestionably meant to write. His method is best explained in his own language:

> "In no case have I meddled with the structure of a sentence in any way; in a few cases I have called attention to the entanglement of the syntax, but I have not even attempted to mend such atrocities as 'The period at which the likeness was attempted to be taken' (beginning of the English Constitution), or other like gems of English. But I do not think that even editorial fidelity or reverence for the memory of a great man . . . binds me to allow a plural noun to remain coupled with a singular verb (or vice versa), or a singular pronoun in one clause set off against a plural one in the following like clause, or a present and a past tense similarly yoked together in a most discordant union—merely because the great man did not read his proofs and a patent slip of the pen remained uncorrected. I do not believe even he, little as he cared for such things, would wish to have all the rags and tatters of his haste and slovenliness scrupulously saved up and exhibited to posterity, any more than a public speaker would care to have a phonograph record an accidental hiccough; nor do I believe that even the most devoted admirers of Bagehot, to whom every word is worth preserving as instinct with the flavor of that rich mind (among whom I count myself), care to have their senses jarred upon by such purely accidental slips."

However, to be upon the safe side, Mr. Morgan has conscientiously tabulated these changes, so that he who is so minded can reconstruct the text in its original impurity. He has also been so considerate of the needs of possible uncultivated readers as to translate all extracts from foreign languages, which has given him an opportunity to introduce from various sources some very passable renderings of Béranger. It is unnecessary to say that he has supplied a full index, which 2,700 pages of such matter as this most richly deserve, but have not hitherto had. Of the portrait which forms the frontispiece the less said the better; but the general appearance of the volumes is good, although they are a little too heavy to be comfortably held. Altogether, since, as we have shown, the sin of buying this edition of Bagehot is of an unusually venial character, we do not know how the sum of five dollars can be invested to greater advantage. Bagehot's writings upon politics and finance are pretty well known in this country, but his literary essays will probably reveal him in a new light to most of his readers.

It may be added that what the editor modestly calls his preface is in the main a critical introduction of a high order of merit. In Mr. Hutton's memoir flexibility of style becomes almost a vice; he writes charmingly and with the feeling of a personal friend, but he writes so easily that he becomes diffuse. Mr. Morgan keeps closer to the point. He too writes with affectionate reverence, but at the same time with a very concise plainness of utterance. With a good deal of his criticism we cannot altogether agree, but we are glad to have it, and should be glad to have it, under other circumstances, at greater length. We may go much further than this, and say that Bagehot himself would probably have been glad to have it, and that it would have been a great help to him. He ought to have visited this country, and, failing that, he ought to have had thoughtful Americans to talk with. So far as we know, he had none, and in consequence his views of our Constitution exhibit to some extent the weakness of those views of the English Constitution which it is one of his chief merits to have exposed. But, after all, we know much more about ourselves now than we did when he was writing about us.

That Bagehot should be generally read in this country is at the present time eminently desirable. There is more political thinking than there has been for a long time, but it is to a great extent bad thinking. It is loose and vague and highly uncritical. The insatiable craving for novelty leads people to read only the works of the latest writers, who in their turn content themselves with the suggestions of their contemporaries. One of the chief merits of Bagehot's writing is, that it always makes the reader feel that everything new is the development of something old; that one cannot understand the present or anticipate the future without knowing the past. It promotes a kind of modest and wholesome scepticism: Bagehot himself, at his best, was a modern Socrates. He never seems positive or dogmatic; he assumes an air of ignorance in order that his reader may feel on a level with him, and, having thus disarmed opposition, he states his theories in such a way that the reader feels that he might have discovered them for himself. Upon his originality it is unnecessary to dwell; as Mr. Birrell has said, he carried away with him into the next world more originality than is left in the Three Estates of the Realm. He was great because of this imaginative power; but he was persuasive because of his moderation. He understood the enormous complexity

of human institutions, the impossibility of changing the thing you mean to change without changing many things that you meant to let alone, the folly of dogmatizing upon the unknown futurity of evolution; and he induces a similar spirit of moderation in his readers. His style is admirable, because it reveals this mental attitude; he has left us in his essay on Hartley Coleridge a description of what was perhaps his own ideal as a writer:

"Many people give many theories of literary composition, and Dr. Blair (whom we will read) is sometimes said to have exhausted the subject; but unless he has proved to the contrary, we believe that the knack in style is to write like a human being. Some think they must be wise, some elaborate, some concise; Tacitus wrote like a pair of stays; some startle, as Thomas Carlyle or a comet inscribing with his tail: but legibility is given to those who neglect these notions, and are willing to be themselves—to write their own thoughts in their own words, in the simplest words, in the words wherein they were thought."

It is because men feel that it is not merely a human being, but a wise, genial, lovable, and inspiring human being, who speaks to them, that Bagehot's fame is secure.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

Mr. Baring-Gould's 'Grettir the Outlaw' (Scribner & Welford) is one of the best and most famous of the old sagas of Iceland charmingly retold. The hero, Grettir the Strong, is undoubtedly a real person, and the saga has, accordingly, an historical background; but the narrative has been embellished by the saga-tellers with many marvellous episodes and incidents that manifestly did not originally belong to it at all, and have either been taken in from folk-tales, or have been united to it by that sort of accretion which we see in the stories of popular heroes elsewhere. The scene of action is the northwestern part of Iceland, and Norway, during the short life of Grettir, between 997 and 1031. The story is of surpassing interest, as it follows the career of the brave but unlucky Grettir in his fight with the fate that it seems impossible for him to avoid. Like a true champion of the heroic time in which he lived, his hand is always on his sword, and the fortunate possessor of the book will read with bated breath of the struggle with Karr the Old in the burial mound, the tussle with the bear and the fall over the cliff in Norway, and the brave defence, when an outlaw in Iceland, that he more than once made single-handed against the armed force that had come to slay him. In the awful fight with Glam, there is a curious echo of the Grendel episode of our own ancient English epic, the 'Beowulf.'

Grettir, like many another Icelander of his day, is also a scald, and leaves no proper occasion unused for delivering his impromptu strophes. Some of the scenes described are among the best and most characteristic, in their way, in the saga literature. When, for instance, the boat comes off to the ship, upon Grettir's return from Norway, and he hears, one after the other, of the death of his father, the slaying of his brother, and his own outlawry with a price upon his head, not a muscle quivers, but he hurls out his determination for vengeance in a verse. Grettir, finally, with many adventures, filled with hasty flights and vain pursuit, comes to the lonely island, Drangey, in the Skagafirth. Here, after twenty years of banishment, when already dying and unable to defend himself as of old, he is, at last, set upon and slain by his enemies. The story is admirably told. Mr. Baring-Gould has a keen appreciation of the spirit and meaning of the Icelandic original, and his own personal knowledge of the saga localities adds infinitely, in many places, to the interest and vividness of the narration. There is a number of spirited illustrations, and the book is, all in all, one of the very best of its kind.

That indefatigable story-teller, Mr. R. M. Ballantyne, in his latest book, 'Blown to Bits' (T. Nelson & Sons), uses the great eruption of the volcano on the island of Krakatoa, near Java, in August, 1883, for the main incidents of his tale. Naturally it reminds one somewhat of the 'Mysterious Island' of Jules Verne, and nearly equals that romance in its improbabilities. The descriptions of the phenomena connected with the eruptions, during which nearly forty thousand persons perished, are vivid and no doubt truthful, as they are derived from the recent report of a Committee of the Royal Society upon them. Mr. Ballantyne's attempts to write in dialect are very amusing. His negro talk especially is a pure creation of his own imagination.

There are five short stories in 'Tales of Daring and Danger' (Scribner & Welford), by G. A. Henty, the scenes of which are laid in India, China, the English Channel, and California. They are all well told and interesting, especially the first, an account of an adventure of an English officer with dacoits in India. The one entitled "A Pipe of Mystery" is a strange story of the manner in which two officers were rescued during the Indian mutiny by means of dreams induced by opium.

In some respects 'Jed,' by Warren L. Goss (Crowell & Co.), is the best boys' book about the Civil War that we ever read. The hero, a Massachusetts lad who, having been a drummer-boy in the regular army before the war, wins his shoulder-straps by faithful service and falls in one of the last skirmishes, is a manly fellow with a noble spirit, of whom no boy can read without being the better for it. There is an air of truthfulness about the book, also, which confirms the author's statement that the incidents narrated are real ones. The description of Andersonville Prison is an unusually powerful piece of writing, while the account of the escape of Jed and his companions possesses a thrilling interest. Notwithstanding the vivid picture of the sufferings of the Union prisoners, these are related without bitterness. The incident of help given to the fugitives by the crippled Confederate soldier, out of gratitude for kindness received in a Northern prison, is characteristic of the spirit in which the story is written.

'Redeeming the Republic' (Harper & Bros.), the third volume of Mr. C. C. Coffin's history of the Civil War, treats of the events of the first half of the year 1864. The principal topics are, of course, the Wilderness campaign of Gen. Grant, whom he leaves just beginning the siege of Petersburg, and Gen. Sherman's operations against Johnston and Hood, which resulted in the capture of Atlanta. It is hardly necessary to say that Mr. Coffin writes in a vigorous manner, and that his account of the scenes of which he was an eye-witness is particularly effective and interesting. He impresses his readers, also, with a sense of his trustworthiness. He shows clearly the bravery and heroic self-sacrifice which characterized multitudes on both sides, and never seeks to heighten the merits of the great Union leaders by belittling or abusing their opponents. He attempts, however, to relate too much, to give far too many details, and the result is very confusing. In a history of this kind, it is impossible to tell the part which each regiment or even each brigade played in a great battle, without making it exceedingly difficult to get a clear idea of what was attempted and accomplished by the army as a whole. Mr. Coffin by the way, while describing very fully other minor operations of this year, is rather reticent in regard to the remarkable campaign of Gen. Butler. The spirit which is displayed now and then is not quite so judicious as that of the previous volume, and there are signs of haste in preparation. With all its defects, however, this is, in our opinion, the best long history of the war yet written for young people. There are numerous sketch-maps and pictures, some of which are admirable specimens of the engraver's art.

If it were not stated upon the title-page that Mrs. Farmer's 'Short History of the French Revolution' (Crowell) was "for young people," we should never have classed it as a juvenile, for it is wholly unfitted, by style and treatment, for this class of readers. The history begins on page 86, with chap. iv., "Louis XVI. and the Direful Deficit." The three chapters which begin the book are taken up with an elaborate discussion of the causes of the Revolution, and—will it be believed?—a summary of the political changes of the period, down to the Consulate, and of its legislative work. Could anything be imagined better calculated to repel the young reader? When the author is fairly in her work, her aim is a correct one—a graphic picture of the successive phases of the Revolution, and much of the work is well done; but she makes the mistake, made by so many, of thinking that vigor and picturesqueness are attained by an abundant use of adjectives. She appears to have thought, also, that a great number of extracts from Carlyle, Thiers, Lamartine, Mignet, etc., would give to her work the excellences of these writers; hardly a page is without quotation marks. This method can result in nothing but scrappiness, and the total sacrifice of unity of treatment.

Mr. Edward Eggleston has given us, in his 'First Book in American History' (Appletons), a model of its kind. The history of a nation is very difficult to present intelligibly to the mind of a child, because the picturesque treatment which alone is suited to children is not easily maintained for long stretches of time, and because, moreover, children lack the capacity to follow a continuous narration, covering centuries, in which the only thread of connection is one adapted to adults—the continuity of national life and the sequence of cause and effect. For these reasons we have noticed that children do not as a rule care for national histories but only for stories of special events and personalities. Mr. Eggleston follows the right plan of associating history with biography. He selects seventeen or eighteen persons whose lives approximately cover the whole period of American history—Columbus, the Cabots, John Smith, Franklin, Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, and others—and gives a remarkably lucid and interesting account of them. The knowledge of American history which the child will obtain from a book like this is, of course, incomplete, but so is any knowledge which he can obtain; and at any rate it is interesting, and will stay by him. The only criticism we have to make is an occasional reticence in drawing conclusions—even such as may fairly be presented to the child's mind. When it is said (p. 160) that Jackson "was the first President who put out of office those who had voted against him, and appointed his own friends to their places," a line or two to show the disastrous effects of this would start the child well on the way to civil-service reform. So (p. 185) the remark that "slavery was abolished in all the territory of the United States," might well

have been followed by some brief statement of the salutary results of this act, or at least accompanied by some definition of slavery. The illustrations are numerous, and in the finest style of wood engraving—sometimes too fine; we cannot bring ourselves to admire the "mushiness" of the cuts on pages 172 and 173, for example, even if this is the triumph of the American school.

The early history of Maryland is the main theme of 'A Colonial Boy' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), by Mrs. N. B. Eyster. An old house in Frederick, full of antiquities, is the scene of the story, and there are two heroes, a schoolboy of to-day and a lad the son of one of the first settlers. The former discovers a diary of the latter giving incidents in the history of the first few months of the colony. This diary, in which the author reproduces the spirit, though hardly the quaint style of those days, cannot fail to awaken an interest in a somewhat unfamiliar part of our early annals. The best chapter, however, is that which describes an unexpected visit to General and Mrs. Washington at Mt. Vernon, which is a charming piece of writing. The author, who, in the closing pages, makes an enthusiastic plea for justice to the Indians, errs, we think, in stating that Gen. Burgoyne paid "them a price for all the scalps and prisoners that they obtained." This old accusation rests on very doubtful authority.

'Kibboo Ganey' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), by Walter Wentworth, is the very improbable, though interesting, story of an expedition across the Sahara to the northern shore of Lake Tchad. The principal actors are two American boys, a negro, who has been a slave to a Southern planter and turns out to be a king, and a bulldog. Their adventures are numerous and exciting. The author promises a sequel "which will deal with the dangers and horrors of the slave-trade."

There are many charming pictures of Swedish life in the early part of the century in 'The Loss of John Humble' (Scribner & Welford), by G. Norway, which give this book an unusual interest and even value. The house of the Stockholm merchant is pleasantly pictured, while the little maiden Frida is a character of whom the reader becomes very fond. So is it with the hero, a sailor-boy, who is wrecked near the North Cape. He and his companions spend the winter on this desolate shore in a snow hut, amid privations and sufferings most graphically described. Finally they are rescued by a party of Lapps with dog-sledges, which gives the author, who appears to be a Norseman (though there is no intimation that the book is a translation), an opportunity to describe some of the customs of these rather uninteresting people. John gets safely back to his friends, but every reader of his adventures will grieve with him over the death of the gallant Capt. Erlingsen.

MISS ALCOTT.

Louisa May Alcott: Her Life, Letters, and Journals. Edited by Ednah D. Cheney. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1889. Pp. 404.

THE life of Miss Alcott is one more instance—if any more were needed—of how difficult a task is the search for happiness. In spite of the great success of her books, the strongest impression that is left, after reading her letters and her journals and the additional matter supplied by Mrs. Cheney, is that her life, as a whole, was very far from successful, as regards any satisfaction that she got out of it for herself. At the time when she was making countless children, in other countries as well as in this, happy with her stories, she was herself broken down with ill-health, and not in a condition to enjoy her hard-won ease.

Her life consists of two parts: up to the age of thirty she was weighed down by poverty and by the hard work of supporting her family by writing sensational stories; at that time (1862) she went to the seat of war as a hospital nurse, and the 'Hospital Sketches' which her experience there gave rise to laid the foundation of her more solid reputation as a writer, but she never fully recovered from the effects of the typhoid-pneumonia with which she was sent home sick. She says: "I was never ill before this time, and never well afterward." As her earnings became more magnificent, the necessities of her family increased with equal pace. One sister became a widow with two boys to educate; one had to be sent to Europe to study art; she was unwilling that her father or her mother should lack for any comfort. There are people who are not made unhappy by ill-health and over-work, but Miss Alcott was not one of them. To sacrifice one's whole life to one's parents and sisters is so far above the ordinary level of human virtue that we have no right to demand in addition that the victim should go wreathed in smiles to the very end. There is a picture in 'Little Women' of a scene of passionate weeping on the part of Jo because her sister Amy and not herself is chosen by Aunt March to accompany her to Europe; and throughout this life there is an undercurrent of a feeling of injustice because one who is such an unremitting bestower of active happiness upon others receives so little for herself. It is one more instance of the uncertainty of virtue (any more than selfish pleasure-seeking) being its own reward, to a nature which is not yet sufficiently developed to feed upon such ethereal food.

This memoir cannot, as a whole, be pronounced interesting reading. As a faithful *précis* of one more experiment in the art of carrying on a life, it has a permanent value; but it is too largely made up of an account of the separate amounts received from publishers for the successive stories and books, not to be a little monotonous. Miss Alcott seems to have had no intimate friends outside of her own family, and of the interesting people that she met there is little record in that part of her diary which is preserved. On dining with the elder Henry James, she says of his son (who had just reviewed 'Moods' for the *North American Review*), "Being a literary youth, he gave me advice, as if he had been eighty and I a girl. My curly crop made me look young, though thirty-one." In 1868 she was still living in her sky-parlor in Boston and sewing her own nine-penny dresses (p. 198). In May of that year she writes: "Mr. N. wants a girl's story, and I begin 'Little Women.' . . . I don't enjoy this sort of thing. Never liked girls, or knew many, except my sisters; but our queer plays and experiences may prove interesting, though I doubt it." And in June: "Sent twelve chapters of 'Little Women' to Mr. N. He thought it dull; so do I. But work away and mean to try the experiment; for lively, simple books are very much needed for girls, and perhaps I can supply the need." In 1872 she received $3,000 from the *Christian Union* for 'Work,' and she was obliged to write it three sheets at once, on impression paper, because Roberts of Boston and Low of London were also eagerly waiting for copy.

Girls were everywhere very enthusiastic over her books, and eager to take her hand. At the Woman's Congress in Syracuse, one energetic woman grasped her hands and exclaimed: "If you ever come to Oshkosh, your feet will not be allowed to touch the ground. You will be borne in the arms of the people! Will you come?"

Of her methods of work, she says:

"I never had a study. Any pen and paper do, and an old atlas on my knee is all I want. Carry a dozen plots in my head and think them over when in the mood. Often lie awake and plan whole chapters word for word, then merely scribble them down as if copying. Used to sit fourteen hours a day at one time, eating little and unable to stir till a certain amount was done. Very few stories written in Concord; no inspiration in that dull place; go to Boston, hire a quiet room and shut myself up in it."

Miss Alcott was a strong advocate of the suffrage for women, and was the first woman to register her name as a voter in Concord. Throughout her life she was a constant playgoer, and a frequent actor in private theatricals; at one time she was upon the point of going upon the stage. She had little sympathy with her father's transcendental philosophy. She had too keen a sense of humor to take very seriously the Summer School of Philosophy at Concord, in which her father found the high-water mark of his serene and peaceful existence. Of a club-meeting in Boston, she writes:

"Had a very transcendental day yesterday, and at night my head was 'swelling wisibly' with the ideas cast into it. The Club was a funny mixture of rabbis and weedy old ladies, the 'oversoul' and oysters. Papa and B. flew clean out of sight, like a pair of Platonic balloons, and we tried to follow, but couldn't."

Mrs. Cheney has performed her task with great discretion and good taste—with warm sympathy for her subject, but without exaggeration of the claims which her books make for permanent recollection.

The atmosphere of Miss Alcott's story-books is not that in which the most careful mother wishes her children to be brought up. It is not that slang and occasional lapses from a strict grammar are in themselves so very objectionable, but that they are the natural accompaniments of a mental tone which is more or less destructive both of a delicate æsthetic feeling and of a careful scientific mode of thought. As an escape from the mechanical and the goody-goody kind of children's books, which was once almost the only kind that existed, they were books to be thankful for; and as a faithful record of one phase of New England life, they have a real value; but there are now (since all have got the seed) many books to be had for children which are equally real and vivid, and of a more delicate flavor. And there are still a few old-fashioned children in existence who eat porridge and bread and milk, and to whom Miss Edgeworth's stories are a natural and a palatable mental diet.

A Book of Vagrom Men and Vagrant Thoughts. By Alfred T. Story. London: Authors' Coöperative Publishing Co. 1889.

AUTOLYCUS is the patron saint of but a few gypsying books, and the freshness of spirit in this one makes it welcome for the hour which is all it claims. The tramp is so frequently set before us as a moral and philanthropic object that it is a relief to find him again with only picturesqueness for his attribute, and, so far from being a dangerous nuisance, the terror of housewives, once more represented as harmlessly entertaining or even humbly useful. But we fear Mr. Story's tramps belong to the past. For one thing, they all have a business: they are musicians, or peddlers, or ballad-singers, or even itinerant preachers; one of them is a tinker, and another a grave-digger, though why this last is included among "vagrom men" passes our guessing, since

surely none is more bound to his acre for his trade. Sparrows, too, are embraced in the list, and the ass (an encomium after Victor Hugo's poem). Strawberries, dolls, and bridges, which are other titles of these little essays, we take to be the subjects of Mr. Story's "Vagrant Thoughts."

The author's aim is modest and he succeeds in entertaining the reader. The sentiment is helped by reminiscences of the village whence he began his journey in life, with its mill-wheel and its weathercock, and by the friendliness for the poor and outcast which runs like a strand through the chapters. Anecdote is also used with effect—village tragedies that remind one of Guy de Maupassant's peasant stories; and a touch of the quietest humor occasionally lights the gossiping page. The whole is entirely English in landscape and character, and takes one back to the roadsides and cottages of minor English writers, who succeeded so much better in rendering the lot of the country creatures than Wordsworth did with all his fine theories and high morals, in which he forgot and lost "the primal sympathy" with simple man. The book is a slight work, but has individuality, and in an unpretending way makes us acquainted with its author's experiences. It winds up, unfortunately, with an extraordinarily bad copy of verses in the worst Peter Bell style.

Children of the State. By Florence Davenport-Hill. Edited by Fanny Fowke. 2d edition, revised and enlarged. Macmillan.

SELDOM can an author have the satisfaction of recording in the second edition of a work the extensive adoption of theories and methods advocated in the first, as can Miss Florence Davenport-Hill. As early as 1841 a Royal Commission had been appointed to inquire into the condition of pauper children, who, in England at least, were brought up in schools within the workhouses. The result of that inquiry was the removal of such schools from the workhouse enclosure to the country districts. These large schools, however, soon developed unexpected evils of their own, and their efficacy was questioned by certain enlightened observers, who set about discovering the source of these evils and the best way of getting rid of them. As early as 1846, Miss Mary Carpenter had begun her work "for the perishing and dangerous classes," and had written and spoken in behalf of home life for pauper children; in 1862 Mrs. Archer had placed a few such at board in her own parish, and Miss Boucheret had made a similar experiment.

Up to this period we find plenty of criticism of existing institutions and a few isolated experiments in more enlightened methods, but no general adoption of a different policy by the Government. In 1865 Miss Frances Power Cobbe had called attention to the forlorn condition of pauper girls, and to the plan pursued in Scotland for bringing up the "children of the State." Adopting Miss Cobbe's title for a treatise which was intended for publication in a magazine, Miss Florence Davenport-Hill collected so large an amount of information upon the subject as to fill the modest volume which appeared in January, 1868. From this book Col. Grant of the Bath Board of Guardians was led to examine into the condition of pauper children, and his zeal and persistence in promoting the boarding out greatly aided the cause. Miss Preusser of Windermere learned from it what was already being done in Ireland and Scotland as well as on the Continent, and in 1870 obtained the signatures of more than 3,000 Englishwomen to a memorial, which was followed in November of the same year by a very important order of Parliament, sanctioning the boarding out of orphan and deserted children beyond their own unions, under the care of certified committees. Thus we find the system recommended by Miss Hill in 1868 adopted in its essential features in 1870 as a part of the Government System of Poor Relief, while the Poor Law Guardians of each district were left free to decide to what extent boarding out should be substituted for institutions within walls for their beneficiaries.

In consequence of the discussions which arose between the advocates of the old and of the new systems, Mrs. Nassau Senior was appointed by the President of the Local Government Board to report "as to the effect on girls of the system of education at pauper schools." Her report of 1874 illustrated and confirmed the statements in Miss Hill's book. She found that these girls too often proved inefficient and incapable when placed at service, and, having no other home to turn to, came back sooner or later to the workhouse unions, or dropped out of sight. Mrs. Senior's conclusions were strongly in favor of boarding such children out at an early age in private families of the working class.

Her recommendations met with bitter opposition from many quarters, which were answered by able arguments in their favor. Prof. Henry Fawcett, with other political economists, had opposed the plan from a fear lest it should render pauperism more attractive to parents, and give children of paupers an unfair advantage over those of the self-supporting poor, whereas the usual effect of boarding out was found to be the withdrawal of children by their relatives, who found in that system none of the allurements of the big school. As time went on, proofs multiplied of the soundness of the system, and we learn that in May, 1882, Mr. Fawcett, with characteristic candor, declared that his apprehension of evil was removed, and that the plan (provided, of course, that it was wisely administered) had won his approval. He wished his changed convictions to be made known (p. 204).

On January 1, 1888, there were more than a quarter of a million pauper children in England and Wales alone, constituting over one-third of the paupers of the country. The fact that these apparently insignificant little creatures are incapable of maintaining their own rights should appeal to our readers, who will doubtless agree with Miss Hill that the worth of different methods of education is to be gauged by their success in attaining the following objects, viz.: "(1) of depauperizing the children by enabling them to take their place upon an equal footing among the well-conducted laboring classes; (2) of securing to them the friendly interest of persons able to afford the protection and advice needful amid the temptations and difficulties with which they will inevitably be beset after they go into the world; (3) of affording such conditions of happiness in childhood as are consonant with justifiable expenditure from the public purse" (p. 324).

No one can read without righteous indignation of the sufferings of orphans in other countries in the Middle Ages, and the shifts that were resorted to to obtain money for them—first, by authorized begging; afterwards by the cruelly hard work of the children, who had to maintain themselves and the institutions. "Their only recreation was singing, chiefly hymns and psalms, and even this was at one time turned to account, for the music of the orphans was believed to be an excellent cure for all kinds of bodily aches and pains, a faith revealed by entries of payments for singing songs to different persons that they might obtain relief from toothache, bad eyes, etc." (p. 292). These wicked practices have long been disused, but the readers of Miss Hill's book can hardly fail to perceive the injustice that has been tolerated in later days as well. Under the guise of charity, and with benevolent intention, we have simply caged our pauper children, instead of giving their feeble powers a chance to expand under the influence of decent family life, with its homely cares and interests. We learn that this has been done at an unnecessarily high cost to the taxpayer, often rendering him but poor returns for his investment. On the other hand, we learn from these pages that the children of the State, when boarded out at an early age, outgrow their dependent condition, and become in most instances self-supporting members of the community, each provided with a home to which to turn for sympathy; in many cases working at a trade, and paying their own board to their foster parents.

The simple headings of the chapters must make further comment unnecessary in order to induce our readers to study for themselves this interesting volume, while its admirable index will be of value to special students: "The Workhouse as Home and School"; "Separate and District Schools"; "State Aid and Individual Help"; "Boarding Out in Ireland and Scotland"; "Boarding Out in England"; "Children of the State in the United States"; "Experience of the Colonies"; "Children of the State in Foreign Lands": "Pauper Children," and "Ins and Outs."

Hints to Travellers. Edited by D. W. Freshfield and Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, R.N. London: Royal Geographical Society. 1889. xiv.-430 pp. 8vo. Maps and illustrations.

IN 1854, in consequence of the numerous questions addressed to them by intending travellers, the Council of the Royal Geographical Society requested the late Admiral Fitzroy and other gentlemen to consider what outfit might best be recommended to explorers. Their report was printed in the Journal of the Society, and separately circulated in pamphlet form under the title of 'Hints to Travellers.'

The exhaustion of the edition and its usefulness led, ten years later, to the preparation of an enlarged and revised work of the same nature by a Committee of the Council under the chairmanship of Sir George Back. Other editions followed in 1871 and 1878. The present edition has for its first object to furnish such help as may be possible within the compass of a convenient pocket book to the intelligent explorer who, in the hope of adding to geographical knowledge, has been at some pains to acquaint himself with the use of instruments. The hints on surveying, which form the principal portion of the work, have been contributed by Mr. Coles, the Society's map-curator and instructor in practical astronomy and surveying, formerly of the Royal Navy.

The high character of the work is indicated by the names of the contributors. Thus we find Mr. W. T. Blanford and Mr. E. B. Tylor, respectively, furnishing the chapters on Geology and Anthropology. Mr. H. F. Blanford has remodelled the chapter on Meteorology. The chapter on Photography in the last edition was the work of Mr. W. F. Donkin, who, in the High Alps, had had exceptional experience in taking photographs under circumstances of great difficulty both as to transport and exposure. This chapter has now been brought up to date by Capt. Abney. Surgeon-Major Dobson has contributed valuable notes on medical

treatment and precautions. These contributions have not only been prepared by experts, but have been, before printing, reviewed by competent independent authorities on the several topics, with the consent of the contributors. Thus has been prepared a really invaluable compact little handbook, with flexible covers, of pocket size, printed on strong thin paper, and provided with two stellar charts and one of the lines of equal magnetic variation for the year 1890.

The chapter on Surveying is an excellent little treatise, in which many modern improvements for reconnaissance work have been incorporated. We think the stress laid on the use of the plane-table and the full explanations of its methods in field work an advance over any handbook of this kind yet printed. More emphasis might advantageously be put on the usefulness of the telemeter, or stadia, here referred to under the name (less familiar to American surveyors) of the tacheometer. The British surveyors are far behind those of the Continent and of America in their applications of this device, which is really the most useful and rapid means of making reconnaissance surveys yet invented. It would be well, also, to point out that the explorer may do away entirely with the glass covers of his artificial horizon in sextant work. A light wooden frame covered with gauze is equally efficient as a windbreak, and introduces no aberrations into the observations. There is no good reason why glass covers should ever be needed.

Under Outfit, it will be observed that the British explorer has a general tendency to paraphernalia. Among other things, "Tuckett's Insect Puzzler" may be referred to as an ingenious device which many of our campers would find convenient in most parts of America, during "fly time."

This little manual will be found useful, not merely for travellers and explorers, but for those who may spend a summer month in camp, may visit the frontier on business, or seek the woods for fish or game. While making no pretension to exhaustiveness, it covers well a good deal of the field, its several parts are prepared by able hands, and its usefulness is obvious. With this and the Admiralty 'Manual of Scientific Enquiry' most explorers would be sufficiently equipped in the matter of text-books.

A Lenâpé-English Dictionary. From an anonymous MS. in the archives of the Moravian Church at Bethlehem, Pa. Edited, with additions, by Daniel G. Brinton and Rev. Alb. Seqaqkind Anthony. Philadelphia: Historical Society of Pennsylvania. 1889.

No individual of the Delaware or Lenape tribe is now living in their ancient domain along the Delaware River, in New Jersey and in the eastern hilly portions of Pennsylvania; they have retreated to the wilds of Canada, to Lake Ontario, and to the northeast of the Indian Territory, in which tract about one-half of the seven hundred Lenape living there in 1880 spoke the native language. The Delawares are better known, and hence are more popular with the American public than many other tribes equally gifted and of the same prowess in war, simply because they have found an historian and others not. Ethnologists of the present day are endeavoring to atone for this injustice by studying the manners and customs of the more obscure American tribes, and by showing the public why they are entitled to as much consideration as the more "celebrated" national bodies.

The Delaware language is transmitted to us mainly in translations of Scripture and devotional books; the only extensive dictionary of it, that of D. Zeisberger, has been published by the liberality of Prof. Eben N. Horsford at Cambridge, Mass. (1887). Heckewelder's volume upon the ethnography and language of the tribe contains the historic information referred to above. While these authors have acquainted us with the Minsi, or literary dialect, now spoken by the majority of the people, another dictionary is now for sale containing the Unami dialect, and embodying about 3,700 terms recorded by an anonymous author. It is a handsome little volume, forming the first fascicle of the "Pennsylvania Students' Series," now in course of publication by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania.

The manuscript is the property of the Moravian Church at Bethlehem, Pa.; it is in the handwriting of the Rev. Mr. Kampman, who was missionary among the Canadian Delawares from 1840 to 1842, and made his copy at that time. Kampman did not know whose manuscript he was copying, but the preface of the new volume suggests that possibly a former missionary to the Delawares of Canada and to the Ojibways, the Rev. Christian Frederick Dencke, who died in 1839, was the author. While copying the manuscript of Kampman, more words were added from Zeisberger, Heckewelder, and Ettwein, and these additions, few in number, were made distinct from the rest by the initials of the contributors' names. After this, the manuscript was submitted to a native missionary of the Lenape, the Rev. Albert Seqaqkind Anthony, residing at the Iroquois reservation near Brantford, Ontario, Canada. Anthony suggested a considerable number of additions and emendations, all of which were adopted and duly distinguished. By presenting to the students a dialect of Delaware new to them, the book fills a gap in our linguistic literature, and in recommending it to our readers we at the same time express the wish that the next dictionary of that language may be conceived and executed from an ethnological point of view, by which alone full justice can be done to the rich linguistic treasures of any of our Indian languages.

Military Miscellanies. By James B. Fry, Brevet Major-General, U. S. A., retired, etc. Brentano's. 8vo, pp. 528.

THIS is a collection of papers published by Gen. Fry from time to time in military periodicals, magazines, and reviews. The articles embrace a wide range of topic and discussion, solid and light, but always instructive and entertaining. Gen. Fry has done well to collect them into a permanent volume, where they can be easily found as part of the material which history will always prize. They will be acceptable to all who are interested in the discussions arising out of the history of the war, for the treatment of theoretic questions is always clear and strong, and the controversial matter is handled with a sharp and lively pen. The author's opportunities for knowledge of the "inside history" of affairs in the War Department at Washington were exceptionally good, and some of his reminiscences are unique as illustrations of the character of Lincoln, Stanton, Grant, and other great figures in the war period.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Wyndham Towers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Austin, Caroline. Cousin Geoffrey and I. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Austin, Jane G. Standish of Standish: A Story of the Pilgrims. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Belloy, Marquis de. Christopher Columbus and the Discovery of the New World. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $3.
Berg, L. De C. Safe Building. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone: A Romance of Exmoor. With many drawings. Cleveland, O.: The Burrows Bros. Co.
Bleunard, A. Babylon Electrified. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $2.50.
Bouchot, H. The Book: Its Printers, Illustrators and Binders, from Gutenberg to the Present Time. Scribner & Welford. $7.50.
Bridges, T. Homer's Iliad: A Burlesque Translation. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co.
Bridgman, F. A. Winters in Algeria. Harper & Bros.
Brontë, Charlotte. Jane Eyre. London: Walter Scott.
Brown, T. E. The Manx Witch, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Clark, H. H. Joe Bently, Naval Cadet. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Clark, J. W. Cambridge: Brief Historical and Descriptive Notes. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Donahoe, D. J. A Tent by the Lake, and Other Poems. John B. Alden.
Drayton, M. The Poly-Olbion: A Chorographicall Description of Great Britain. Reprinted from the edition of 1622. Manchester, Eng.: The Spenser Society.
Eggleston, G. C. American War Ballads and Lyrics. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Ellwanger, G. H. The Garden's Story. 2d ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Emerson, P. H. English Idyls. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Farmer, Lydia H. A Knight of Faith. J. S. Ogilvie. $1.
Garrett, E. Life's Long Battle Won. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Good Things from *Life*. Sixth series. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $2.50.
Graham, Mary. Margaret Ellison: A Story of Tuna Valley. Philadelphia.
Grinnell, G. B. Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $2.
Halévy, L. The Abbé Constantin. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Herrick, Christine T. Letters of the Duke of Wellington to Miss J. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.

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Some Esarhaddon Inscriptions....ROBERT W. ROGERS.
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Work of Haverford College Observatory, F. P. LEAVENWORTH.
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THE CENTURY MAGAZINE

The December number of *The Century Magazine* is remarkably varied in its contents, and is especially interesting. Among the most important articles are:

Selections from Wellington's Letters: now published for the first time. This correspondence extends over a period of several years—to within a fortnight of his death—and it is noticeable as showing the gentler characteristics of the Iron Duke. (*Fully illustrated by many pictures and portraits.*)

The Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson, which began in the November *Century*, increases in interest. The present installment is full of delightful reminiscences of the Wallacks, John E. Owens, Burton, Burke, and others, besides containing some curious adventures of the author. Illustrated with portraits. New York *Commercial Advertiser* says: "It is as rattling good reading as his 'Bob Acres' is rattling good acting."

The New Croton Aqueduct. The first complete and fully illustrated paper on this great triumph of modern engineering appears in the December *Century*. A feature of the illustrations is the reproduction of photographs showing the caves which were filled by the contractors with air at the rate of $5.00 per cubic yard, to the tune of a million dollars.

The Paris Panorama of the Nineteenth Century was one of the features of the Paris Exposition. It is reproduced in miniature. The text is by Alfred Stevens and Henri Gervex, who conceived and executed the project.

Revelation and the Bible is the first paper of a timely and important series on the general subject of "The Nature and Method of Revelation," and is written by Professor Geo. P. Fisher of Yale.

The Fall of the Rebel Capital, —and Lincoln in Richmond, are striking chapters in the Lincoln history.

Two Serial Stories. "Friend Olivia," by Amelia E. Barr, and "The *Merry Chanter*," by Frank R. Stockton, are in the very best vein of two of the most popular writers of the day.

Two Complete Short Stories. In "Captain Joe," Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith tells in the form of a story one of the most heroic deeds of modern times, and "The Taming of Tarias" introduces a new writer to *The Century*. The scene is laid in the Platte Purchase.

There are Christmas Poems in the December *Century*, as well as many others, including one by E. C. Stedman of Fortuny's famous "Spanish Lady," accompanied by a full-page engraving of the picture. Among the contributions are articles on "Nature and People in Japan," by Wm. Elliot Griffis, with pictures by Wores; "Pundita Ramabai," by Elizabeth Porter Gould, etc., etc.

The Century for January will open with a remarkable paper, by Amelia B. Edwards, describing recent astonishing discoveries in Bubastis, Egypt. *Fully Illustrated.* The authors of Lincoln, in the same number, describe in a most graphic manner his assassination and death.

Future Numbers of the Century will contain "New Studies in Astronomy," "Lick Observatory," La Farge's "Letters from Japan," beautifully illustrated by the author; "Present-day Papers," by Bishop Potter, Hon. Seth Low, Prof. Ely, etc.; "The Women of the French Salons," *profusely illustrated*; "Prehistoric America"; "The Serpent Mound"; "Ancient Fire Worship," etc.; Pictures from the Old Masters, by T. Cole; the most notable series of its kind ever executed, etc., etc.

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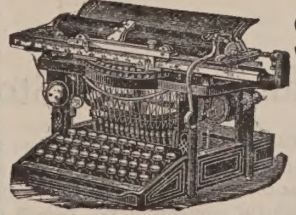

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 28, 1889.

The Week.

A LARGE amount of space is given in the report of the Secretary of War to the matter of desertions from the regular army, which has also been much discussed of late by military men in the magazines. Everybody who touches on the subject takes a somewhat different view of the causes of desertion. The Secretary says the principal ones are the restraints of discipline, disappointment with the details of the service, dissipation, ill treatment, and professional repeating. He thinks these can be overcome "to a considerable extent" by higher pay, by greater comfort, by more lenient punishments, and by giving the soldier opportunities of improving himself. It will be well to try these things, of course, and they may diminish the percentage of desertions somewhat, but they will probably never make it small. Desertions are nearly as numerous in the British Army as in ours. They are sure to be numerous in all armies recruited by voluntary enlistment. A good class of men cannot, in our day, be got to enter such armies in any great number in time of peace, if for no other reason, because they dislike their associates in the ranks. In armies filled by conscription, desertions are rare because all classes of the population are represented in the ranks, and every man finds congenial friends and associates, and most of them have homes in which they would be disgraced and caught if they ran away from the regiment. The men who enlist in our army and the British Army under present conditions are apt to be of the roving, restless kind, who object to steady occupation of any sort, have no great desire for "self-improvement," and, disliking restraints of every kind, naturally dislike those of military discipline. Life in Western posts, too, is dreary enough to inspire thoughts of desertion in the best constituted military mind. As long as we cannot get better material for the army, desertion will be a favorite pastime of the American soldier, especially out in the Plains. We may do something to diminish it, through such suggestions as the Secretary makes, but there will always be a great deal of it. Probably nothing disgusts a soldier more than such work as road-making and ditch-digging. The Roman soldier did a vast amount of it, but our soldiers are not Romans, and our world is not the Roman world, and probably many of the men enlist simply to avoid handling the spade and pickaxe.

The new Comptroller of the Currency (Mr. Lacey) makes a number of recommendations having in view the prolongation of the national-banking system. Most of these suggestions have been made by his predecessors, and reiterated until they have become tedious, without gaining the attention of Congress. The reason why they have fallen upon deaf ears is, that they look only to a brief extension of time for the bank-note circulation. They do not go beyond the year 1907, when the last outstanding bonds of the Government fall due. The integral and vital part of the present system is bond security. The system was called into existence by reason of the Government debt. Its philosophy, so far as note circulation is concerned, is interwoven with the debt, and when one goes out, the other must go out also. This is not saying that some other system may not be devised, national in character, but it will not be the present system. The other parts of the system—other than the circulating-note function—may be easily preserved, and ought to be. Upon this point the Comptroller recommends that the requirement that all banks keep a minimum of $50,000 of Government bonds be reduced to $30,000. Why not reform it altogether by simply providing that national banks which do not desire to issue circulating notes need not keep any bonds at all? The constitutional question which is sometimes raised, whether Congress can charter banks without the fiscal purpose of lending some portion of their capital to the Government, might then receive a solution through the courts, if anybody were minded to raise it. It would be interesting to know what would happen in case a national bank should continue to receive deposits and transact its ordinary business without having a petty deposit of bonds at Washington. This is something like the momentous question raised in the English Parliament: "What would happen if the Speaker should name a member?" We believe that the experiment was tried a few years ago in the case of an unruly Home-Ruler, and that the roof did not fall in. Probably neither the roof of the Treasury nor the heavens above our heads would fall if Congress should simply repeal that provision of law which Comptroller Lacey would like to have scaled down from $50,000 to $30,000.

If both the wool-growers and the silver men combine against Congressman Reed for the Speakership, it would seem to be the duty of all conservative Republicans to give him their support. We have never seen anything in Mr. Reed's course as regards the tariff question which entitles him to be classed as a reformer. He is as far from representing any views held by us as is Mr. McKinley or Mr. Burrows. But it may be fairly inferred from his surroundings that he would not favor the scale of increased duties on wool that was embodied in the Senate bill of the last Congress. In other words, he would probably follow the safe policy of letting the wool tariff stand as it is until more light can be obtained both as to its workings and as to the wishes of the majority of the people. If the Republican party can see its advantage in putting a prohibitory duty on carpet wool, the election of McKinley for Speaker of the House would be the right step to take. Then we shall probably hear from New England in no uncertain tones in the Congressional elections next year. If it is deemed best to make no dangerous experiments, Mr. Reed will be the better choice. The same ideas are applicable as regards the silver question. Here, too, Mr. Reed is a conservative, and we think that the Republican party as a whole are conservative. To change the standard of value, as is now proposed by the hot-heads, would bring consequences of a political sort that no one can now foretell. Probably Mr. Reed would use his influence as Speaker to prevent inconsiderate action, and to make sure what is on the other side of the hedge before jumping over it. One thing is certain: the Republican party has control of all the branches of the Government, and it will be held responsible for any detriment that the republic receives.

A reply which Mr. St. John has made to the criticisms of Mr. Knox on his silver proposals, strikingly illustrates the very imperfect acquaintance which many financiers of repute have as yet attained in respect to the silver question. For example, we find Mr. St. John saying that "the main feature to result from the enhancement of the price of silver is that we take away from Great Britain her inducement to depress silver, and we avoid free coinage of silver if this proposition be acceptable to those who defend free coinage; because free coinage would seem to put the United States where the Hindu now is, when Great Britain procures low-price bullion and coins it into the India legal-tender rupee with which to purchase India's products—India's mints being free for silver coinage, as some propose our mints shall be, except for her charge of seigniorage." And again: "When we enhance the price of silver, we tend to wrest from England her present advantage in importing India's wheat and cotton, and thereby we more abundantly supply her our product, until by and by the volume sent to England will be greater than her products returned to us will repay us for, whereupon at once we command her gold." How Great Britain could "depress silver" if she had a mind to do so, any more than she could depress wheat or cotton, must be left to conjecture. But so far is she from having any inducement to do so that the almost universal desire in that country is, that the former value of silver should be restored, provided that such a result can come about by natural agencies. There is not, furthermore, a particle of foundation for the assertion that "Great Britain procures low-price bullion, and coins it into the Indian legal-tender rupee with which to purchase India's products." Great Britain has never done any such thing; neither shall we, "by enhancing the price of silver, tend to wrest from England her present ad-

vantage in importing wheat and cotton," for England has no such advantage. Data recently published by the London *Economist*, and derived from official sources, tend to show that since 1884 the value of the rupee for exchange for wheat in India has fallen about 25 per cent.; and such a fall of itself invalidates pretty much all that has been written to prove that the fall in the price of silver has operated as a bounty upon the export of wheat from India. For if the silver rupee will not buy within 25 per cent. as much wheat as it once did, what becomes of the bounty?

It has turned out as we supposed it would: the high-tariff gentry are not willing to let go any part of the tax on pig-iron merely because we are shipping pig-iron to England. The *American Manufacturer and Iron World* holds that it would be very unphilosophical to throw off the duty, because such a step would be equivalent to an addition to our own producing capacity of all the producing capacity in the world. And what, it asks, would be the effect if our capacity of 6,000,000 tons were increased in one day to 25,000,000 tons, or even to 11,000,000? Would not stagnation and loss of employment and low wages be the result? We should say yes, if there were no market for pig-iron except the United States. But if there were a whole world to be supplied, and if the demand were such that all of the furnaces could not supply it without causing an advance in prices—such an advance as now exists, and which leads to the export of American pig to England—we should say that no stagnation or loss of employment or decline in wages would follow.

The tone of Gov. Hill's newspaper friends indicates that he is very anxious for a compromise upon the ballot-reform question. They are all advocating "mutual concessions," and are insisting that in passing the Saxton bill twice the Republicans of the Legislature had no other object than to put the Governor "in a hole." They say the time has come now to abandon this line and to meet the Governor half-way. That kind of talk would have more weight if the Saxton bill had not from the outset been almost entirely the work of ballot-reformers of both parties, who had no political or partisan designs upon the Governor or anybody else when they formulated the measure. Mr. Saxton and other Republicans took the bill mainly as it came from the hands of the reformers, and advocated it loyally, voting solidly for it at two sessions of the Legislature. Their bill was the inspiration and model of the Massachusetts law, and the complete success of that law vindicates them and leaves the Governor without a single valid excuse for his opposition and vetoes. It is preposterous to talk about concessions under such conditions, if by that term the abandonment of such vital principles as exclusive official ballots and nominations by petition are meant. It is not the duty of Republicans or reformers to make it any easier for the Governor to get himself out of the hole into which he was short-sighted enough to put himself.

Gov. Wilson of West Virginia has decided to call a special session of the Legislature in January, and among the business upon which he will recommend action will be the adoption of a ballot-reform bill. He has himself prepared a bill embodying the principles of the Australian system, which he will have introduced in the Legislature. There are few States more in need of this reform. West Virginia has for several years been a doubtful State, and the desire to carry it, especially in Presidential contests, has been calling forth steadily increasing outlays of money by both National Committees. The secret official-ballot system would go a long way towards breaking up this practice, if it did not completely put a stop to it.

Senator Blair of New Hampshire was so much surprised that the Virginians did not elect Mahone after he had been down and advised them to do so, that he went back to Washington saying that he was satisfied that there were enough Republican votes cast to give Mahone a good majority, and that the forty-odd thousand majority against him was due to fraud. The Republican newspapers of Virginia which refused to support Mahone, make short work of this ridiculous charge. The *Valley Virginian*, published at Staunton, in Augusta County, and the *Spirit of the Valley*, published at Harrisonburg, in Rockingham County, demonstrate that all through that region, where the negro vote is small, and everybody knows that the election was perfectly fair, there was a heavy falling-off in the Republican vote from last year—over one thousand in each of the counties mentioned, and several hundred in each of many other counties. "The result of the election," says the *Valley Virginian*, "was forecast long before the 5th of November. This was based upon known conditions and positive evidence of unappeasable dissatisfaction and opposition to the Norfolk ticket. So the cry of 'fraud,' as affecting the general vote, or as to the majority recorded, will not hold good."

The official returns in Virginia illustrate very clearly the extent of the revolt among Republicans against Mahone, and demonstrate the absurdity of the claim that the sweeping Democratic victory was due to fraud. The total vote proves to be nearly 291,000, or within about 12,000 of the unprecedentedly full poll in the last Presidential election. The vote for Governor will not be canvassed until the Legislature meets, but the returns for Attorney-General give the Mahone candidate only 122,681, against 166,978 for the Democratic, whereas last year Harrison had 150,438 to 151,977 for Cleveland. In other words, Mahone kept nearly 30,000 Republicans from supporting the Republican party this year, while about half of the number not only refused to support his ticket, but voted directly for the Democratic candidates. It is worth while to examine the figures from districts where not even the most blatant Mahonite has alleged any unfairness. The vote in four counties of the Shenandoah Valley and four in Southwest Virginia is nearly as large as last year, but the Republican total has sunk from 16,234 to 13,647, while the Democratic has increased from 15,634 to 17,206, transforming a Republican majority of 600 last year into a Democratic—or, rather, anti-Mahone—majority of 3,559 this year.

A Washington despatch reports that the Kentucky politicians in that city have been much moved by the appointment of Mrs. Goodloe, through her son-in-law, to the collectorship of internal revenue left vacant by her husband's death. One of them, Congressman Thomas, is reported to have "claimed" that the appointment would "thoroughly disorganize the Republican party in the State," and was therefore one not fit to be made, particularly as Mrs. Goodloe is reported to have been left in comfortable circumstances. How the party would be disorganized is not stated, but the assertion suggests curious reflections as to the kind of political party it must be which is disorganized by the appointment of a widow to a small office. What is it that keeps such a party together? What do its voters say to each other when they hear of the appointment which "disorganizes" them? Do they say that the news has completely changed their views about the tariff, or about negro suffrage, or steamer subsidies, or the fisheries question, or the silver question, or that they feel now that the party has no future, and that some newer and more vigorous organization, with clearer views about the Lexington Collectorship, must take its place? Nothing would be more interesting than an explanation in detail from a practical politician of the way in which a post-office or appraisership builds a party up, or brings it to defeat or ruin, as the case may be. It would be an absolutely new contribution to political science, and, in fact, would throw a side light on some of the more obscure workings of the human mind.

Another interesting question in connection with this appointment is what it indicates as to the President's view of the affair in which Col. Goodloe lost his life. If he lost it in simple defence against an unprovoked attack, his memory deserves honor and his family assistance from the Government. If he lost it, however, in a "collision" long expected, and for which he went prepared, and which he precipitated at the Post-office, he lost it when engaged in the perpetration of a crime. Even under these circumstances, his family deserve deep sympathy from his friends; but should a Government office be used to provide for them? Ought the President, as a professing Christian and the first officer of a great civilized community, therefore to have made the appointment without stating openly which of these two views of the manner of Col. Goodloe's death he took? This

must be important in the eyes of those who wish to see Kentucky delivered from this horrible barbarism which makes it disgraceful to settle quarrels otherwise than with the knife or pistol. The ordinary Kentucky boy's view of the Swope-Goodloe encounter undoubtedly is, that it was a noble, manly affair, in which the combatants lost their lives creditably, if not gloriously. Will not this impression be strengthened, to the boy's moral and perhaps social damnation, by a seeming confirmation of it from the highest officer of the Republic, himself a church-communicant and Sunday-school teacher? Come, Mr. President, let us know exactly what you meant to express by this appointment, and also what Mr. Halford thinks about it, for he too gives instruction in Christian morals.

Mr. John Field, the new Postmaster of Philadelphia, has written a letter to the local Civil-Service-Reform Association which deserves the heartiest praise. After returning thanks for the courteous and complimentary letter which he had received from the officers of the organization, and saying that "it is due to the Administration to say that my membership in your body and my views in relation to the public service were fully known and understood before the position of Postmaster was tendered to me, and that I have not been asked to modify those opinions in any particular," he proceeds:

> "The existing postal rules and regulations adopted by the Civil-Service Commission and approved by President Harrison are more comprehensive and far-reaching than those under his predecessor, and embrace nearly all the positions occupied by employees in the Post-office. These rules and regulations, and the full spirit and purpose of the law, as I understand the same, shall be strictly observed and maintained. So far, therefore, as applies to these places, there will, during my administration, be no removals except for just and legal cause, and no appointment save in strict accordance with the law. As to the few positions to which the said rules and regulations do not apply, it is sufficient for me to say that changes will be made therein when, in my judgment, the efficiency of the service will be thereby promoted."

If Mr. Field lives up to this platform, the civil-service reformers of Philadelphia will have no occasion to regret the congratulations in which they have indulged upon his appointment.

Gov. Hill has commuted Giblin's sentence to imprisonment for life, and Giblin is, of course, overjoyed and looks forward to a speedy pardon. He tried to buy some pastry with a counterfeit five-dollar bill in the store of a poor German baker. The baker discovered the fraud, retained the bill, and refused to part with his pastry until paid with good money. Giblin insisted on getting possession of the bill, and, on the baker's trying to expel him from the store, fired four shots with a pistol, one of which mortally wounded the baker's wife and another dangerously wounded the baker himself. They were a young married couple, of excellent character. Giblin was carefully tried and found guilty of wilful murder. He went up to the Court of Appeals, where all his exceptions were examined and passed upon and the judgment on him confirmed and the day of his execution fixed. Gov. Hill then, for some unknown reason, reprieved him, and ordered not a reëxamination of the evidence laid before the jury by a competent legal adviser, but a new trial of the case by an obscure young lawyer without experience, at which the witnesses were examined over again, and fresh ones produced; and on the finding of this extraordinary referee the verdict of the jury of wilful murder has been overruled. No such court of appeal in criminal cases has ever been known in this or any other country, and its creation, of course, suggests irresistibly to the uncharitable the possession of a political "pull" of some kind by Giblin to which our worthy Governor is sensitive. This may not be the true explanation, but it is the one to which the remarkable way in which the case has been reconsidered naturally gives countenance, for the Governor publishes no reasons for his decision.

The thronging dangers of modern civilized life have been increased by the discovery in England of what may be called a social analogue of subway explosions and "dead" electric-light wires. Pending the trial of a case there, the Divisional Court has determined on demurrer that the committee or members of a club may be entitled to damages if the club be generally libelled; so that, for example, a gentleman being blackballed, and relieving his not unnatural vexation in contemptuous remarks about the membership, may be called to answer for it not in one action at law merely, but in as many actions as there are members of the club. In that aspect of it, the English decision seems only to increase the power and prestige of clubs, but if it shall become law in this country, another result will follow of peculiar felicity. It will make hard the way of newspapers of the baser sort which get a good part of their living by publishing picked-up or invented tattle about just such cases of blackballing and the like. Few things make better "copy" for the use of the lower-class newspapers than talk of this sort. Their readers are eager for it, though few of them ever have seen the inside of a club, for the same reason that they like to read the "society" notes—for the reason that would make anybody like to read an authentic account of a day in Mars; and any club-servant who overhears a proper bit of talk among his masters can find a market for it at a good price in the offices of some of the morning journals. These thereupon proceed to enlarge and diversify it, after their manner. The English decision would put an end to this: fifteen hundred libel suits at once, on the same matter, would constrain the most "enterprising" of our contemporaries.

The Anti-Slave-Trade Convention at Brussels is due chiefly to the indefatigable labors of Cardinal Lavigerie, who has made the suppression of the African slave traffic his life-work. Whether any immediate practical results will be achieved is doubtful, but none the less ought the Convention to be held and the propaganda to be pushed and the agitation kept alive. The obstacles in the way are not so much the indifference of the governments of civilized States, for they are not indifferent. They share the views of Cardinal Lavigerie and his fellow-workers abundantly. The obstacles are those which nature itself opposes to all the undertakings of the white man in Central Africa, viz.: distance, climate, disease, want of communications, etc. A march of 1,000 miles across equatorial ranges of hill and plain, without roads, is not an uncommon one for a slave gang, and it is of little concern to the slave-traders if four-fifths of their victims perish on the way. No force of civilized men can take the risk of pursuing these villains to their headquarters. They can only make the attempt to intercept them at some point on the Nile, or at the coast, or on the sea. The slave dhow does not need any harbor to sail from. Any point along the coast will answer for its starting-point. But all points cannot be guarded. Moreover, the native officials along the upper Nile are sure to be in the pay of the slave-dealers, and to connive at their escape from the European officers appointed to intercept them. There seems to be no way of attacking the evil in the Sudan except by following Sir Samuel Baker's plan, with the difference, however, of employing Europeans instead of native officers and soldiers. But this involves enormous expense. It is really making war on a large scale at a great distance from one's base, and at great risk of the lives of men. It is not to be expected that England will take this burden upon herself merely because she holds lower Egypt. But she will be in the forefront, no doubt, as she always has been, in steps to suppress this traffic, than which nothing more execrable was ever known in the history of the human race.

The glimpses we get of Dr. Emin from Stanley's letters are not encouraging to those who had hoped that a lamp of civilization might be lighted in Central Africa which would replenish itself and continue to burn without the constant presence of the Doctor himself or other Europeans. So far is this result from being achieved that we learn now, and not for the first time, that Dr. Emin has been in constant danger of his life from his own militia, and it seems quite certain that, now he has departed, his meritorious plan of civilization will fall into ruin. The more information we gain from Central Africa, the more are we convinced that the lifting of the Dark Continent from barbarism can be accomplished only gradually, from the coast inwards, as the civilization of the American Continent was achieved. And perhaps it will only be gained by the slow extermination of the savages. A people addicted to devil worship and human sacrifice during uncounted centuries are not to be civilized by the use of the spelling-book alone.

REPUBLICAN DISCONTENT.

It requires no very close observation to convince any one that the Republican party as a whole is in a "state of mind" regarding President Harrison. Audible rumblings of dissatisfaction have been discernible in nearly all parts of the country for several months, and it is noticeable that they have been increasing in volume and distinctness since the November elections. For a time this general party unhappiness found its chief vent in accounts of personal experiences with the President at the White House concerning the distribution of offices, which were related for private information only. When these accounts get into print, as they are certain to do, sooner or later, they will furnish the country with some of the most edifying reading that it has had for many a day. The narrators will not be unsympathetic Mugwumps or malignant Democrats, but tried and true Republicans, and there will be little possibility of disputing the accuracy of their reports. Their time to speak will come when, with the rest of their party, they find themselves no longer too full for utterance, but too full for further silence.

We judge by the unusual step which has been taken by a loyal Republican newspaper of Pittsburgh, the *Chronicle-Telegraph*, that this time is near at hand. That journal has published a broadside in large type of Republican opinions, gathered from all parts of the country, expressing dissatisfaction with the President, asserting that he has not made good use of his opportunities, and declaring that there is a widespread discontent in the party with him because of his course. The opinions are gathered from seventeen States, and in every case the root of all evil is the same—trouble over the distribution of patronage. In New York it is shown that Warner Miller's tragic and neglected position outside the breastworks, combined with the daily spectacle of "Tom" Platt feasting on the inside, has filled the party with dissensions, and sent unhappiness and gloom into thousands of Republican breasts. In Pennsylvania it is shown that both Senators Cameron and Quay are dissatisfied because they have so little influence in the distribution of patronage and the pious Wanamaker has so much. In Missouri the party is "disgruntled" because the advice of the Republican Congressmen has been ignored in the patronage distribution, and Secretary Noble has had full control. In Indiana the trouble is especially personal and aggravated, because the President has insisted upon passing out the patronage for the State with his own hand, completely ignoring the campaign Chairman of the Republican State Committee, Mr. Huston, who, in addition to being rewarded with the office of United States Treasurer, expected to be appointed distributor of patronage for Indiana. "The climax came about six weeks ago, when Mr. Huston's recommendation in the matter of a fourth-class post-office in a Democratic district was disregarded. Mr. Huston is inclined to be extremely disgusted, as he claims that his work during the campaign entitles him to the distribution of this patronage during the term of President Harrison. What angers him more than anything else is the constant recognition of Attorney-General Miller, who contributed $1,000 to the campaign fund, while Mr. Huston stood responsible at one time for $30,000."

From other States the reports are similar in character. Kansas has been "in a ferment almost constantly since the day of inauguration," and the assurance is given that the "trouble over the appointment of a Massachusetts man to be Superintendent of the Haskell Indian School is still fresh in the minds of the public." In Illinois one of the "warmest fights yet made over the distribution of patronage is now being waged over the appointment of five local Federal officers in Chicago. Not only Senator Farwell and Senator Cullom, but all the members of Congress from that part of the State, are in arms against the President. It is argued that this cannot fail to do the party harm." In Michigan both Senators are "amazed and disgusted" because Senatorial requests have small influence at the White House, and "persistent effort alone is rewarded with political patronage." Senator McMillan is "out" with the Administration, and no longer visits the White House, being "disgusted with the political system that makes it necessary for a Senator of the United States to lay aside his dignity, take off his coat and vest, and rush into a fight for small patronage." The Colorado Senators are in "an ugly mood, and it will not take much to cause an open outbreak." The Nebraska Senators have not recovered from their displeasure over the appointment of Patrick Egan as Minister to Chili, against which they protested, but which they were prevailed upon to endorse "by request." Virginia is in complete demoralization over the disastrous defeat which followed the handing over to Mahone by the President of all its patronage. Ohio is not so vociferous in its complaints as other States, but its Republicans have grievances, the chief of which is that they have not received their proper share.

This is a sad condition of affairs, and in many respects an unprecedented one. We do not recall any President before Gen. Harrison who has been subjected to a journalistic attack of this kind within less than a year after his accession to office. That it should be made with so much encouragement and support from Republicans in so many States reveals a most remarkable condition of party feeling. Something unusual ought to be done under the circumstances, and we suggest the calling of a National Mass Republican Convention, "to give expression to party feeling upon the subject of President Harrison, and to transact such other business as may come before it." That would furnish opportunity for a free exchange of views, and would enable the party to formulate some system of office distribution which could be depended upon to make the entire party happy. Such a system is the crying need of the time. If the President had had it, all the present trouble would have been avoided. There must be some final and decisive test for all cases. Whether it shall be the amount of campaign contributions, or political usefulness, or general piety, or relationship to the President's family, or what not, it should be fixed and adhered to. It will be noticed in the opinions collected from Indiana, and cited by us above, that much of the discontent there has been caused because a man who contributed a beggarly $1,000 to the campaign fund has had more voice in the division of patronage than the man who at one time "stood responsible for $30,000" of campaign funds. A fixed scale of influence or appointment—so much influence and such a grade of office for every dollar of contribution—would put an end to this kind of trouble. General piety and family relationship could be rated in a similar way, and on such a fixed system as that a party with a patronage President would have some chance for happiness as well as for a career of glorious statesmanship.

"THE SCIENCE OF RETAIL TRADE."

The United States Statutes provide (sec. 243) that "No person appointed to the office of Secretary of the Treasury, or First Comptroller, or First Auditor, or Treasurer, or Register, shall be directly or indirectly concerned or interested in carrying on the business of trade or commerce," etc., etc., and make violation of this prohibition punishable by a fine of $3,000 and perpetual disqualification for office under the United States Government. This is the statute for the repeal of which President Grant asked, to the amazement of the country, in order that he might give the Secretaryship of the Treasury to Alexander T. Stewart, the great retail dry-goods man—our John Wanamaker of those days. It would have been an advertisement for the store such as no dry-goods man has ever received; but Congress dismissed the President's request with a somewhat disgusted smile.

The reason of the law is obvious. A person engaged in trade or commerce is of necessity either an importer of foreign goods or a competitor of importers in the home markets. It would be easy for him, therefore, if Secretary of the Treasury and in control of all the custom-houses in the country, to use his power to give himself advantages in his own business over his rivals and to the detriment of the Government, either in time, or cost, or information. Congress accordingly, and most properly, determined, as soon as the Government was organized in 1789, to remove all secretaries and leading officers of the Treasury from any such temptation. They might have assumed, considering what the standards of official propriety were at that time, that nobody to whom a Cabinet office was likely to be offered would be guilty of such an impropriety as using his official influence or authority to push his private business. But they did not trust to any such assumption. They said that no man, no matter who he was, no matter what his standing in the church or in the world, should be appointed to a high place in the

Treasury while engaged in trade or commerce.

It now appears to be pretty plain that the Congress of 1789 did not go far enough. They ought to have enacted that no head of a department should be engaged in trade or commerce. It is true that we have gone one hundred years without any scandalous results of their failure to do so, but one hundred years is a short time in the history of a great nation, and the longer a scandal of this sort is deferred the greater it is apt to be when it comes. It has come to us now in large proportions through the appointment to a Cabinet place of Mr. John Wanamaker, the great retail storekeeper and advertiser of Philadelphia. His appointment to any Cabinet place would have been a terrible mistake, even if he had had no connection with dry goods, for reasons we gave at the time. His pecuniary services in the canvass were of such a nature that if Gen. Harrison had had any fineness of political, to say nothing of moral, perception, he would have seen that they were a disqualification for high office. He ought to have shrunk with horror from the very suspicion that any one had bought a Cabinet appointment from him. Even his friends, therefore, were amazed when Wanamaker was made Postmaster-General, for the control of the post-office by the greatest advertiser in the country, a man whose "drummers" swarmed in every village, and who sold everything from pins and needles to India shawls by dint of puffery, was a scandal in itself, a *scandalum in se*, even if not a *scandalum prohibitum*. It was plainly possible for Mr. Wanamaker to make every country postmaster an agent for the sale of his wares, and it was no answer to this to say that a man who maintained a Sunday-school and prayed publicly would not do such a thing. The Congress of 1789 trusted to no such preventives. They did not say a trader or merchant might be Secretary of the Treasury if he was a praying man or Sunday-school teacher. They said, "No person"—no such person, no matter what guarantees of character or piety he may offer—shall hold this place.

Mr. Wanamaker has now been only eight months in office, and he is already using his official position *openly* to advertise his business. His place in the Cabinet of course put a certain compulsion on the Pan-American delegates, who are all well-bred gentlemen, to visit his store the other day, and enabled him to make the visit a great public function. It has, too, undoubtedly given him the brass necessary for imposing on each delegate and his wife a "souvenir," in the shape of a box containing two books which are thus described in a Washington despatch to the *Sun:*

"The largest, which is the exact size of the box, is bound in seal, and fastened together with heavy brown ribbon. On the outer cover is stamped in gilt the fanciful trade-mark of Mr. Wanamaker's store, and in the lower right-hand corner of the cover, also in letters of gilt, are the words: 'Compliments of John Wanamaker, Philadelphia, U. S. A., November 11, 1889.' The covers are lined with light brown silk, and the fly leaf is composed of a sheet of heavy white satin, to which is tied a card bearing the colors of the South American States held in the talons of a gilt eagle, which also clutches an American shield. The body of the book consists of a fourteen-page engraved address, setting forth the wonders of the great retail establishment, followed by three pages, each of which gives a diagram in minute detail of each of the first three floors of the store, showing exactly the use to which each compartment is put. A remarkable thing in connection with this illuminated address, which contains many remarkable things, is the dedication. Each souvenir is dedicated especially to the delegate to whom it is addressed, and opens with the following neat suggestion of how to connect the business of the Pan-American Congress with John Wanamaker's store:

"'DEAR SIR: Confident of our commanding position in the mercantile world as leaders in the retail commerce, and believing that we have reached the highest point yet attained in our country in the science of retail trading, we beg leave to ask your acceptance of this souvenir of your visit to our place of business, in the hope that it contains information of sufficient interest to warrant its submission to your Government as a portion of your report upon the honorable Congress to which you are accredited.'"

Of course if Wanamaker were not a member of the Cabinet, the delegates would treat this impudent little epistle with silent contempt, and dispose of the whole advertisement as such things are usually disposed of at this season of the year. We cannot recall a case in which any Government has been subjected to the particular kind of humiliation which Wanamaker has here inflicted on ours. It ought to be plain to President Harrison that he is just as ripe for prompt dismissal as Tanner was. He has not proved a particularly good Postmaster-General, as many people who were disgusted by his electioneering thought he might. The occupation of his life—enticing people to his store in search of bargains—doubtless makes the silent, unobtrusive, and faithful discharge of a public duty distasteful if not impossible to him.

THE "FARMERS' CONGRESS" AT MONTGOMERY.

THE Montgomery *Advertiser* brings us the text of the resolutions adopted by the so-called "National Farmers' Congress," recently held at that place, together with some account of the Congress—its genesis and its controlling purpose. The capital of Alabama is not exactly the place where we should look to see a representative body of American farmers assembled. It is rather out of the way for the great body of agriculturists, and we all know that farmers are averse to long journeys and large travelling expenses. The fact that the chief topic of debate was the tariff on wool, and that the person who made the most stir was the Hon. William Lawrence of the Ohio Wool-Growers' Association, suggested some doubts as to the representative character of the body.

The Montgomery *Advertiser* resolves these doubts in a satisfactory way. It says that this National Farmers' Congress consisted of delegates appointed by Governors of States—not all the States, but rather more than half of the number. The *Advertiser* thinks that the farmers of the country are quite capable of choosing their own representatives to such congresses, when they have the opportunity or the inclination, and that a Congress composed of members appointed by Governors will be more likely to represent the Governors than to represent the farmers. It thinks also that this was the actual state of the case at Montgomery.

The resolutions which engaged the largest share of attention related, as we have said, to the duty on wool, and here we have to note a decided alteration in the tone of the high-tariff party as represented by the Hon. William Lawrence of Ohio. The report submitted by this gentleman is not a declaration in favor of protection in the abstract. It does not even affirm that protection is a good thing for the country as a whole or for the farmers in particular, but merely that as long as Congress maintains that policy agriculture should be as fully protected as manufactures. Starting from this postulate, the resolutions read as follows:

"Resolved, That while as now a protective tariff is maintained which substantially prohibits the importation of foreign carpets and many other articles of manufactured goods, we demand that the duties on mutton sheep and wool of all kinds shall be so increased as to equally prohibit the importation of mutton sheep and of wool of every kind which can, under protection, be sufficiently produced at fairly remunerative prices in the United States, to supply all American wants, including the better class of carpet wools, especially as carpets are luxuries, entitled to less favor than farm and ranch products.

"Resolved, That the tariff on wool imported to make carpets should at least be as high as that imported to make coats. The same policy which will secure cheap cloths will secure cheap carpets.

"Resolved, That if protection to this extent be denied, we call upon the farmers of the United States to assert their power at the ballot-box and otherwise to right the wrong and injustice of discrimination against them. If they fail in this, the wool and mutton-producing industries will be so seriously crippled that they will be, in a large measure, destroyed, and farmers will no longer have any interest in protection for the manufacture of woollen goods, but will insist that it shall have no larger measure of protection than is accorded to the wool industry, including every kind of wool."

The report was adopted, not without considerable opposition, the vote being 170 ayes to 89 noes. All the Southern States voted no except Florida and Kentucky, whose votes were divided, there being twenty-one States and one Territory voting.

It is easy to see that the prime object of the alleged Congress was to manufacture public opinion regarding the tariff tax on carpet wool rather than on wool in general. This circumstance reminds us that the Senate bill of last year nearly doubled the tax on carpet wool, raising the duties from 2½ to 4 cents per pound on the coarser grades, to the great surprise of the public, even those of protectionist leanings, since these coarse carpet wools are not produced in this country, and cannot be under present conditions or under any conditions likely to prevail here. Probably the carpet-manufacturers were not so much surprised as other people, because they have been well informed all the time of the movements of the Wool-Growers' Association. The alleged Wool-Manufacturers' Association, whose pretensions to represent the woollen industry are almost as transparent as those of the Wool-Growers' Association to represent farming, but who do represent that portion of the woollen interest which is in subjection to the wool-growers, adopted a resolution at their last meeting deprecating any increase

of the duties on carpet wool. The resolution was in these words:

"Resolved, That the increase of the duties upon wools used exclusively in the manufacture of carpets, amounting to 60 per cent., proposed in the Senate bill, cannot stimulate the American growth of the coarse, low-grade wools now cultivated only in semi-barbarous countries, and commanding less prices than the better wools grown to better advantage by our farmers, and at no additional cost, everywhere in the United States. On the other hand, such duties must seriously cripple the one branch of the woollen manufacture which has been enabled to fully supply all the demands of the home market at greatly reduced prices to the consumer."

Undoubtedly we may look for the tug-of-war on this subject when the committees of the new House of Representatives are appointed.

SHIP CANALS.

In the world of trade it may be said that fashions prevail, as well as in other spheres where whim and caprice hold more legitimate empire. Means of expediting commerce by shortening routes, and by the introduction of mechanical devices for attaining greater speed on land and sea, are undoubtedly the offspring of a necessity arising from the urgent demands of these busy times, and still it is equally true that the example of one prominent achievement of recent years, the Suez Canal, has set many minds thinking upon problems of inland navigation in other quarters. The conception of a canal connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans at Panama is three centuries old, to be sure, but it lingered as a dream until the success of Suez encouraged an attempt at its execution in fact. The failure at Panama has in no wise dampened the enthusiasm for ship canals. It is said that this ill-fated enterprise may not yet in reality be dead, and we are fain to believe that ships will soon be sailing from sea to sea at Nicaragua. Aside from these, a whole brood of other canals, great and small, have either been commenced or suggested. In brief, there are three in progress in foreign countries, and eighteen projected, while four are being carried toward completion in America, and the plans of twelve more are on paper, which, with the twelve existing foreign canals and the four at home, make a total of fifty-three. R. E. Peary, in a recent issue of the "Transactions of the American Society of Civil Engineers," presents a most interesting collection of statistical data respecting these enterprises, some of which will be new and surprising to those who have not been able to watch such matters closely.

If all the British projects now mooted are successfully executed, England, Scotland, and Ireland will be divided into a number of smaller islands. An Irish canal between Galway and Dublin would shorten by many hours the journey from New York to ports on the Irish Sea. The Newcastle-on-Tyne Canal, from the Tyne to Solway Firth, would open, in connection with the former, the shortest possible route from New York and Boston to the ports of Belgium, Holland, and Germany. The same advantages, with others of great local value, are claimed for the Scotch Canal from the Clyde to the Forth, which it is proposed to enlarge from its present depth of nine feet to a size suitable for the passage of the largest ships. A large force of men is engaged in constructing the canal from Manchester to the Mersey, which will be completed in 1891. This is one of the most important projects of its kind in the world, not alone because it seems destined to divert an immense portion of the trade of Liverpool, but because, if it proves as successful as its promoters anticipate, other inland cities will follow the example of Manchester, thus altering the currents of English internal traffic as they exist to-day.

In Europe projects are equally numerous. Brussels, Bruges, and Paris are zealous for communication with the sea. An Italian canal from the Adriatic to the Mediterranean is suggested, and it is claimed that a route can be opened at a cost of $37,000,000 through Moravia and the two Silesias, connecting the Oder and Danube, which could pass large vessels from the Baltic to the Black Sea. Navigation could then be extended from the Black Sea to the Caspian by a canal fifty-three miles in length from the Don to the Volga. These, and more besides, are in serious contemplation; but of more importance than any of the foregoing is the Holstein or North Sea-Baltic, which is being rapidly built, and which when completed will serve a shipping having a registered tonnage of 9,000,000 tons, almost double that now using the Suez Canal, in addition to offering military advantages of inestimable value to the German Empire. Not only will it effect an enormous saving in distance and time for vessels bound to and from the Baltic, but it will avert the annual disasters which result in a loss of some 200 sailing craft attempting the dangerous passage around the north of Denmark.

Suggestions have also been made for shortening the route to Mediterranean ports and to the East. One of these is to deepen the old Languedoc Canal from Bordeaux to Narbonne, while another project contemplates a new canal having nearly the same terminal points. By sailing thus direct from the Bay of Biscay into the Mediterranean a voyage of 700 miles around the Peninsula of Spain would be avoided. Then from the Mediterranean other shorter routes than Suez are indicated for reaching the Indian Ocean. A cut from Acre to the Jordan Valley and thence to the Red Sea has its advocates; and another from Antioch to the Euphrates, and thence to the Tigris, would open a direct passage to the Gulf of Arabia. But the engineering difficulties in these last two projects are so great that they may safely be considered as purely visionary.

It may not be known that M. de Lesseps has figured in other schemes than Suez and Panama. In 1881 a company was organized, with M. de Lesseps as honorary president, to build the long-talked of canal across the Isthmus of Corinth. This enterprise, whose necessity was foreseen by Periander, Cæsar, Caligula, and others, and which was at one time undertaken by Nero, will serve a commerce which estimates have placed at 4,500,000 tons. M. de Lesseps, in the interest of a French company, has also obtained a concession from the King of Siam to construct a canal across the Isthmus of Malacca, which would save a voyage of 500 miles between Europe and Chinese ports through the treacherous straits of the Malay Archipelago.

Coming to our own shores, it may be well to point out the enormous advantage which the St. Mary's Canal has been to our internal commerce. A small traffic in 1855 has risen to the extraordinary figure of 6,932,000 tons which passed through it in the year ending July, 1889. Its original dimensions, which had been increased in 1881, proved totally inadequate to accommodate the growing trade, so that a further deepening to twenty feet and an enlargement of the locks—now the largest in the world—has been undertaken, and when this is finished it is probable that St. Mary's will serve a larger traffic than any canal in the world until the facilities offered at Nicaragua have created new and more extensive commercial dealings with the countries of the South.

There is a series of canals which in time is certain to be constructed between the great cities of our Atlantic seaboard, and the present awakening of interest in such projects bids fair to hasten its consummation. This line of inland water-way would consist of the Cape Cod Canal, from Buzzard's Bay to Barnstable Bay, which would save from 70 to 140 miles from Boston to various southern ports; the Delaware-New York Bay Canal; and the Delaware-Chesapeake Canal. By such a system as this, not only would commerce have a direct and cheap route from Boston and New York to Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, and the ports in the Carolina sounds, but it would enable us to concentrate war-vessels with extreme rapidity at any of these important places, and would preclude the interception of communication by blockading fleets in the event of war. When the Nicaragua Canal has given an impetus to southern trade, the need of the canal for which a charter was granted in 1883, from the St. John's River, Florida, to the Suwanee, on the Gulf Coast, will become so imperative that it cannot long be delayed. Then the chain will be complete, and our merchants will enjoy advantages, in reaching speedily and cheaply the ports of Spanish America, which will throw the balance largely in their favor against competition from Europe. With such encouragements as these, it would seem that an American shipping ought to spring up which would give us that supremacy on the sea which it should be the effort of our law-makers to facilitate by every legitimate means within their power.

THE HEREDITARY PRINCIPLE.

The dismissal of the Emperor of Brazil—for dismissal seems to be the word—will not strengthen something which now needs a great deal of strengthening—the hereditary principle in government. It is weak in England and Italy, and certainly not strong in Austria, and is extinct in France. The Imperialists made a curious attempt to revive it in the last-named country by basing it on a plébiscite—that is, asking the people to elect a particular saviour of society, with the privi-

lege of transmitting his place to his son, who might not have any capacity whatever for saving society. In England the House of Lords has brought the principle into great discredit through the misconduct of some peers and the abdication of their legislative functions by others, and perhaps more than all by the gross mental and moral inferiority of the sons of some men raised to the peerage for distinguished service in the army or at the bar. It is these contrasts which most glaringly reduce the rule to absurdity.

In Germany it has been a good deal strengthened of late by the high character and great services both of the old Emperor and his son Frederick, and will probably not suffer by the career of the present occupant of the throne if he commits no striking indiscretion, such as plunging the country into a needless or unfortunate war. He works hard at his duties, as nearly all the sovereigns of his house have done, and the idea that the king is the servant as well as the ruler of the State, and must be a man fit for active service in the field, fortifies the royal authority. In England the incapacity of the sovereign ever since the accession of the house of Hanover, nearly two centuries ago, for all serious work, either of war or statesmanship, would probably before now have had a disastrous effect on the monarchy but for the timely appearance of the present Queen. She rendered it the inestimable service of presenting the nation with the spectacle of a pure and conscientious domestic and official life just as the rule of the old aristocracy was overthrown and the serious and puritanical middle class was coming into power by the passage of the first Reform Bill. What has been the effect on the hereditary régime of the career of her children and grandchildren cannot be known as long as she lives, but the general impression is that it will be found at her death that the throne no longer rests,

> —— "unshaken still,
> Broad based upon a people's will";

that there will come a period of sufferance instead of one of loyal and hearty support. The light that beats on the throne is now so fierce, owing to the newspapers and the spread of the suffrage, that no prince who is not moral and hard-working can be sure of his place. The old mediæval monarch, in fact, surrounded by semi-divine honors, and incapable of doing wrong, cannot exist without the mediæval feeling of "loyalty," and this has perished or is perishing in every modern State. The English Revolution of 1640 gave it its first shock. The French Revolution still further weakened it, and the continued success of the American Republic and the accompanying growth of that curious social and political solvent, "American humor," has almost extirpated it. It would be difficult to find in Europe to-day, outside the inner court circle, any one who would confess that he felt it in its purity, or confess that he felt it at all without a deprecating smile. And then the dethronement of so many minor Italian and German princes since 1866, and, above all, the dethronement of the Pope and the downfall of Louis Napoleon, have done a great deal to cheapen royalty as an institution.

The dismissal of the Emperor of Brazil without trouble or violence, and with a handsome pecuniary solatium, must give all heirs to thrones all over the world a considerable shock, but no intelligent person will draw from anything that has happened in Brazil, or is happening anywhere, the conclusion that the hereditary principle has never had any value. On the contrary, it has rendered the modern world incalculable service in securing the peaceful devolution of great powers and enormous masses of property in the days when law was feeble, and every man who had a claim of any kind was ready to assert it with his sword. In fact, it is difficult to see how modern Europe could ever have emerged from the dark ages if the idea that the king's eldest son had a moral right to the crown, and the lord's eldest son had a moral right to the estates, had not taken fast hold of men's minds. It prevented prodigious waste of life and property, and gave continuity to the government and to society in times when security seemed of all earthly blessings the hardest to attain. Hereditary monarchy filled a most useful place until the habit of government by discussion and of submission to a majority vote had obtained a firm place in political manners, and a change in the supreme executive had become a possible and safe legal process. As this habit grows in monarchical countries, there is little doubt the desire to get rid of the expense and display of monarchical institutions will bear fruit everywhere.

It is certainly very odd that the popular faith in "blood" should, for political and social purposes, be as strong as it is, in view of the extreme rarity with which parents transmit either great mental or moral qualities to their offspring. Able sons of able fathers are by no means unknown phenomena, but they are too scarce to warrant the respect with which all children of remarkable parents are still treated. The explanation of the anomaly probably is, that the popular mind is still so much affected by the transmission of physical qualities that it infers from it the transmission of the nobler ones also. The hereditary transmission of physical qualities is as common among men as among the animals. The large men and the strong men are apt to have large and strong sons, and *may* have sons with as much brains, or tenacity, or industry, or integrity; but the popular presumption is apt to convert the "may" into "must."

THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE PROFESSIONS.

THERE is more or less perturbation in the collegiate world over the decline in the number of students, in proportion to population, who now seek a university education. In Germany the supply is kept up by the fact that a university degree is necessary for a great many offices in the gift of the Government, and for the retention of a certain social position, and there the complaint is that the university men are a drug in the labor market, and that large numbers of them pass their lives on the verge of starvation. But in England and in this country, although the number of colleges and of students grows rapidly, it does not grow in anything like the same ratio as the population. This fact began to be noticeable half-a-century ago in the United States; it has been extremely noticeable during the last twenty years in England.

There are, of course, various reasons assigned for it, of which the most prominent is the great delay imposed by a university education on a young man's entrance on life. The competition in all callings is very fierce. The question which fathers and mothers are everywhere asking themselves with most earnestness is, "What shall we do with our boys" to enable them to earn a living? The answer which comes back from nearly every trade and occupation is, that any boy who wishes to succeed must begin early, and that the youth who starts on the work of his life at seventeen or eighteen is sure to have very great advantages over the youth who begins at twenty-three or twenty-four, even if the latter have obtained a college degree. A college graduate who wishes to enter one of the professions through the best channels—whether law, or medicine, or the ministry, engineering or architecture—as a rule is graduated at twenty-two and needs three years more to get his purely professional training, so that he can hardly take the field in good earnest before he is twenty-five or twenty-six. But by that time his friend who has refused to go to college is four or five years ahead of him, and has, unless a dunce or a drone, obtained a good footing on the lower steps of the ladder. This difference, of which the public becomes more sensible every year, of course keeps a great many young men, promising as well as unpromising, on whom the necessity for earning a living bears hard, from taking a college degree. They seek only that kind of training which will most speedily fit them to earn money. They appreciate the academic course, acknowledge its many advantages, and wish they had had it: but they set it down as a luxury, and can point to scores of eminent and successful men in every calling who have dispensed with it. In fact, there are a good many branches of business, both in England and here, in which a college graduate is not welcome at all, not only because he comes late, when he is no longer pliable, but because his degree has given him some self-importance, and possibly, in England, some of the contempt for "trade" which is common in the public schools as well as at the universities.

Most of the colleges have been debating a good deal of late the best mode of meeting this imperious and increasing demand for an early entrance on active life. President Adams of Cornell has taken up the subject in his recent report, but exaggerates in saying that the German graduate gets to work at twenty-two, the American only at twenty-six. The difference is about half as great as this. Moreover, he is not the first college president to raise the question. It has been under discussion at Harvard since 1883, and has considerable space given to it in President Eliot's report for

1883-'84. The Medical Faculty at Harvard took it up and presented a memorial to the Academic Council on it in 1886, and President Eliot's report for 1886-'87 said that the evil "affected American colleges quite as unfavorably as it did the professional schools." In consequence of all this, the Harvard Academic Council voted on November 15, 1887, "that with a view to lower the average age at which Bachelors of Arts can enter the professional schools and the Graduate Department, the College Faculty be requested to consider the expediency of a reduction of the college course."

The question is undoubtedly a very serious one, and one that increases in gravity every year. There are two ways of meeting it. One is the shortening of the academic course by a year or more. The other is the injection of technical or professional studies into the Senior year. All the leading colleges are trying to choose. There is one other device which might be a help if not a solution, and that is letting every man take his degree whenever he could pass the needed examination. This would enable the studious, hard-working student to shorten his course almost to any extent his capacity or industry permitted. It might also do something towards hastening that most desirable consummation, the reservation of all the great colleges to the really studious men who are eager to learn, and who value the place for its scholastic rather than its social advantages. There is at present a prodigious waste of collegiate money and time on young men who are not eager to enter on life's work, and in fact do not care how long their exit from college is postponed. No college owes this class anything whatever, and it is a question whether their appearance in the world as graduates does not do much to discredit university education in the eyes of the multitude. The motto "Disce aut decede," or, freely translated, "Study or clear out," ought to be engraved on every college gateway.

THE MORAL ASPECT OF THE FRENCH EXPOSITION.

THE *Revue des Deux Mondes* has been publishing a very interesting series of articles on the Paris Exposition by the Vicomte de Vogüé, the well-known member of the French Academy. The closing one of the series appears in the latest number of the review, in the shape of an attempt to point out the moral and intellectual significance of the Exposition as a commemoration of the Revolution of 1789. He asks the question at the outset whether the France which has organized this commemoration is really faithful to what are called "the principles of 1789"—that is, approaches social and political questions in the same spirit as the France which made the Revolution. He answers it by an emphatic negative. He says the spirit of the Revolution, meaning thereby the worship of equality, of "the rights of man," and the faith that these two doctrines would in some manner transform the world and produce general happiness, is dead. Liberty, Equality, Fraternity—the watchword of the Revolution—has been relegated to the garret. What has taken its place? Fatalism, Selection by heredity, and the right of Might. Science, or Realism, has slain all the old idols, and pulled down the geometrical temple created for their worship by the Revolution.

The transformation has taken place in literature and art as well as in politics. The realists, or naturalists, are all the rage in literature. In politics the civil engineers enjoy the popular admiration which used to be bestowed on the orators and lawyers. Europe has been transformed by Bismarck, because Bismarck represented the new social force, Louis Napoleon the old one. It was a state of mind, no less than a political régime, which was overthrown at Sedan. Gambetta endeavored to adapt himself to the new methods, but his education was too classic to enable him to succeed. He made his famous speech at Romans on the new France that he foresaw, a few days after the German Chancellor made his equally famous one in the Reichstag on Socialism. "Between the language of the German statesman and that of the French orator, there were the same differences," says M. de Vogüé, "as between a book or a picture of the realistic school and a work of art of forty years ago, between a bit of Schopenhauer and an oratorical exposition of M. Cousin."

The change in France, he says, has been long in preparation. The new ideas have been for years working to the surface, just as the philosophic ideas of the Revolution had been for years working to the surface before the Revolution came. But just as the old régime received its death-blow the day on which that terrible satire the "Mariage de Figaro" was produced on the stage in Paris, so also the régime set up by the Revolution received its death-blow, M. de Vogüé thinks, on the day on which Darwin first found French readers. He adds:

"On the eve of the meeting of the States-General a superficial observer might have deceived himself as to the approaching dislocation of French society. The old régime still existed apparently intact. Royalty commanded in the name of the old law, and was obeyed by its organs. The people adored their sovereign; contemporary testimony is positive on this point. Nevertheless, the majesty of etiquette did not conceal the void. Among all thinking men, among the leaders of society, the new philosophy had killed the roots of the old tree. The old formal homage was rendered to the King at Versailles. . . . But every one had a presentiment of a revolution which would put into social practice the ideas which had mastered people's understanding. It is the same to-day. The principles which then triumphed are in possession of the State. They are inscribed on all our walls. They control the drafting of our laws; they are celebrated in our public fêtes; they protect our interests; but their virtue is exhausted; their decline is discussed publicly by writers, secretly by politicians. Other principles, the product of the new philosophy, have replaced them in the controlling minds of the community. Every one is asking what will be the result of the expected evolution. Some think it near, others remote; but there is no doubt that the force which shapes the destinies of men and nations will do its work once more in France by bringing the institutions of the country into harmony with the reigning ideas."

All this is very interesting as the conclusions of a very penetrating philosophic observer, but it is really, even if all true, much less serious than it seems. What it foreshadows is really, in plain English, the return of France to the paths of experience, which she forsook at the Revolution, for what John Stuart Mill has somewhere called the "high priori road," on which she has during the past century had so many laughable as well as terrible adventures. If all that M. de Vogüé foresees should come to pass, it would simply mean the conduct of the French Government on those great principles of human nature which have presided over the growth of the American Union and the British Empire since 1789.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN GERMANY.—I.

AMONG the progressive nations of the western world, Germany has hitherto clung most tenaciously to what we will venture to call the sweet-and-simple theory of the destiny of women. In other lands the claim of women to a more independent position, at least in the matter of educational privileges, has been very generally recognized in practical ways, so that to-day women of intellectual ambition either have access to the existing universities, or else are provided for in schools of their own established for the express purpose of furnishing them the same sort of mental pabulum that is given to their brothers. The state of affairs in our own country, which may without vanity be called a leader in this respect, does not need to be described. In England, as is well known, the cause of higher education for women has lately been making advances that amount to little short of a revolution. France, which had previously conferred academic degrees somewhat freely upon women, set out, in 1880, upon the policy of building *lycées* for them, and dates a new era in its educational history from the passage of the Camille Say law. The Spanish universities are now open to women, and these are availing themselves, in small numbers, of the opportunity offered, especially for the study of medicine. At the recent educational conference in Paris the most eloquent advocate of first-rate educational facilities for women was a Spaniard. Italy opened its universities to women in 1876.

It may be said in general that in the "Latin" nations the cause of the women has been championed from the outset by men, while among the Germanic nations the women have taken up the matter themselves and been largely instrumental in winning over the men to their views. Sweden admitted women to its universities in 1870, and three years later opened its academic degrees to them, except in law and theology. The latest Upsala catalogue, which lies before us, shows a goodly sprinkling of feminine names. Denmark followed in 1875; women can now take degrees at Copenhagen in everything but theology. In 1880 Holland, Belgium, and Norway joined the procession. The Swiss universities have long admitted women, Zürich having led the way in 1868.

In marked contrast to all this stand Germany and Austria, where the influence of authority, both civil and academic, has seemed to set more and more against the innovation. Not that women are excluded from German lecture-rooms: they are sometimes, especially if from abroad, allowed to "hear," but the privilege does not carry with it the right to matriculate or to be examined for a degree. Of late even the blessed boon of "hearing" seems to be more and more grudgingly bestowed; the mass of German professors take no pains to conceal the fact that they do not want the women

about. Nor, speaking broadly, are there any separate schools for women which can compensate for their exclusion from the universities. Aside from the feeble beginnings to be mentioned below, it may be said that Germany has not taken the first step towards providing for the higher instruction of its daughters in any such spirit as it has long provided for that of its sons. Thus we have the curious state of affairs that the country whose universities have been for half a century the admiration and resort of the world, is now sending its ambitious and talented young women abroad (as yet in small numbers, to be sure), because the gates of knowledge are barred against them at home.

The attitude of the Germans, especially professors and bureaucrats, with regard to woman's sphere is well known. It comes to view in all its impressiveness in a last year's address of Geheimer Oberregierungsrath Dr. K. Schneider of Berlin. "Where now," sternly asks Dr. Schneider, "does woman best fulfil her appointed destiny? Again Holy Writ gives us the answer: 'And they said unto him, Where is Sarah thy wife? And he said, Behold, in the tent.'" It is this sort of patriarchal philosophy which is master of the situation in Germany. Colored more or less by modern poetry, masking oftentimes under chivalrous and deferential language, but thoroughly contemptuous of woman's claim to anything like an intellectual equality with man, it controls the class that governs and the class that teaches. And as for the women themselves, the great majority placidly accept the rôle assigned them, enjoy the homage they receive in print for being "good," and go on believing that what their profound men-folk say must of course be true. Under these circumstances it would seem as if the outlook for any agitation of the woman question in Germany must be somewhat dreary. Nevertheless, such an agitation is going on briskly. A small but clear-headed band of reformers, chiefly women, have long been working to bring about a change of affairs, and there are signs that they are gaining ground. Prominent among them is Helene Lange, author of an interesting pamphlet, "Frauenbildung," and other brochures. To Fräulein Lange's various writings the author of this article is largely indebted.

The reform movement began several years ago, in an attempt to secure for women a larger and more influential representation upon the teaching-force of the public high schools for girls. These schools have grown up in Germany as a sort of pendant to the gymnasia. They receive girls at about the age of seven and graduate them in eight or nine years. In the first year the pupils are given eighteen lessons a week, which number is gradually increased to thirty or thirty-two lessons in the last years of the course. The subject made most of is German, which, including "reading," occupies about 22 per cent. of the pupil's total time. Next to this in importance come French and arithmetic, taking together as much time as German. After these come religion, needlework, calisthenics, occupying another 22 per cent.; then drawing, English, singing, geography, history, together about 23 per cent. The remainder of the time goes to Italian, natural history, physics, chemistry, and writing. (These figures are computed from the Prussian "Normal Lehrplan.")

The organization of the schools is similar to that of the gymnasia, and the charge so often brought of late against the latter, that their pupils are stuffed rather than educated, applies with still greater force to the girls' schools. The large number of daily lessons, the great variety of subjects nibbled at in the course of a week, the extreme youthfulness of the girls at graduation, make it impossible that their school training should, in average cases, do much either in developing the mind or in deepening and ennobling the character. It is to such a furious cramming process as this that the brightest and most fortunate German girls are everywhere subjected; and from this they pass directly to—wedlock, or whatever other fate awaits them. They have no opportunity, as their brothers have, to correct their superficiality by a period of leisurely, independent, concentrated study at a university; hence it is, as a rule, not corrected at all. The great majority of the graduates simply forget what they have "learned," and that is the end of it. At nineteen their education is mainly a reminiscence, a feeling of "gehabt haben."

Such being the state of affairs, we can hardly wonder that the "höhere Mädchenschule" should have become a favorite target for satire, and the cause of much uneasiness; or that a movement has been started looking towards a somewhat radical change of its theory and organization. The theory against which the protest is directed was formulated as far back as 1872 by a convention of girls'-school teachers which had met at Weimar in that year. This body gave utterance to the proposition that the German girl must receive a good education, to the end that the German man may not be bored "at the domestic hearth" by the ignorance of his wife. In other words, the public instruction of girls was to be based in fact, if not in form, upon the Rousseau philosophy, "La femme est faite spécialement pour plaire à l'homme." Of this position it was an obvious corollary that the instruction of girls should be in the hands of men, since men might be supposed to know best what would prevent men from being bored at the domestic hearth. This wisdom naturally excited opposition from the first, but the protesters were so hopelessly in the minority as hardly to be noticed. Of late, however, they have organized for the campaign, as our politicians say, and the results of their work are already beginning to appear.

THE FORGED LETTERS OF WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, November 4, 1889.

THE use of forged letters and spurious newspaper extracts in a political campaign has become so barefaced and insolent as to create a feeling of wonder whether the moral sense of the people has become deadened, and public spirit callous to such impositions. During the Revolution an experiment of this kind was made that has passed into history, but in such a form that comparatively little of its interest has been developed and the story never told as it might be. The singularity of the experiment—for in that contest and for many years after I am unable to trace any similar trick—and the impotency in results, make it worthy of a more careful study than has been accorded to it.

In May or June, 1777, John Bew, a well-known bookseller and Ministerial publisher of London, sent out from his presses a pamphlet containing seven letters purporting to have been written by General Washington to his friends in 1776, and to have been captured at the taking of Fort Lee. The account of the capture was very circumstantial and apparently truthful. The body-servant of the General, a mulatto named Billy, had been left behind because of illness, and in a portmanteau in his possession the letters were found. Now, Washington did have a body-servant of that name, purchased in 1768 from Mary Lee for £61 15s., and so great a favorite that he was specially mentioned in Washington's will, where he is given his "immediate freedom" should he desire it, and an annuity of $30 a year, in recognition of "my sense of his attachment to me, and for his faithful services during the Revolutionary war." But none of Washington's immediate servants were taken by the British in the course of the war, his papers were never captured, and in August, 1776, fearing the issue of the campaign round New York, he had sent all his public and private papers to Philadelphia, not calling for them until late in December. How improbable, then, was it that his servant should in November be carrying in his portmanteau letters written in the previous June and July. These facts, however, could not have been known to the British public.

The letters purported to give a "fairer and fuller view of American politics than ever yet transpired," and were they genuine they were well calculated to create surprise, for they represented the General as longing for peace and reconciliation with the mother country; disheartened under the burdens and responsibilities of the war, discontented with the army and with Congress, complaining of the Virginia officers as well as those of New England, and expressing his disgust at some of the political leaders in Virginia. There is a strong local color in these letters, and the cleverness and skill with which they are constructed, copying even the punctuation generally used by the General, might easily have misled the reader. Moreover, the intimate knowledge shown of the General's habits and of his family gave an additional reason for their genuineness, and even in America they might have been accepted at first sight as true. The fabricator shows a lamentable ignorance of dates, and in some parts of his handiwork trips on facts, drawing too heavily on his memory, his imagination, or the newspapers. But surely a public that could swallow almost weekly a total defeat of Washington's army, mutiny in his troops, the capture and even death of the General, might well be excused for tasting of the feast laid before them in these letters.

That they were compiled for a purpose is evident on their face. They would strengthen the war party in England, give aid to the Ministry to push the issue, and uphold the idea that the contest would be speedily terminated by the complete overthrow of the rebellion in the colonies and the reëstablishment of the authority of King and Parliament in those dependencies. From that standpoint it is not strange to have them published by a Ministerial printer, and it would not be surprising to discover that the author was in close relations with the Ministry, even if private pique or revenge may not have contributed to the suggestion of manufacturing them. But the purposes of the writer were not confined to the English public; they reached over the Atlantic, and, could they be widely circulated there, they might discredit Washington with the Continental Army, with Congress, and with the people, and, by creating suspicions of his integrity, and of his honesty in dealing with the two great factions of North and South—even then existing—introduce dissensions into the councils of the "rebels." Surely such an end was worth the "good beefsteak" that Richard Henry Lee thought was due to the forger from his masters.

The letters, though creating no stir in England, where they were in cold blood set down as forgeries, were eagerly seized upon by the Tory printers in America. Rivington of New York, who would make a model leader-writer

on a party organ of to-day, so little did he care for truth, justice, or the feelings of others, was the first to obtain them, printing one as a broadside to be sent into the American camp, and the others in his *Gazette*, whence they were at once made up into a small pamphlet. His Tory colleagues in Philadelphia, James Robertson—formerly associated with the poet John Trumbull—and James Humphreys, jr., whose loyalist principles had led to his exile from Philadelphia while in Continental hands, also utilized these letters in the columns of their newspapers. The results were by no means commensurate to the end in view, and it is rare to meet with so much as a reference to these letters in contemporaneous correspondence. To Washington, sensitive as he was to that form of criticism, they caused a moment of anxiety, coming as they did immediately after the "Conway Cabal," in which members of Congress and leaders in the army had been involved. But the publication caused only a ripple of excitement, one more of curiosity than of indignation; and so little attention was paid to it that Washington did not think it necessary to make any public denial of their authorship. They failed at this time, but they were ready for the uses of unscrupulous libellers in later years.

Who was the writer of these letters? So far as I know, only one attempt was made to unravel the mystery of the authorship. The *Monthly Review* of London suggested the Rev. Mr. V——, probably the Rev. John Vardill of New York, who had gone to England in 1774 to take holy orders, and had written on the Ministerial side; some poetical satires on the Whigs being attributed to his pen. He is commemorated in 'McFingal':

> "In Vardill, that poetic zealot,
> I view a lawn-bedizened prelate;
> While mitres fall, as 'tis their duty,
> On heads of Chandler and Auchmuty."

It is impossible to conceive, however, that a total stranger to Washington and to Virginia could have compiled these letters, even when the facts might have been given him by others. There are too many personal touches, showing an intimate acquaintance with Washington, to allow of such a supposition. Fortunately, a letter from one of Washington's aids, Tench Tilghman, is in existence, that gives us a clue, based in all likelihood upon a statement of Washington himself, for it was his custom to talk very freely with his family. Tilghman wrote:

"He [the General] suspects Jack Randolph for the author, as the letters contain a knowledge of his family affairs that none but a Virginian could be acquainted with. The sentiments are noble, and such as the General himself often expresses. I have heard him declare a thousand times, and he does it every day in the most public company, that independence was furthest of anything from his thoughts, and that he never entertained the idea until he plainly saw that absolute conquest was the aim, and unconditional submission the terms which Great Britain meant to grant."

Apart from this bit of evidence, and the existence of one of the broadside issues of the letter in the Du Simitière collection, with a note, "wrote by a Mr. Randolph of Virginia," there is internal evidence that "Jack Randolph," the last royal Attorney-General of Virginia, and father of Edmund Randolph, was the fabricator. He approaches accuracy when detailing matters or impressions that occurred prior to November, 1775, when he sailed for England. He is most minute in facts that Washington might have written to Mrs. Washington or to Lund Washington, with both of whom Randolph was in close friendship. "Surely," wrote Lund in the fall of 1775, "her old acquaintance, the attorney, who, with his family, is on board his [Dunmore's] ship," would prevent any danger of harm to Mrs. Washington. He uses facts and illustrations that it is probable were communicated to him by his son, when the latter was one of Washington's aides before Boston, and, finally, he urges reconciliation in the strongest terms, an article of Randolph's belief so strong that Jefferson regarded his departure to England somewhat in the light of a mission. "Looking with fondness towards a reconciliation with Great Britain, I cannot help hoping you may be able to contribute towards expediting the good work." Such were Jefferson's parting words to the loyalist exile, who went to London, accepted a pension of the British Government, and may justly be suspected of having forged these letters of 1776.

Here the history of the letters might well have ended, for they have thus far proved harmless; but the bitterness of party strife was to play the "body-snatcher" with them, exhuming them in one of the most critical periods of our national history. The arrival and publication, through a breach of confidence, of the Jay treaty, had thrown the country into a ferment. The French party used it for all its worth against Washington, and charged him with betraying the interests of his country to the British. The press teemed with attacks upon him and his policy, so bitterly personal in tone and vituperative in language as to excite indignation when read at this late day. None, however, wielded such a bitter pen as a little clique of "French Democrats" in Philadelphia. Duane, an Irish-American, and Bache, a connection of Benjamin Franklin, formed a partnership, and their paper, the *Aurora*, has never been surpassed, if equalled, in its libellous spirit and neglect of all proprieties. Mr. Henry Adams, in his admirable history, asserts that this paper "was the nearest approach to a modern newspaper to be found in the country," and sets him down as a "scurrilous libeller."

This precious pair undertook to destroy the influence of Washington, for they feared he might be a Presidential candidate for the third time. In 1796 appeared two volumes of the official letters of Washington to the Continental Congress during the Revolution, a compilation made by one John Carey, under the eyes of Washington and Jefferson, and designed for the English market. Naturally these volumes were reprinted in this country, and gave Duane & Co. their cue. For they republished the forged letters from the "Federalist Press," and, not content with that, compiled a good-sized volume of Washington's letters taken from the newspapers, but so garbled as to mislead the reader, and place the writer in the wrong. This volume, entitled "Epistles, Domestic, Confidential, and Official," was issued by Rivington, who must have smiled to see his old work vamped at that late day, and, without a word of explanation, placed upon the market as a complement to the Carey compilation. The exquisite irony of such an issue, in which whatever truth it contained was relegated to the appendix, must have been highly appreciated by the compilers, and they succeeded in having the volume reprinted in England.

Washington, while he was in office, took no public notice of this volume, although he made an effort to discover the perpetrator—an effort that yielded no results. But, on the day before he left the Presidency, he placed on file his declaration of the forgery, and his denial was widely published in the newspapers. Did it stop the attempts of Duane? Not at all; but to protect himself from possible consequences, he printed Washington's denial as a leaflet, and, inserting it in the fore part of his volume, continued to sell it. I have met with so few copies of the epistles containing this leaflet that it is reasonable to suppose that the sale was not very brisk after the forgeries were denounced. There is something almost pathetic in Washington's taking his pen, on the day before he retired to private life, to protest against such methods, and leave his "testimony of the truth to the present generation and to posterity." He recognized the purpose of the publishers of these forgeries: "It was then [1778] supposed to be of some consequence to strike at the integrity of the motives of the American Commander-in-Chief, and to paint his inclinations as at variance with his professions and his duty. Another crisis in the affairs of America having occurred, the same weapon has been resorted to, to wound my character and deceive the people."

The attempt was as abortive in 1796 as it was in 1778, and although the ranks of the libellers were increased by such lights as Thomas Paine and James Thomas Callender, the reputation of Washington never suffered by their attacks. Not content with his retirement, they pursued him into private life, and the farewell to Washington on his leaving the Presidency, penned by Duane, has become a classic of unseemly libel. In one respect, it must be confessed, these writers were above their successors; for in the entire range of their writings I have been unable to trace a single attack upon Mrs. Washington. The Duanes, Baches, and Callenders of to-day would not only forge letters, and libel public characters, but pursue their wives and destroy all privacy with their impertinent interference. It would be well if these later writers would adopt the chivalry of their prototypes of the last century; and better still if they could learn, from the history of these letters, that such attempts generally end in failure and come back upon their originators.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

THE EDINBURGH ART CONGRESS.

LONDON, November 6, 1889.

THE second Art Congress has just been brought to a close in Edinburgh. It is not very long since, in the *Nation* (October 3), in writing of the speeches made at the first Congress, and pointing out the socialistic, moral, economic, and everything but artistic tendency of many of them, I ventured to predict that very few leading artists would take part in the proceedings this year. I should like now to show briefly how fully events have justified the conclusion at which I then arrived, especially as the *Saturday Review* has objected to my prediction, based, it thinks, on the usual inaccurate information of the American correspondent, and, to prove it groundless, has given a list of names of the most distinguished artists present. But it so happens that this list supports rather than contradicts me, and I cannot do better than use it in my turn.

The Royal Academy was represented—I am quoting the *Saturday*—by Briton Riviere, Watts, Hodgson, Horsley, Richmond, Yeames, and Onslow Ford. Of these seven only three are men of any fame as artists. Onslow Ford, though perhaps his work has not crossed the ocean, is one of the most promising of the younger school of English sculptors; Richmond probably is better known; and, of course, the reputation of Watts is still more widely spread, but to what extent his present painting is held to equal it, outside of the group of his admirers, no better illustration is needed than its criticism by Mr. Coffin in his ninth paper on "The Fine Arts at the Paris Exhibition" in

the *Nation* for October 10. I find that another of the seven, Briton Riviere, also contributed to the Paris Exhibition, but Mr. Coffin did not even consider his work worth mention. As for the others, two are absolutely unknown, save by Royal Academicians and the buyers of their pictures, whoever the latter may be; while if the seventh has attained notoriety, it is not by his work, but because of his fad about the nude in art—a fad which he aired at Edinburgh, where he was indignantly silenced by a respectable Quaker lady, who told him and the delighted audience that the study of medicine in her youth had knocked all such old-woman's nonsense out of her. If these men are really to be accepted as Great Britain's leading artists, one begins to understand better all the talk about the degeneracy of British art.

William Morris and Walter Crane were the representative decorative artists in attendance. But they go to Art Congresses to preach socialism and not to talk about art. They and their followers were again in full force, and, not content with the Congress as a field for action, in the evenings they lectured upon book-illustration, house-decoration, book-binding, and printing to workmen, with closed doors. Only those who revealed by their clothes the noble fact that they lived upon their own labor and not upon the labor of others, were admitted; artists and reporters were shut out in the cold. It is a doubtful question whether men who cannot stand criticism are best fitted to consider and settle affairs of national importance.

There were no architects of note present. Among the sculptors, in addition to Onslow Ford, Stirling Lee was the only one of prominence, but he was a conspicuous figure, as he deserved to be, owing to his late unfair treatment at the hands of the phenomenally prudish Liverpool corporation. Of the Royal Scottish Academicians who attended, I doubt if any are really known, with the exception of Mr. Hole, whose fine reproductive etchings have probably been seen in New York, as well as his illustrations to Stevenson's 'Master of Ballantrae.' Promoters of the Home Arts and Industries appeared among the speakers, but, however great they may be as philanthropists, they can scarcely be ranked as leading artists, even in Great Britain. The *Saturday Review* also brings forward triumphantly the presence of three art professors among the spectators, but I notice it does not mention their names, and I hear nothing of speeches from such men as the Slade Professors, Herkomer, Middleton, and Legros, or Dr. Waldstein, who, had they gone to Edinburgh, would hardly have been allowed to remain mere spectators. The *Saturday's* list closes with the art critics, "well represented" by Mr. Andrew Lang, who, however, assured his audience he knew nothing whatever about art, and then went on to talk very charmingly of savage art; and Mr. M. H. Spielmann, who gossips about artists in one of the London evening papers, and whose first, last, and only canon of art is, "Keep on the right side of everybody!"

At last year's Congress Sir Frederick Leighton, Alma-Tadema, Hamo Thornycroft, and Alfred Gilbert—to mention no others—delivered addresses, while the principal art critics on the London press went to Liverpool in a body. And yet even the Liverpool gathering, it was felt, was not altogether representative. Great etchers like Seymour Haden and Whistler, who would have drawn after them crowds of students from all over the country, eager to listen to their every word on their art, have had nothing to do with the Congress since the very first; neither has Sargent, who, though an American, is now so very prominent in the English art world, nor Parsons, nor Stanhope Forbes, nor in fact any of the most promising of the younger men. Book-illustration was absolutely ignored, and yet Abbey lives in England. And when it comes to the art critics, where was Ruskin, who still seems to have strength enough to travel as far as Venice, though he was not heard from in Liverpool or Edinburgh? And where was Philip Gilbert Hamerton, whose name both years has been unmentioned? From the beginning the Slade Professors have not shown active interest in the movement; and this year a man like Sidney Colvin, though expected, neither went to Edinburgh nor sent a paper, so that the national museums were not adequately represented. The *Saturday's* report but confirms my statement that the Congress is being given over to faddists, moralists, social reformers, and men who seize every opportunity to add to their own notoriety, and not, as it should be, to the leading artists of the country.

It is amusing to find the *Saturday's* righteous critic cheerfully contradicting himself. After parading his great names, he adds: "Names and numbers are, however, of little importance. The questions that have to be mainly considered are, what was said by the speakers, and was it worth saying?" Most emphatically, no. Save a strong, manly speech by Onslow Ford, suggesting the appointment of a Minister of Art, and one by Stirling Lee, nothing was said which might not just as well have been left unsaid. There was what promises to be the inevitable opening sermon proclaiming the holiness and divine mission of art; and there were weak platitudes from the Marquis of Lorne, fitted, I suppose, for the Presidential post by the artistic proclivities of the Princess Louise. Mr. Watts, who could not be present in person, sent a written appeal to save the workman from drink by allowing beauty to permeate his joyless life; and Mr. Yeames showed startling ignorance of the conditions of art and artists in the past. One speaker proposed the formation of a Court of Taste in every great city (!); another, the protection of architects from quacks by a sort of licensing system. But perhaps the most noteworthy incident of the week was the courage of Mr. Hole, who openly and without fear called Ruskin and his teachings absurd. This may point to the beginning of a healthy reaction against the Soulful School of Art in England. But the struggle will be, in all probability, a desperate one. Mr. Morris was quickly on his feet to take up arms for his prophet, and the London press, rushing into the fray, declared that art for art's sake will never go down with sturdy Britons. This settles it. As long as English artists are ruled by the English public, English art exhibitions will be what they are, and English art congresses but an excuse for preaching and sentimentalizing.

N. N.

Correspondence.

A TRACE OF JOHN WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Henry F. Waters's recent pamphlet on the 'Ancestry of Washington,' reprinted from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for October, is of great public interest. The author desires further confirmation of his statement regarding the affiliation of John Washington of Westmoreland County, Virginia, whose will is dated 1675, proved 1677, with the Sulgrave Washingtons. All that now exists, however, are some extracts taken many years since by Bishop Meade from the original will-book, which has disappeared.

It is in this connection that, acting on the advice of two of the most eminent genealogists in New England, I call public attention to the fact that the will or letters of administration of *a* John Washington about the same period is recorded in the index of the Surrogate's office in Charleston, South Carolina. This discovery the writer of this note made in 1874, and, showing the entry in the index to one of the officials, he confirmed the date of the will as about 1680 (?). It is quite possible for this member of the Washington family to have been the original emigrant John Washington, who may have owned land in South Carolina and had his will recorded in two places. Unfortunately, in 1874 the early Charleston wills were in such confusion that, without a long search, it would have been impossible to find the original; but it is to be hoped that some diligent antiquary like Mr. Waters may discover this important paper, for which reason I now call public attention to it.

William John Potts.

Camden, N. J., November 15, 1889.

LOCKRAM AND *LOCKRUM.*

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A reference to the dictionaries of the English dialects should satisfy those who are in doubt about these words. Of the fabric called *lockram* there seems to have been a fine sort as well as a coarse. *Lockrum*, signifying "nonsense, gibberish, rigmarole," is common in the Midland counties, and thence, no doubt, was exported to the New World. Sometimes it is used attributively, as in Edward Ward's *Hudibras Redivivus* (1707), vol. i., canto ix.:

> "After he'd made a little Pause,
> Again he stretch'd his *Lockrum* Jaws.
> But now, says he, 'tis worth your Wonder
> T'observe how th' Lord brings Tyrants under,
> As Ahaz, Jeroboam, Saul,
> Jehoram, and the Dev'l and all,
> Who were so wicked, that they valu'd
> Religion only as a Ballad."

That Ward meant *lockram* is, however, a position which may find advocates. But, after all, until better informed, I am disposed to consider *lockram* and *lockrum* as one and the same word, with two senses, a primary and a figurative. In this case it may be compared with *bombast*, *buckram*, *fustian*, and *shoddy*.

—Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, November 8, 1889.

BE DONE AND *HAVE DONE.*

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is no higher authority for English usage than your correspondent "F. H." He is quite right in what he says about "have done." When I first saw in print the letter on which he comments, I made the same criticism on it that he has made. What I certainly meant to write, as it is what I should certainly say, was "be obliged and done with it." The awkward repetition of the "be" was, I am sure, unconscious. Had I chosen the pedagogic instead of the conversational form, I should have written "be obliged and have done with it."

I remain, your obedient servant,

J. R. Lowell.

INTERNATIONAL IGNORANCE AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "H. G. H.'s" story in the *Nation* of November 7, of English ignorance of our geography, needs to be capped by a story of some American ignorance of foreign parts, in order to justify the adjective "international." Per-

haps most of us are fitted for the position of hero, even "H. G. H." himself.

Australia is an English-speaking continent second in importance only to the United States among the commonwealths making up Greater Britain. If we demand of an Englishman that he should know that the Rockies are not in sight from the Hudson, and are even more than 400 miles away, should we not expect of an American, "H. G. H.," for instance, that he should be able to tell:

(1.) Whether Australia is larger or smaller than the United States?

(2.) Whether Tasmania is in sight from its shores, or is 400 miles away or more?

(3.) Whether the distance between Australia and New Zealand is comparable to that between the Hudson and the Rockies, or whether it is 400 miles or less?

(4.) Whether Melbourne is in sight from the mountains about Sydney, or whether it is 400 miles away, or as far away as the Rockies are from the Hudson, etc.

Yet, can "H. G. H." answer these questions without putting down the *Nation* to take up an atlas? G.

COLORADO SPRINGS, November 12, 1889.

THE TARIFF ON AMERICAN SCHOLARSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for October 24 (p. 335), you furnish your readers with an instructive illustration of the peculiar kind of encouragement given to scholarship by our laws, in the account of the fine of $1.25 imposed upon Dr. Maurice Bloomfield for importing two proof copies of his text-edition of the 'Kāuçika Sūtra.' Certainly no parallel to this transaction could be discovered in the Treasury Department records of any other nation, civilized or uncivilized.

It may not be out of place to point out, in this connection, that if the Senate Act of May 9, 1888—the so-called International Copyright Act—had passed the House of Representatives as well, Dr. Bloomfield would not only have been made to pay into the Treasury of the United States one-fourth of the value of every copy of his work which he might import, but, in return for his temerity in having his book printed in the *only* country, perhaps, where Sanskrit printing could readily and cheaply be done, he would have been called upon to forfeit his entire copyright. That is to say, he would have lost the only legal property equivalent he could show for his five years or more of arduous labor, and, moreover, been forced to surrender the power to control the use—however fraudulent or abusive—made by other persons of the results of that labor. *

THE COPYRIGHT IN BAGEHOT'S WRITINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reviewer is quite right in requiring visible evidence in the matter of Bagehot copyright, and I cannot charge him with my own negligence. I possess, however, cordially appreciative letters from Mr. Hutton and Mrs. Bagehot, and expect to publish the latter's permission on the next lot, to be printed shortly. The neglect of this was not due to any sharp practice, but to the fact that the overworked editor, like Virgil's Rhadamanthus, did his task wrong end first, and accomplished it before asking any questions.

"De gustibus non"—but with regard to the portrait, which I am very sorry does not do credit to our intention and expense (we *paid* for a first-rate one), it may be interesting to know that Mr. Hutton, surely a competent judge, pronounces it "admirable." It was engraved from the Woodburytype frontispiece to the 'Literary Studies'; well or ill engraved I must not debate.

May I add that a time when the highest and most sacred things—the chair of national Government and the pulpit of God—are being degraded to advertising purposes, is exactly the one when somebody ought to elevate advertising out of its mire of uncleanly associations? When grand viziers use their positions to sell "pants," and religious advisers to job stocks, a business company may justly feel some pride in a dignified and valuable service to the public, irrelevant to its business, for which it asks only respect and good-will. They pull their employments into the mud; we raise the least dignified part of ours out of it.

Truly yours, FORREST MORGAN.

WORDSWORTH VS. SCOTT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Without seeking to impugn the general validity of Mr. Savage's remarks upon Wordsworth and Japanese art, in the *Nation* of November 14 (although they seem to me somewhat far-fetched), suffer me a word in defence of one whom Wordsworth unjustly attacks. I mean Scott.

It has been the fashion for half a century, ever since Carlyle's heinous review of Lockhart's 'Life,' to sneer at Scott, until one wonders whether our grandfathers might not have been out of their senses to find aught good in him. It is high time that an end should come to this pitiful delusion. As to Wordsworth, profoundly as we may admire the poet in him, we need not accept the man at his own valuation. In truth, Wordsworth could be at times insufferably narrow-minded and fault-finding towards his contemporaries. Mr. Savage quotes his strictures upon Scott's method:

"He [Scott] took pains; he went out with his pencil and note-book and jotted down whatever struck him. . . . He went home and wove the whole into a poetical description. But nature does not permit an inventory to be made of her charms. He should have left his pencil and note-book at home, . . . and taken all into a heart that could understand and enjoy," etc., etc.

Moral: Write from memory!

The curious feature of all this is that Wordsworth is belaboring a straw-man of his own creation. The real Scott did *not* do what he is represented as doing. If ever there was a writer who trusted to the stored-up treasures of his memory, gathered in Wordsworth's own ideal manner, it was Scott. In only one instance, to my knowledge, did he write otherwise. And even this instance would never have been known to Wordsworth had it not been recorded by Lockhart. The scene of 'Rokeby' is laid in England. Scott visited the place in the autumn of 1812, as the guest of his old friend, the owner, Mr. Morritt. From the latter's Memoirs Lockhart quotes:

"The morning after he [Scott] arrived, he said: 'You have often given me materials for romance; now I want a good robber's cave and an old church of the right sort.' We rode out, and he found what he wanted in the ancient slate-quarries of Brignal and the ruined Abbey of Egglestone. I observed him noting down even the peculiar little wild flowers and herbs that accidentally grew round and on the side of a bold crag near his intended cave of Guy Denzil; and could not help saying that, as he was not to be upon oath in his work, daisies, violets, and primroses would be as poetical as any of the humble plants he was examining. I laughed, in short, at his scrupulousness; but I understood him when he replied 'that in Nature herself no two scenes are exactly alike, and that whoever copied truly what was before his eyes would possess the same variety in his descriptions, and exhibit apparently an imagination as boundless as the range of nature in the scenes he recorded; whereas whoever trusted to imagination would soon find his own mind circumscribed and contracted to a few favorite images, and the repetition of these would sooner or later produce that very monotony and barrenness which had haunted descriptive poetry in the hands of any but the most patient worshipper of truth.'"

And from a letter of Scott's to Morritt, November 29, 1812, it appears that Scott cancelled in type and rewrote a page of 'Rokeby' in order to make his mention of the watercourses tally with the facts.

This 'Rokeby' passage is unique, I believe, in Scott's life. We must remember that Scott was undertaking to describe a scene with which he was not familiar. We may rest assured that when Scott's foot was on his native heath, he never had need of pencil and note-book, but trusted to a memory that seldom deceived.

Wordsworth, in the passage above noted, goes on to expatiate upon the *advantages* of trusting to memory, that useful faculty having the happy gift of eliminating the "accidental" and retaining only the "ideal and essential." It may be worth while for the Wordsworthians to apply this theory to the theorizer himself. In Wordsworth's exquisite "Yarrow Visited," the downright sincerity of the opening stanza is marred by the pious ejaculation:

> "O that some minstrel's harp were near,
> To utter notes of gladness,
> And chase this silence from the air
> That fills my heart with sadness."

Was not James Hogg, the Ettrick Shepherd, of the party, ready at a sign to break the oppressive silence with his piping? But Wordsworth needed the silence, and his memory supplied it, by eliminating the accidental Hogg. And twenty years later the same memory, in "Extempore Effusion," sang:

> "When first descending from the moorlands
> I saw the stream of Yarrow glide
> Along a bare and open valley,
> The Ettrick Shepherd was my guide."

Another sample of Wordsworth's peculiar memory may not be superfluous. Scott, in quoting from "Yarrow Unvisited," got the famous lines,

> "The swan on still St. Mary's Lake
> Floats double, swan and shadow,"

into

> "The *swans* on *sweet* St. Mary's Lake
> Float double, swan and shadow."

Wordsworth criticised the blunder twice—once rightly, once wrongly—rightly, when he laid the stress on the "sweet," pronouncing it commonplace and meaningless, whereas "still" was necessary for the perfect image in the water; wrongly, when he laid stress upon the plural "swans," saying: "Never could I have written 'swans' in the plural. The scene *when I saw it* . . . was one of utter loneliness; there was *one* swan, and one only, stemming the water. . . . Had there been many swans and many shadows, they would have implied nothing as regards the character of the place, and I should have said nothing about them." And he wound up with the memorable utterance: "I have hardly ever known any one but myself who had a true eye for Nature—one that thoroughly understood her meanings and her teachings."

Extraordinary indeed! I have ventured to italicize the clause "*when I saw it.*" Did Wordsworth actually forget that he was discussing lines from his poem upon Yarrow *unvisited*! And did he mean to insinuate that Scott and other ordinary mortals with fallible eyesight had never seen a flock of swans on St. Mary's Lake? Besides, in "Yarrow Unvisit-

ed," the poet is not describing a scene of desolation. He is rather alluding to the lake in a hasty summing-up and in a decidedly *humorous* tone. As for the "sweet," Scott's memory, doubtless, tripped over the lines immediately preceding:

"Let beeves and home-bred kine partake
The sweets of Burn-mill Meadow."

I am far from undervaluing Wordsworth's poetry. It has, indeed, an ineffable charm and glory all its own. But I must hold that we shall fare more safely if we trust less implicitly to his oracular didactic strictures upon other men. J. M. HART.

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, November 18, 1889.

DESOLATE FARM SITES IN NEW ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What has been said in the *Nation* about the decline of farming in New Hampshire and Vermont has attracted attention at home and abroad, and if the subject is of interest to readers in France, it must be doubly so to Yankees born and bred in the very localities you have mentioned. From the responses so awakened one might infer that the abandonment of New England farms was "a modern instance," and only recently worthy of comment, while the causes set forth seem to me equally misleading.

The period of my youth was spent upon a farm situated in a school district just north of Monadnock Mountain in New Hampshire. We attended school in a little brick school-house which the School Committee reported as "situated a mile from any human habitation and much secluded by hills and forests." The number of pupils during those years (1857 to 1865) ranged from five to fifteen, but we were accustomed to be told on "examination days" how this school-house had in times past held eighty or more pupils at a time. A curiosity to know where they could have come from led to the discovery, within one mile of this school-house, of nine "old cellar-holes," and, within a radius of one and a-half miles, of seventeen. Two years since, I took another inventory, and found that there are now not less than twenty-three old farm sites within the last-named radius. About these spots, where in most cases large, well-made houses stood, filled with strapping boys and buxom girls, still linger some vestiges of former days—a scraggy orchard, a lonely rose-bush, or a sentinel shade tree—to tell where the husbandman and housewife *ceased* to plant and tend fifteen, forty, and sixty years ago.

It should be borne in mind that this locality was always purely agricultural; a blacksmith's shop where farmers' wagons were ironed and their oxen shod, if an exception, being the only one. The soil, too, produced fair corn and other crops, and was, generally speaking, productive. Good crops of hay are still cut where the plough has not been used for twenty years, and cattle grow fat in pastures grazed for generations. The schools in town always had more than a local reputation; roads were generally good and taxes reasonable. Moreover, the condition of the farmers who remain disputes the statement of "G. W. A.," "that it is to-day an absolute impossibility for a healthy man, by average industry and prudence, to live with ordinary comfort and lay by enough to see him through his old age on a New England farm." They have money in the savings banks, Western mortgages and other investments, have good buildings, well-stocked farms, and a thousand comforts *unknown* to the average Western farmer.

I have lived in Windsor County, Vermont, and there are few localities in the New England States about which I do not know something from *actual observation;* and I say confidently that the above statement of facts (which any one can verify) about a single school district in the town of Dublin, County of Cheshire, and State of New Hampshire, presents a case typical (generally speaking) of the rural districts throughout New England.

We have heard cited as "among the main causes of this decline" the burdens of direct and indirect taxation; but how a farmer, by migrating and plying his vocation in some other State, could escape these burdens, is to me a mystery. The affliction of the tariff is a sore one to the farmer, but it falls as heavily upon him in Colorado and Illinois as in Vermont. Roads, schools, and public works are made and maintained by direct taxation in every part of the United States, and it is as easy to hide one's farm or personalty from the assessor in one place as in another.

Unquestionably that product of "refined and enlightened selfishness," the tariff, silenced the sound of industry in every ship-yard along our New England seaboard; and this, with the discovery of petroleum and the destruction of the sperm whale, let loose a band of half-lumbermen, half-whalemen, and half-farmers, who left their half-tilled acres for something more congenial to their uneasy spirits. But the main causes which we seek are broader and deeper. They inhere:

(1.) In the change of method and extension of agriculture, and its broadened relations to commerce.

(2.) In the opportunity for enterprise and speculation in other lines which was contemporaneously developed.

(3.) In an education which enabled the New England farmer boy to change his vocation, seize upon and possess this opportunity.

The economic conditions of trade and agriculture have been revolutionized by science within a hundred years. Improved machinery and methods have made it possible to farm more acres, or make a single acre more productive with the same labor. The art of canning, in its multifarious uses, preserves and makes transportable products otherwise perishable. The vast fields which formerly produced madder and other vegetable pigments and dyestuffs, have been converted into grain fields by the discovery of aniline dyes and mineral paints. But over and above all this and much more of the same tenor, the tremendous strides made in improved methods of communication, travel, and transportation have added an enormous and increasing annual increment of new farms—new farms in Australia, new farms in Africa, new farms in South America, and new farms in North America, all bidding for a rating in the same market—until to-day the merchant in Lombard Street may, in the morning, consult his factors in Minneapolis, Montevideo, and Melbourne about some farm product, and in the afternoon order his supply from Cape Town or Bombay.

The new opportunities for enterprise and activity, super-agricultural, so to speak, which were developed alongside, sometimes in advance, of this opening of new ploughed fields, were fitted to stir and satisfy the largest imagination and the greatest range of tastes and ability. The margin of profit for the mere farmer grew narrower, and his vocation more mechanical and less interesting, but the sphere of human activity in every other direction was immeasurably widened. A time came, therefore, when the New Englander asked himself not, Where is the fittest farm, but Where is a fitter vocation?

Such a race of readers, thinkers, and misers never before tilled the soil; and farmers' sons were never before so perfectly equipped by practical training and education to change their calling, to adapt themselves to new social and economic conditions, to see, to seize, and to possess an opportunity the grandest and most varied ever offered. These farmers' sons left the farms to establish newspapers, to build railroads, to open mines, to organize banks and trust companies, to build up manufactories and found cities; and in every undertaking throughout this broad land, and other lands, where energy, brains, coöperation, and capital have been called for, their history is written. The first to leave the old homestead did so somewhat regretfully, somewhat with formality. But when, laden with golden, official, and diplomatic honors, they came home to speak in the Sunday-schools, fresco churches, build free libraries, and tell their story, all ceremony in going was forgotten. Farmers burned their buildings for the insurance, so that companies in Vermont failed or closed down, and in New Hampshire refused to pay even honest losses, until a valued-policy law was enacted. A powerful and impelling motive, which should be studied in connection with the foregoing, was an intense, bred-in-the-bone desire to get rich. No class known to history ever possessed a keener appetite for accumulation than those who hoed corn and potatoes in New England.

To speak of legislative remedies is useless: time alone can make the adjustment. When the new and cheaper lands of the world have been occupied, the hills of New England may again be inhabited, but it must be by a home-loving, unambitious people, who are satisfied to live in accordance with the conditions fixed by the law of supply and demand for those who till the soil in other parts of the earth.

WALTER C. FROST.

COLORADO SPRINGS, COL., November 18, 1889.

DESERTED FARMS IN NEW YORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following clipping is from the county news column of the Lyons *Republican* for November 22. It shows that agricultural depression is not confined to New England, but that even in the richest part of New York State something is the matter:

"In the rural districts in Wayne County there are no less than 400 empty houses. It is a lamentable fact that the rural population of Wayne County is slowly drifting into the larger towns and cities, while many are going West in search of cheaper homes or fortunes. The town of Sodus alone has over fifty deserted houses, and Huron has thirty or more. The next census will show a marked decrease in the rural population as compared with ten years ago."—Yours truly, M. A. VEEDER.

LYONS, N. Y., November 23, 1889.

THE FARMER AND HIS TAXES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The ingenious and convincing arguments in favor of a closer connection between the legislative and executive departments of our Government, which "G. B." has deduced from events absolutely irrelevant (to the ordinary mind), have long been the object of my admiration. But his explanation of the decline of prosperity in New Hampshire and Vermont does not carry conviction to my mind; nor can I believe there is any remedy so easily applicable as a mere change in the tax laws. Every one admits the great difficulty of adjust-

ing taxes equitably. It is the recognition of this difficulty, rather than any clear understanding of the underlying theory of right of ownership in land, that is giving Henry George's single-tax scheme its popular success in many States. If we admit that land belongs rightfully, not to individuals but to mankind, we can then justify a tax which is properly the rent of the land. But putting all rights in property on the same basis, it is not easy to see how the State can justly tax one part and suffer another part to go free; nor is the expediency of such a scheme obvious on any other than protectionist principles, which assume that certain kinds of industries should be sacrificed for the sake of other kinds.

"G. B." states that "all that gives land any value is the quick capital employed on it." Possibly. But why is "quick capital" employed on some land and not on other? Chiefly because some land is adapted by the nature of the soil or by its location to serve the uses of mankind. The presence of quick capital is primarily an *effect*, not a cause, and an effect of causes in which taxation or non-taxation is a very insignificant element. "G. B.'s" argument for the non-taxation of personal property in order that "quick capital" may flow in, exactly reduces to the protectionist argument—*i. e.*, that by taxing agricultural industries and favoring manufacturing industries, the value of the land will be raised by the creation of a local market. There is a plausibility about this argument, and I confess I have been at times nonplussed to find the facts directly controverting it.

The most striking feature of the decline of the farming interests in New England is that this decline is *not* the greatest in districts remote from the cities and villages where "quick capital" is aggregated—rather the reverse. It is astonishing, in driving five miles out from Lowell, Lawrence, Manchester, or any other of our thriving manufacturing towns, to find deserted farm-houses, abandoned fields, and all the evidences of decay in even greater profusion than in the "back districts." But such is the fact. The causes are, I think, mainly two:

(1.) As I said in my former letter, there is no such thing to-day as a *local market*. The means of transportation are so efficient that we find the products of the whole world in every inland town; fruits and vegetables are sold at moderate prices in our villages before they are green in leaf on our New England farms. Even milk is carried a hundred miles, and whatever advantage might accrue to the former from having a *comparatively local* market for this product, is taken from him by the combination of the milk contractors. No manufacturing town can flourish without railroads, and railroads mean that farm products are to be raised where Nature has given the greatest advantages for raising them, which is not in New England.

(2.) The nearer the city is, the sooner the farmer finds out that he is not gaining the return for his labor that other men are. The farmer back from the towns knows little of the world's opportunities, and so struggles on, fighting against fate, the assessor, and the tariff (though of the last he seems deplorably unconscious). Thus it is that we find the back towns less decayed than those near the cities. I was not a little surprised to observe this, last summer, on driving from Lowell to Boston, through a country gridironed with railroads, with thriving towns only a few miles apart, but the country lying between them showing in many cases no accompanying prosperity.

Moreover, "G. B.'s" remedy is practically tried in many towns by exempting from taxation, for a series of years, the plants of manufacturing companies. It is generally agreed, I think, among careful observers, that this policy is not advantageous to the farmer. The intelligent owner of one of the best farms in a New Hampshire town which has fostered in this way a manufacturing village, lately told me that he found almost no advantage in the supposed local market; that the growth of the village required a large outlay for streets, sewers, etc., and that the farmer was taxed to pay for these, so that the last state of that town was much worse than the first.

I have no hesitation in saying that the removal of the tax on clothing and on iron would do more to arrest the decay of New England farming interests than any new adjustment of direct taxation—not to say a new adjustment that would throw a still heavier burden on the farming interests. G. W. A.

BOSTON, November 18, 1889.

DIVORCED WORKINGWOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Perhaps the "Doubter" of your last issue will find an answer to his question in relation to the statistics of divorced workingwomen if he will turn to the first page of the Introduction in the fifth annual report of the Commissioner of Labor, reading as follows:

"The investigation is representative so far as the number of women whose affairs enter into it is concerned. The total number of such is 17,427, being from *6 to 7 per cent. of the whole number of women* engaged in the class of work coming under observation in the cities named."

The "Doubter" should rather doubt his own eyes than another man's written words which he has not even seen, or, having seen, has failed to understand. E. P. A.

PITTSBURGH, November 19, 1889.

PEDAGOGY AT THE UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I make, in the columns of your paper, a brief protest against the indifference of our colleges to the study of pedagogy?

I shall speak principally of Harvard, not because she is more worthy of censure in this respect than other colleges, but because I know her better. Looking at the Harvard of to-day, we find, in addition to the college or undergraduate department, a Law School, a Medical School, a Divinity School, a Scientific School, a Dental School, a School of Agriculture and Horticulture, and a School of Veterinary Science. If we ask ourselves to what extent these schools fit graduates of the College for the professions actually chosen by them, we find our answer in the statistics of the class reports. These reports tell us that teaching is universally more popular than any other profession, excepting those of the law and medicine, and that it is more popular than medicine even, in six cases out of twelve. Any one interested in the profession of teaching naturally asks himself why it is that this subject—more popular than the ministry, science, dentistry, agriculture, or veterinary science, for the study of which special schools have been established at a large expense—receives absolutely no attention at the University.

The fact that teaching comes second or third on the list, although sufficient to show that some preparation for it should be provided, by no means shows the full importance of the subject. When we call to mind the very large number of college graduates who, though not teachers themselves, are serving on school committees as directors of teachers, and of the still larger number who as parents are directing the education of children, is it unreasonable for us to demand not only that a special course of instruction shall be provided for those who intend to become teachers, but also that a part of every man's college course shall consist of studies that will enable him to form a few general ideas at least of the proper way to develop a human mind? Can any one deny that a man will become a better teacher, a more valuable member of a school committee, or a more judicious parent, from studying such writers as Pestalozzi, Froebel, Richter, Spencer, and Joseph Payne? It appears to me that ignorance of what these men thought is as culpable in a teacher or professor as ignorance of Blackstone in a lawyer.

I do not see how a university can fail to recognize the importance of this subject even to its own life and self-preservation. Invidious comparisons are beginning to be made between the teaching ability of the school-teacher and of the college professor. A superintendent of schools, who is a graduate of Harvard, tells me that the instruction given by his primary teachers is vastly superior in quality to that received by him when he was an undergraduate. A recent graduate of Harvard says:

"It is a fact, I think, which will not be denied by any one who has suffered for four years at the hands of the average college instructor, that much, if not most, of the teaching done in our colleges is of an exceedingly low grade. It will not compare favorably with the teaching in our best preparatory schools, and is certainly far inferior to that performed by the best trained teachers in our elementary public schools. . . . One of the most important reasons for this state of things is to be found in an almost total lack of any preparatory instruction in the art and science of education on the part of those who are to fill our academic and college positions. The remedy is to be sought in the establishment of chairs of pedagogy in our colleges and universities."

A college man who led his class for the four years he was in college says that he learned more of a certain subject from teaching it three weeks to a sub-fresbman than he did from studying the same subject in college for a whole year. I would not set undergraduates at work teaching sub-freshmen; but if there is a method of studying a subject by which a college man can learn as much in three weeks as he now learns in a year, is not that a method of mental development worth studying and imitating by the professor?

The discouraging part of college teaching from a pedagogical standpoint is, that whenever a college professor does teach well, he is considered to do so rather on account of his individuality than because he teaches in accordance with the fundamental laws of pedagogy; his example is almost wholly lost on his fellow-teachers. In the same department we often see as many fundamentally different methods as there are teachers. In the public schools the outlook is more hopeful; there unmistakable progress in specific directions has been made. As a result of study, organization, and supervision, we no longer see the a-b-c method of teaching reading, for instance; even this step would not have been taken if every teacher were a free-lance, as appears to be the case with the college professor. Have our colleges in the same period of time taken any universally recognized progressive step in the science and art of teaching that will begin to compare in importance with this step taken by the public schools?

Is it not a common thing for a graduate of a college to find, a few years after graduation, that he remembers almost nothing of most of the subjects he has studied in college? Is it possible for a man to devote as much time to

any branch of manual training as is devoted to a year's study of any subject in college without retaining all his life some special power in the direction in which he has worked? Ought there not to be a lasting specific result in the one case as well as in the other? I have by no means lost sight of the great progress made in recent years at Harvard and other universities; but this progress is rather in the direction of the employment of high-priced specialists in subjects studied by only a few students, of a larger number of courses of instruction, and of expensive dormitories, which tend to increase the cost of college life, than of a better knowledge and application of the laws of mental development by the aid of which the greatest good may be done to the greatest number.

I was much surprised at an address recently made by President Eliot of Harvard, agreed to and commended by President Dwight of Yale, at a meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, in which he is reported as saying: "I notice the methods of teaching the principal subjects have fundamentally changed at Harvard within twenty years, and I suppose it is the case in other colleges. If, therefore, we are right in our present methods, what good would it do to teach the old methods? . . . It is by developing new methods of teaching subjects that colleges make teachers best equipped for their work. . . . Is teaching a profession when the majority of teachers are elected once a year? . . . I say, therefore, that the institutions of higher education have some good reason for not attempting to teach the philosophy of education."

I beg leave to take exception to President Eliot's conclusions, and to the uninspiring, non-professional tone of his whole address, which is in marked contrast with the spirit of progress and untiring energy shown by him in other directions. One of his best professors, whom he must have had in mind when speaking of improved methods, tells me that he could have saved himself years of (to his pupils) unprofitable experiment in the classroom if, before beginning to teach, he had stopped to study even for a short time the philosophy of teaching.—Yours respectfully,

X. Y. A.

KENTUCKY CIVILIZATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your strictures upon the Swope-Goodloe fight, and, while agreeing with you as to the deplorable character of such occurrences, I must take issue with those who intimate that they are proofs of a low order of civilization in the communities in which they take place. Civilization is a complex affair, and a good many elements enter into its composition. A regard for human life, or, if the phrase be preferred, a willingness to transfer to society the duty of rectifying the wrongs of the individual, may be one of them, though a contrary opinion is entertained not only in Kurdistan, but also by certain influential classes in France and Germany, who still look upon that modified form of street fight called the duel as the proper way of settling private quarrels. But even if this were not the case, and we admit that a due regard for the sacredness of human life is one of the lines over which a people must pass in the advance from barbarism to civilization, we must not forget that it is only one of such lines, and consequently that progress along it does not authorize a general conclusion as to the civilization, or want of civilization, of any given people. Unquestionably, their opinion upon this point may indicate the position which they have reached in this particular direction; but inasmuch as it does not imply a corresponding advance along any other line of development, it does not enable us to fix definitely their place in the scale of civilization.

That this view is not without a solid foundation of fact will be evident to any one who will take the trouble to consider the effect of the same line of argument applied to ourselves. Take, for instance, the recent foot-ball game between Harvard and Princeton, when the students of these two colleges accused each other of trying to smuggle professional players upon their respective teams. Such an act, if true, was dishonorable; and yet the charge was made in good faith, and what makes the matter worse is the fact that it was and still is believed. In other words, the students of two of the leading colleges of the North do not hesitate to characterize each other as scoundrels. Now, Mr. Editor, I am not squeamish in such matters; but what ought to be thought of a state of society in which some thousands of the first young men in the community are believed to have been guilty of a crime that would hardly be tolerated in a gambling hell? That there is such a thing as being "too handy with the pistol" is admitted, and that there are a good many Kentuckians who are thus "handy" is no doubt true; but, with all due deference, it seems to me that there are some things that are more precious than life, and, unless I have mistaken the teachings of the *Nation*, personal honor is one of them.

But while entertaining a decided opinion as to the unfairness of the method by which Kentucky's place in the scale of civilization is so often fixed, it must not be supposed that I am ignorant of the prevalence in all that region of the idea of personal accountability, or that I am oblivious of the causes that are believed to have contributed to its origin and development. Leaving out of consideration the "old Adam" inherent in most of us, and of which the Kentuckian has a full share, it is probable that not a little of this combative spirit has come down from the times when the ever-present danger of an Indian attack made it necessary for every man to be prepared to fight for his life at a moment's notice. This school in which the first Kentuckians took their lessons was hard and stern, but it engendered a feeling of self-reliance, a sense of the necessity of immediate personal action under any and all circumstances, from which has come the exaggerated idea of the importance of the individual, as distinguished from society, to which so many of these bloody encounters may be referred.

Were it necessary to pursue this subject further, it might be urged that this notion of personal importance has been intensified by the life which the people of that State have uniformly led. They have always been farmers, and as moralists tell us that criminal offences are, to some extent, the outgrowth of the physical conditions of the society in which they exist, it is perhaps safe to say that one reason why the crimes that prevail among the better classes south of the Ohio differ from those that characterize the same classes in the business centres of the North, is to be found in the difference in the occupations, mode of life, and worldly interests of the people of the two sections. Thus, for instance, in a commercial, manufacturing community, like many of those that exist in New England and the other Northern States, the crimes, as a rule, are against property; while in the South, where different interests prevail, as well as in the agricultural regions of the Northwest, the crimes are more often against the person.

But it is not my purpose to institute a comparison between the different sections; neither do I wish to be understood as advocating the reintroduction of the shotgun mode of settling disputes into those communities in which, owing to a change in conditions, it has fallen into disuse. What I do insist upon, though, is the injustice of measuring the progress of a people by the standard of those who live under different conditions; and I protest against the practice of visiting the sins of a few fierce and ungovernable natures upon an entire community. Such methods savor of provincialism, and generally do harm.—Yours, etc.,

Lucien Carr.

Cambridge, Mass., November 21, 1889.

[There is little to be said in answer to this letter except that it assails a position which the *Nation* has not taken. We have all along treated this readiness of prominent and educated men at the South to shed blood in quarrels as "puzzling" and "mysterious," in view of the fact that it does not fit into the civilization of the community as expressed in other ways. The men wear black broadcloth, get their meat at the butcher's, have churches, schools and colleges, and libraries, live under an organized government by discussion, are in close communication with the great centres of civilization, and yet quarrel after the fashion of Albanians or Kurds. How and why is this? we have a dozen times asked Southern sociologists, and we never get a satisfactory answer. We have never said that this readiness to shed blood argued general barbarism or want of civilization. On the contrary, we have frequently drawn attention to the fact that it did not do so as something extremely curious. Mr. Carr's comparison of the compulsion under which men live in Kentucky to be ready for street fights, to the compulsion under which men live in France and Germany to fight duels, does not contain much comfort for him. Only a very small class in either of these countries feel this compulsion, and in both countries the Swope-Goodloe affair would be considered a foul and brutal murder. The French duel, in fact, is a bit of social play for Parisian journalists and politicians which would be stopped in a month if it were really dangerous. The rule which treats the smallest wound as creating a condition of inequality making the fight unfair, in truth converts the ordinary French duel into a simple fencing bout.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

'Justice and Jurisprudence,' being "an enquiry concerning the Constitutional limitations of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments," is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

A new guide-book to Florida, by Chas. Ledyard Norton, on the plan of Baedeker, will be published next month by Longmans, Green & Co.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press a work by Mr. Frank Vincent, entitled 'Around and about South America.' Mr. Vincent circumnavigated the entire continent, visiting every

place of interest in the different countries. A large and richly illustrated volume will embody his observations.

Recent announcements by B. G. Teubner, Leipzig (New York: Westermann), are a 'Lexicon Livianum,' based on Hillebrand's unpublished MS., by F. Fügner, and an 'Alt-Celtischer Sprachschatz,' by Alfred Holder. The latter will be five years in publishing. Another work to attract attention is Sybel's 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reichs durch Wilhelm I.,' of which the first two volumes have just appeared, and three more are completed in manuscript. This will be well fortified by official documents, and the distinguished author promises a good many surprises.

We have received the reprint of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston's summary article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' called, in its present book form, 'The United States: its History and Constitution' (Charles Scribner's Sons). It ended with the year 1887, but that may be considered quite to date. The bibliography is the portion which might have been enlarged to advantage and rearranged, since the need of compression no longer existed. An index has been provided, and on this, too, we should have been glad to see a little more pains bestowed.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have bound up in one pair of covers Emerson's First and Second Series of 'Essays.' The thinnish paper does not blur the page, and the purchaser gets in return a reduced price for an excellent edition from the best plates. The binding is in brown cloth and tasteful.

Blackmore's romance 'Lorna Doone' has been chosen as the subject of an experiment in fine book-making west of the Alleghanies (Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co.). The externals of this heavy volume, which demands a book-rest in reading, are very successful. The page is, to our eyes, too solid, and sacrifices too much to broad margins. The paper is open to the objection of being too glossy, and perhaps also of unpleasantness of tint. The illustrations imply pains and expense, and are often very good indeed, particularly the initial letters, and on the whole they will be adjudged the best part of the total achievement. The publishers have rightly thought that a map of the scene of the story would be a useful accompaniment, and have prefixed a good one. They can but be congratulated on the general result of their undertaking.

A charming edition of Alfred de Vigny's 'Cinq Mars,' in William Hazlitt's translation, has just been published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. The two volumes are bound in wine-colored cloth, richly stamped in gilt, and are illustrated by a high order of designs by A. Dawant, etched by Gaujean, as well as by a portrait of the author, and numerous headpieces on wood. The University Press, Cambridge, has done its best for the beauty and perfection of the typography here as in the case of the Dumas series issued by the same house. De Vigny's notes and historical documents are reproduced with this edition of the novel.

A new translation of M. Ludovic Halévy's 'L'Abbé Constantin' is published by Dodd, Mead & Co. It is a handsome volume, though the paper is perhaps a little too thick and too much glazed. The abundant illustrations are by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire, and may fairly enough be called clever, even if they are of less than the highest originality and distinction. The good Abbé, in particular, is rather a lay-figure. The two sisters are better expressed, and the young soldier, Jean.

The 'Good Things from *Life*' make a sixth series (Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.). The massing of these "process" reproductions of pen-drawings reminds us once more of the destructive effect of facsimile on artistic individuality. The dead sameness in appearance of the minor illustrations of *Puck*, *Judge*, and *Life* would have been impossible under the old fashion of engraving everything on wood. Amid the flood of designs in this volume which appeal to one's sense of the ludicrous only by the legend beneath, one meets here and there, like antediluvian relics, droll vignettes which speak for themselves or illustrate a punning caption. The most of these are signed "Chip," and they would all have been the better for being cut instead of "processed."

'Wild Flowers of the Pacific Coast,' by Emma Homan Thayer (Cassell & Co.), might be classed among books for young folks, with reference to the character of the text which accompanies the twenty-four colored plates. The writer relates trifling incidents occurring at various noted places in Southern and Central California, and connects them with the finding of some particularly lovely flower which she proceeds to sketch on the spot in water colors. Some of these tales are rather naïve, but a boy or girl reading them all will get sufficient information about California to become eager to visit it, if for no other reason than to see its beautiful flora. Where there was such an *embarras de richesses*, the choice of two dozen representatives was not an easy one, but has been judiciously made. The execution of the sketches and the printing are less commendable. No one could from these plates get more than a faint idea of the wondrous beauty of the Mariposa lily and the so-called wild verbena, as regards either their graceful forms or delicate coloring. The blood-red Sierra snow-plant, perhaps the most curious of California's floral gems, is more successfully reproduced, but on looking for information regarding it the reader will find two pages about the Yosemite Falls and Glacier Point, but only half-a-dozen lines about the plant; and to appease the curiosity inevitably aroused by so strange a flower he will have to consult Hutchinson's 'Heart of the Sierras,' where its habits are fully described.

'A Reader in Botany,' by Miss Jane H. Newell (Ginn & Co.), traces, by means of selections from well-known authors, the life history of a plant from seed to leaf. Darwin, Sachs, Kerner von Marilaun, Cooke, and Shaler are represented in this little work by interesting chapters, which are supplemented by carefully prepared pages from the pen of the compiler; the whole leading the reader by the easiest conceivable steps to the more striking phases presented by living plants. It is to be hoped that the second volume, treating of the flower, will follow speedily.

'Timber and Some of its Diseases,' by Prof. H. Marshall Ward (Macmillan), is a praiseworthy work in every respect. It deals in a clear manner with the general characters and structure of timber, passing from these subjects to a consideration of their properties and varieties, going so far as to provide simple means for easy identification. Then follows a chapter which has little to do, except indirectly, with the subject of the treatise, but is of great use to a proper understanding of the most vexed question in vegetable physiology, namely, the relations of the wood to the ascent of sap. It is, by all odds, the clearest *précis* that has yet appeared in this part of the field. At page 142, after these preparatory considerations have been presented, the diseases themselves are taken up in a systematic manner, and each is well considered. The book will be of use in the hands of every one who is interested in the care of trees, and especially to the students in our agricultural schools, to whom must be largely intrusted the intelligent supervision of our forests.

Cooper's 'Leather-Stocking Tales' have been compressed into one volume, for boys and girls, by dint of abridgment in parts not vital to the narrative (Geo. Routledge & Sons). Each of the five stories has its own pagination. The colored and other illustrations, being of foreign make, will not harmonize with current American pictures of the Indian and the trapper, but that is a small matter. The print is large and clear.

Harper & Brothers have issued still another—the sixth—number of the Franklin Square Song Collection, containing "two hundred favorite songs and hymns," of all countries and various periods, selected by J. P. McCaskey. There are also special school songs, and songs for young children, and interspersed with the text are various extracts and clippings on musical matters, not very happily chosen, and quite out of place in a collection of printed music. The type is clear and free from error, so far as we have examined it.

Mr. P. V. N. Myers has reduced by about one-half the bulk of his two books, 'Outlines' of Ancient and of Mediæval and Modern History, and published the condensed work under the title of 'A General History' (Ginn & Co.). The new publication is not wholly an abridgment, as much of the matter has been entirely rewritten. It follows the old works, however, very closely in spirit, style, and substance. These books are so readable and interesting that we can hardly conceive of any person finding them too long, unless for the purpose of *memoriter* recitation; if there is any demand for their abridgment, this thick volume will satisfy it. It has the same maps and for the most part the same illustrations as the earlier works.

The reputation of Duruy's 'Histoire de France' is so well established that the publication of an abridged translation (Crowell) would call for nothing more than a passing mention but that we wish to give due credit to Professor Jameson's introductory note (embodying a life of M. Duruy), and continuation, which brings the work down to the present year. The book is well printed, in rather small but clear type, and makes a volume of 706 pages. There is an abundance of excellent maps (reproduced from the original, with French names, etc.); none, however, we believe—for there is no list of them—which gives the present boundaries of France. There are an index, a rather meagre table of contents, and a few genealogical tables.

As a contribution to the much-talked-of iconographic catalogue, Prof. H. Carrington Bolton furnishes the November *Library Journal* with an index to scientific portraits in the *Popular Science Monthly*, vols. i.–xxxv.

The twelfth meeting of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, held in London Oct. 2–4, is in part reported in the November number of the *Library*. The address of the President, Chancellor Christie, a calm and sensible review of the "Work and Aims of the Library Association," and that of Melvil Dewey, on "Library Progress in America," are given in full. The remainder of the number is occupied by a summary of the proceedings and discussions. The papers read cover a much greater variety of topics than is usually found at the meetings of the sister association in this country. They range from those of an antiquarian or historical character, like Dr. Garnett's on "Some Colophons of the Early Printers," or Mr. Blades's on "Chained Libra-

ries," to such practical subjects as "A New Size Notation," "Free Libraries and Technical Education," etc. A paper on "Fiction in Libraries" started a lively but one-sided discussion, for all who spoke bore testimony to the value and utility of good healthy fiction.

The frontispiece of the New York *Photographic Times* of November 15 is an exceptionally good photogravure representing Milton's cottage at Chalfonte-St. Giles, in which the poet composed his 'Paradise Lost.' The picturesqueness of this refuge from the London plague has been well seized by an amateur photographer, who adds a brief account of his visit to this "box" which the Quaker Ellwood selected for his teacher.

The last four numbers of *L'Art* (Macmillan) have still mainly been preoccupied with the Exposition, and we may call attention in No. 607 to the description of the Javanese, Algerian, Tunisian, and other Eastern dances and plays which were among the genuine novelties of the wonderful show. In the same number will be found a long list of Troyon's works, indicating the disposition and prices of them at sales, etc. In No. 608 an obituary notice of the late Maurice Sand, son of Mme. Dudevant, is accompanied by a portrait. In the *Courrier de l'Art* for September 20, M. Adolphe Jullien reports the performance at the Palais de l'Industrie of Mlle. Holmès's spectacular and musical "Ode triomphale." He can praise it but faintly. What was remarkable was, that at the furthest distance from the scene the ear was better served than the eye. The *Courrier* calculates how much might have been done in producing unpublished works of the great French composers with the $60,000 placed at Mlle. Holmès's disposal; and every one must agree with it in regretting that the scheme of the Exposition did not include a retrospective musical exhibition.

In the October *Portfolio* we select for mention Mr. Hamerton's brief essay "On a Tendency in Contemporary Painting," viz., towards the abolition of thought, as in the tendency in French landscape painting to take extremely simple subjects, "till there is hardly any subject left. It seems in many cases as if the artist had nothing to communicate." Figure-painters, too, represent "the most commonplace personages in the most ordinary attitudes and occupations, with vulgar though appropriate surroundings." The series of papers on the monuments of Westminster Abbey is continued, and in the November number Longfellow's bust is enumerated with several other "odious little busts . . . which seem, so are they arranged, to be playing at hide-and-seek behind the columns." In this number, too, Mr. Burne-Jones is considered as a decorative artist, and numerous examples of his work are given.

All who know by tradition the fame of Jeremiah Mason as the foremost of New England lawyers perhaps of any period, will be glad to see in the *Green Bag* (Boston Book Company) a copy of his portrait which will go far to confirm his reputation for weight and wisdom.

The fourth number of the *National Geographic Magazine* is rich in papers, beginning with one on irrigation in California, by the State Engineer, Wm. H. Hall. A fragment of the great Atlas of the United States in progress illustrates Mr. Bailey Willis's brief geologic sketch, "Round about Asheville, N. C." "A Trip to Panama and Darien," by Richard V. Goode, accompanied by map and profile, and R. E. Peary's "Across Nicaraugua with Transit and Meridian," with map and three colored views, are timely and readable.

Our readers will thank us for reminding them that the Atlas of New Jersey is obtainable in sheets at twenty-five cents each, carriage included, by addressing Mr. Irving S. Upson, New Brunswick, N. J., who will send a list of the twenty plates, showing the area covered by each.

The map of eastern equatorial Africa numbered 69 in the new 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Westermann), is witness to the rapid march of African discovery, as the latest advices from Stanley show that both the original Nyanzas (the Albert lake being resolved into Albert and Albert Edward) must be redelineated. A southwestern extension of the Victoria Nyanza brings it much nearer to Lake Tanganyika.

In the little-known region which lies between the upper Nile and the Indian Ocean, occupied mainly by the Gallas on the north and the Masai on the south, is a chain of lakes, the largest of which is now known as Lake Rudolf, so named after the unfortunate Crown Prince of Austria. It has been conjectured that this lake, which has an area of about 3,000 square miles, was identical with Lake Samburu, and had an outlet belonging to the Nile system. This latter hypothesis, however, Ritter von Höhnel, who accompanied Count Teleki's expedition to this region, disproves in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for October, while he throws grave doubts on the former. He states that none of the lakes, of which there are at least thirteen of considerable size, have outlets. They are further remarkable in that some contain fresh, others, not distant, salt water. This is followed by an account of the geology of the interesting valley of Orotava in Teneriffe, by Dr. A. Rothpletz. A supplemental number contains an account by Prof. J. Partsch of the Ionian Island of Leucadia, or Santa Maura.

The Geographical Society of Madrid has been publishing in its *Boletin* for this year a descriptive catalogue of the collection of maps and charts in the Royal Library. It contains also an account of the River Marañon and the Jesuit Mission in the Province of Quito, written in 1738 by one of the fathers, and hitherto unpublished.

The last *Bulletin* of the French Geographical Society contains the annual report on the progress of geography during the year 1888, by M. Ch. Maunoir. This is followed by an important paper, by Lieut.-Col. Gallieni, on the results of the campaign of 1887–88 in the western Sudan. From this we learn that the French possessions in that region, including Senegal and the protected countries, cover a little less than a hundred thousand square miles of territory having three millions of inhabitants. The paper is accompanied by an admirably clear map of the newly acquired "Soudan français."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November contains the conclusion of Dr. H. B. Guppy's investigations of the phenomena connected with the Keeling Atoll. From his observations and those of the proprietor of the island, Mr. Ross, he concludes that the atoll is filling up at about the average rate of a foot in a century, and that it has entered upon its final stage of existence, though it may still have 3,000 years of life before it. The whole existence of an atoll he estimates at from fifteen to twenty thousand years. In regard to Mr. Darwin's theory of its origin, he says: "Neither of upheaval nor of subsidence is there any evidence of an unequivocal character." The secretary, Mr. A. S. White, concludes his remarkable record of the geographical achievements of Scotchmen in the nineteenth century.

Mr. Arthur Gilman writes us from Cambridge: "There is a curious sentence in the *Popular Science Monthly* for October, 1889, on page 808. In an article on 'Industrial Family Names,' after remarks on the 'Butchers' and 'Slaughters,' it is said, 'But Fletcher and Flitcher need to be introduced as the lineal descendants of Flesher.' But doubtless the dictionaries are right, and Fletcher is *not* descended from 'Butchers' and 'Slaughters' at all, for it means a manufacturer of bows and arrows, as any one understanding French will easily see."

And Mr. Clarence Cook writes: "Another example of the use of the form 'fat' for 'vat' is found in Spenser in the 'Faerie Queene'—Book vii., Cantov ii.: the second of the Two Cantos of Mutabilitie. In stanza xxxix. we find:

> "'Then came October full of merry glee:
> For yet his noule was totty of the must,
> Which he was treading in the *wine-fats* see.'"

—The November issue of the *Magazine of American History* has a curious scrap from the New York *Gazette* of January 10, 1777. This ancient article is a narrative by a Tory, Dr. John Smith, of his being seized with Col. Connolly "in Frederick County, Maryland, over the Blue Ridge," and of their harsh treatment by Whig authorities. They were recruiting a regiment of Tories. The story leads one to inquire about Col. Connolly. Referring for information to Appletons' 'Dictionary of Biography,' one finds some statements which give him pause. It is said that "about 1798 Connolly conferred at Detroit with prominent citizens of the West with regard to the seizure of New Orleans, but that the attention of Washington was called to the subject, and measures were taken to prevent the execution of the plot." If the date 1798 is correct, there was no occasion for resort to Washington, for he was already a private citizen; Adams was in power. Again, in 1798, Detroit was utterly dissevered from New Orleans, and so could not have been a base of operations against it. It was beyond range altogether. If the writer in Appleton had looked into Craig's 'Olden Time,' he would have written 1790 instead of 1798, and substituted Kentucky for Detroit. He would also have learned that the ostensible object of Connolly's Kentucky visit was in regard to lands he had himself owned there, but which had been confiscated.

—The story of that confiscation is not told in 'Olden Time,' but it is worth telling. In 1780 it was decided by a jury, of whom Daniel Boone was one, at Lexington, Ky., that two thousand acres of which John Connolly was possessed on the Ohio at the Falls, were escheated for disloyalty to the State of Virginia. On this land most of the city of Louisville is now built, and it was the first land confiscated. But it had been before enacted that the first acres forfeited by Tories should be granted (eight thousand of them) to Transylvania University for its endowment. The connection of Connolly with southwestern lands has a further interest. In November, 1770, as Washington was returning from his voyage down the Ohio, though not so far as Kentucky, he notes in a pocket almanac, that in Pittsburgh he invited, among others, Dr. Connolly to dinner. He says he found him a very sensible, intelligent man, who had been up the Shawna (now the Cumberland) River nearly four hundred miles. From him he ascertained that its valley was an exceedingly desirable country, in respect of climate, streams, and level; fit for any kind of cultivation. Besides these natural advantages, game was so plenty as not only to render the importation of provisions (bread only excepted) altogether unnecessary, but to enrich adventurers with the peltry for which there was a

constant and good market. Nothing out West seems to have pleased Washington better than what he thus heard about Kentucky—a region no part of which he ever saw. Its praises he must have blazoned abroad among his comrades in arms for whom he had largely made his journey, and whom he met in a sort of Grand Army reunion on his return. As a starting-point of occupancy, Connolly had mentioned the Falls of the Ohio, the site of his confiscated land. That Connolly should thus have pointed the way to what proved a land of more than promise for many Revolutionaries, and have provided a university endowment that is still effective, yet have lost everything himself, is among the notable ironies of history.

— The twentieth volume of Leslie Stephen's monumental 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ends with Thomas Garner. The contents are extremely varied and furnish exceptionally good reading. Charles James Fox has the longest notice (17 pages), while the Quaker George Fox, whose life (it might be argued) was more to England than the great orator's, gets but five pages; John Foxe (of the 'Book of Martyrs') gets nine. The editor is seen at his best in his ten-page notice of Sir Philip Francis, for whom he weighs the evidence identifying him with Junius, and adheres to that view; and in that of Thomas Fuller, on whose behalf he deprecates—as Charles Lamb might in his own case—the tedious and somewhat nauseating familiarity with which writers speak of him as "dear Thomas," or "quaint old Tom Fuller," etc. "His quick sense of the ridiculous," says Mr. Stephen, in summing up his character, "combined with a calm and cheerful temperament, made fanaticism impossible. It tempered his zeal instead of edging his animosities." Other biographies to be remarked are those of Bishop Gardiner and Gainsborough (six pages each), Sir John Franklin, Henry Fuseli, and William E. Forster, who is very fairly treated (about five pages each), Elizabeth Fry, "Alfred Crowquill" (Alfred Henry Forrester), Lady Holland, etc. Sir Bartle Frere finds an apologist. Lesser lights who did something to help the world forward are H. Fourdrinier, the inventor of the paper-making machinery bearing his name; John Fowler, inventor of the steam plough; Alexander John Forsyth, who struck out the principle of the percussion cap; Edward Forster, who introduced the bearded wheat from Smyrna; Sir Charles Fox, who introduced the railway switch; William Fox, founder of the Sunday-School Society; and Robert Were Fox, who determined by experiment the increase in the earth's heat from surface to centre.

—The American aspect of this instalment of the Dictionary is considerable, and at least two natives are commemorated—the Maryland Loyalist Joseph Galloway, and William Gardner, of Ohio, who gave the benefit of his inventiveness in fire-arms to the British, and died as late as 1887. Gen. Thomas Gage, and his contemporaries, Commodore Arthur Forrest, who found he could not introduce the press-gang into Boston without resistance even if with ultimate impunity, and Gen. Henry E. Fox, who fought at Bunker's Hill while his greater brother (as is pointed out) was opposing the war in Parliament, come together in this volume. Gen. Fox's son, still more curiously, Henry Stephen Fox, became British Minister to Washington, and died there in 1846. Others who came on peaceful errands were George Fox and his co-sectary William Forster, father of the Irish Secretary; but we cannot agree with the father's biographer in thinking that his healing a breach on the slavery question among the Indiana Friends was an illustration of the "right method of dealing with brethren in reference to such differences." The result of his peace-making was, of course, to the disadvantage of the come-outer anti-slavery element. Mention should also be made of the philanthropic Dr. John Fothergill, friend of the revolted colonies, of whom Franklin said, "I can hardly conceive that a better man has ever existed." And we will quote Mr. Geo. Ticknor's repartee to Lady Holland (Elizabeth Vassall Fox), when "she told him that she understood that New England had originally been a convict settlement, to which Ticknor answered that he was aware of the fact, but that in the King's Chapel, Boston, was a monument to one of the Vassalls, some of whom had been among the early settlers of Massachusetts."

—Nearly two years ago we noticed the English version of M. Henri Bouchot's 'Le Livre—L'Illustration—La Reliure,' styled 'The Printed Book: Its History, Illustration, and Adornment.' The edition having been exhausted, Mr. H. Grevel has taken it in hand, overhauling the awkward translation (though he might have gone further), and adding many new illustrations and a treatise on the art of collecting and describing early printed books, with a convenient Latin-English and English-Latin index of the principal towns where early printing-presses were established. The work has thus been much enlarged and transformed, and perhaps a new title was warranted. It is now called 'The Book: Its Printers, Illustrators and Binders from Gutenberg to the Present Time' (Scribner & Welford). We can repeat our praise of it as a general view of the growth of the art of book-making, and all the more because of the practical and sensible instructions for collecting incunabula. The English working over sometimes confuses the mind of the reader who thinks of its French origin. On p. 236 "our *Illustrated London News*" is spoken of. On p. 314 the Paris National Library is placed next to the British Museum in importance; on p. 318 its collection of printed books is admitted to outnumber that of the British Museum; and on these two pages the volumes are variously said to amount to 1,300,000, and to exceed two millions. Photographic facsimiles of the printers' book-marks, early engravings, letters, etc., would advantageously have replaced some of those here given by recutting; and as hardly any of the illustrations would not accommodate themselves to a duodecimo page, we could wish a smaller and more popular edition might be made. We are of opinion that when serious instruction is contemplated, the worst way to convey it is in *éditions de luxe*. A sprawling page is with difficulty comprehended and retained in the memory.

—The second and third parts of the 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften,' published by Gustav Fischer of Jena, extend from *Aktiengesellschaften* to *Arbeiterschutzgesetzgebung*, the length of these two words being in proportion to that of the articles which they designate, the former occupying ninety-two pages and the latter ninety-six; in fact, the article, or rather treatise, on legislation for the protection of workingmen is not quite completed, and will require a few more pages in Part 4. There are no other titles quite as long as these two, but even the shorter ones indicate that this work will far exceed in bulk and elaborateness of treatment any other existing publication on political economy. Thus, there is an article of thirty-three pages by Schäffle on Insurance against Old Age and Disability, with reference to another article, still to appear, on Compulsory Insurance for Workingmen; one of eighteen pages on Anarchism, in the bibliography of which it has an almost ludicrous effect to see Johann Most seriously cited as a writer; one of eighteen pages on Anthropology and Anthropometry, these two terms being both employed in a sense which, in English usage, belongs only to the latter; Schönberg writes ten pages on Labor, and the same number on Workingmen; eight pages are allowed to the Anti-Corn Law League; eleven to Apothecaries. Specifically American topics are Anti-renters, and a biographical paragraph on Prof. E. B. Andrews of Cornell (now President of Brown University). The closeness of the print, which was condemned as a fault in our notice of Part 1, has now been obviated, the page being greatly improved by being leaded. The publisher is entitled to double credit for this improvement: first, for paying heed to the remonstrances made to him, and secondly, for his liberality in doing it at his own cost, as he gives sixteen additional pages in each part without extra charge.

—In Stockholm has been issued, in a limited edition, a superb reproduction in photolithographic facsimile of the 'Vestgöta Lagbok,' at once the oldest Swedish provincial law and the oldest book in the Swedish language. The original MS., since 1780 in the Royal Library at Stockholm, dates, according to internal evidence, from the close of the thirteenth century. The codex originally consisted of forty-eight leaves, of which one, the second, has now been lost; it is written in two different hands. Twelve leaves in another (but apparently contemporaneous) hand were afterwards added; of these additional leaves the seventh has, however, been cut away down to a narrow strip, so that, as we have it here represented, the whole MS. consists of fifty-eight large octavo leaves. The facsimile gives the entire parchment page, with all its original imperfections and the subsequent discolorations and grime that are characteristic of the northern manuscripts. The margins, top, sides, and bottom contain frequent notes in various hands. In one place, on the wide margin of the bottom, are rude faces that have apparently been made by a child. The parchment has red and blue initials, which appear in the facsimile with the rest of the text in black, as it was impossible, say the editors, to reproduce them by photolithography in their original colors. Otherwise, we have an exact copy of the old Swedish MS. that to all intents and purposes will stand the student of Scandinavian palæography in quite as good stead as the prototype itself. This is by far the most successful attempt that has been made to reproduce in extended form the old Scandinavian vellums. The Arna Magnæan photolithographs—Valdemars Saellandske Lov, Elucidarius, and the Codex Runicus—are very far behind it in thoroughness and artistic excellence of workmanship. To complete the resemblance to a manuscript, the book is bound in parchment with thongs to tie the covers together.

CARTER ON CODIFICATION.

The Provinces of the Written and Unwritten Law. By James C. Carter, LL.D. Banks Brothers.

THE formal opposition to the Field Code in this State may be said to have been begun by Mr. Albert Mathews in an able essay on Codification which the Bar Association had printed in 1881. The Code had been suddenly sprung

on the community and on the bar in the winter of 1879, after lying unnoticed for fourteen years. It was then passed by the Legislature, and vetoed by Gov. Robinson. Since then the attempt to enact it has been renewed regularly every year until this year, and defeated only by extraordinary exertions on the part of a few lawyers who were deeply impressed by the prospect of confusion which it seemed to open up. Of these opponents of the Code, Mr. James C. Carter has been the most prominent. Indeed, it may be said that it is to him that we owe the defeat of the last two efforts to pass it. He began his operations against it by a paper prepared at the request of the Bar Association in 1884, and printed and circulated by them, on the "Proposed Codification of Our Common Law," which was a somewhat elaborate discussion not only of the Field Code, but of codification in general, and of the possibility of its application to the common law in this State.

Within the past year he has taken up the same subject in its more philosophical aspect in the pamphlet which lies before us, containing an address delivered to the Virginia Bar Association in July last. In this he goes into the general question whether it is possible in any civilized community to embody satisfactorily in a code what he calls Private Law, or the law which regulates the transactions of the members of the community with each other, as distinguished from Public Law, or the law which regulates the affairs of the community in its corporate character. The first, he maintains, must always remain, for the most part, unwritten—*i. e.*, uncodified. The latter must needs be written, and it may be codified. The community, that is to say, must always embody in statutes its will regarding the transaction of its own business as a community, but must leave the regulation of the transactions of individuals with each other to the judges, because with regard to these latter the community cannot have any will except that justice should be done in each case as it arises, within certain great lines traced by "public policy."

The codifiers practically maintain that they can provide beforehand a rule of decision which shall cover every dispute that can arise in the courts, or at all events can come sufficiently near covering it to enable any plain man to discover, with a fair approach to certainty, what are his rights under the law before he goes into court at all, and which shall remove the ordinary affairs of men from under what they consider a great social bane, the discretion of the judges. The defenders of "judge-made law" maintain, on the other hand, that all, or nearly all, controversies which come up for judicial settlement are due to novelty in the combination of facts which make up the case; that if the facts of every dispute were exactly similar, there would hardly be any need of courts at all, and the laws of a community might consist of a few rules which could be put into a duodecimo volume, like a civil-engineer's manual, containing formulæ for the solution of every possible difference between men, to be found by reference to the index.

But it is because the combination of facts in a controversy between individuals almost always differs in some degree from the combination in previous controversies in the same field, that men go to law at all. Parties to a law-suit almost always agree in seeking justice. The question between them on which courts are called on to pass is, What is justice in this particular instance? Men's dealings with their fellow-men display almost as much variety as men's faces. Most transactions have some distinguishing feature, however slight, and it is over this distinguishing feature they quarrel and appeal to the law. The codifiers say: "No matter what your distinguishing feature may be, we shall have a rule ready for it." The common lawyers say: "This is as absurd as it would be to pretend to foresee and put on paper in the beginning of a year all the bargains, in all their details, which men will make in real estate, in cotton, in corn, in iron, in wool, in shipping, in partnerships, in home and foreign exchange, in insurance, in railroads and navigation. No matter how bulky or minute you make your code, that old rule of human affairs which makes the unforeseen the thing most likely to happen, will defeat your precautions. Modern business in its jural aspect is a kaleidoscope. New combinations will arise which your code will not cover to the satisfaction of the parties, and you will have to appeal to the judge to interpret your code. This has been the history of all codes: it will be the history of codes to the end of the world. The more complex and multifarious the transactions of civilized men become, the more futile will appear the attempt to deal with them through a body of statute law."

The controversy is a very old one, and was first brought to an acute stage in England, and in Anglo-Saxon countries generally, by the attacks of Bentham on the common law, and has been stimulated in our own day by two agencies which have little or no connection with jurisprudence. One is the love of modern democracies for settling everything through representative legislatures; the other is the distrust of modern democracies for authority which they have had no hand in creating. The first of these has developed that excessive legislative activity which has become at once the burden and shame of nearly every free country in our day, and which nearly every free country is trying, by one expedient or another, to abate. The other has brought on the political stage that great bugbear of modern political philosophers, the elective judge, with his insecure tenure, his subservience to political managers, and deference for waves of popular feeling. His faults nobody denies, but he nevertheless figures in the programme of the Radicals in every country in the world. We have long had him here. It is with great difficulty he has been kept off the bench in France during the past twenty years. He would probably come soon in Ireland under Home Rule, and, though not a near or perhaps very conspicuous danger, he is one of the dangers of the political future in England. The awful character of the judge, as it has come down to us from the remote antiquity, who fears neither the tyrant's frown nor the clamors of the mob, does not any longer impress the popular imagination with the old reverence. Modern democracy is disposed to consider the judge simply as a man laying down the law without adequate authority or proper responsibility, who needs much supervision and constant reminders of his dependence. Consequently, schemes like codification for restricting his discretion, lowering his authority, and diminishing the importance of his integrity and learning, find a readier acceptance now than ever before.

No one can, we think, read Mr. Carter's pamphlet, however, without being deeply impressed with the fact that the judge is sure to play a greater part in the world hereafter than ever heretofore, and that the most important of the preparations which Democracy has to make for its millennium, is to magnify his authority, fortify his character, and increase the guarantees of his independence. For to him, and to no one else, as human affairs increase in complexity under the growth of our civilization, must we look for the discovery and expression of justice as the community sees and understands it.

But what is justice? Mr. Carter, unfortunately, as we think, for his purpose, gives some countenance to the notion that there is something called "abstract and absolute justice which human reason will never reach, but after which it for ever aspires," a "hidden reality," but still a "reality." There may be such an abstraction, but it is safe to call it inconceivable. Justice is a purely human creation. It can only be produced in human society and for the purposes of human society. There is for a solitary man no such thing as justice. Justice makes its appearance only when the community consists of two individuals at least. For Robinson Crusoe there was no such thing as justice until he was joined by his man Friday. It is the rule of action prescribed by social morality, in answer to the question raised by every state of facts which requires something to be done by somebody. This question is, What is to be done, and who is to do it? It is this question which is submitted to every judge who is called on to decide a case.

The true answer to this question always is, that justice is what the bulk of men comprising the community would think fair and right. The judge searches for the rule in the customs and social ideals of the people among whom he lives. Abstract or absolute justice is no more his concern than abstract or absolute beauty. The original source of justice was probably the passion for equality of rights and privileges which is the earliest social sentiment of all gregarious animals, man included. Society is not possible without equality as a fundamental assumption. That each is entitled to as much as any other of whatever good is going, and must submit to as much as any other of whatever evil is to be endured, is a postulate necessary to the permanent constitution of even a wild herd or pack. The idea of justice thus generated is of course profoundly modified in practice as time goes on by differences of force, of capacity, by accidents of birth, or by achievement, but it always and everywhere governs the judicial decisions of controversies. It makes it the aim of the judge to put the parties as far as possible in a position of equality of advantage or disadvantage. The just man remains always the man who keeps his contracts and satisfies reasonable expectations which his language and conduct have created, and abstains from depriving his neighbor of any share of the general good to which he is reasonably entitled.

It is in the search of the judge after this (it may be local) standard of justice or rule of right, to be applied to the particular facts before him, that private law, or the law regulating the transactions of individuals, is created. Mr. Carter's thesis is that it cannot be created in any other way; that private law must on the whole be "judge-made law"; that the modern world can no more escape from this mode of legislation than it can escape from the use of astronomy in navigation; that the office of judge, far from losing its importance, grows more important every day; that the art of man cannot devise a substitute for it, and that what most of all needs to be taught in our law schools is, that, in witnessing the decision of a case in court by a competent bench, we are witnessing the actual creation of the law by the extraction from the customs and morality of the community of the justice of this

particular case. His exposition of this point is a model of clear and forcible argumentation, and there is no lawyer or law student, legislator or politician, in the country who ought not to ponder it.

There is in the commercial history of our own time one bit of corroboration or illustration of his thesis which Mr. Carter does not mention, but which is both strong and illuminating. It is the fact—for fact we believe it to be—that the practice of referring disputes to the arbitration of men in the same business has greatly grown in all the leading trades, industries, and commercial bodies; so much, indeed, as to diminish seriously, as all lawyers admit, the volume of litigation coming before the courts. Now, what does this arbitration mean? It means resort to the exact process which goes on in all our courts when a case is submitted to a judge or jury—that is, the imposition on fair-minded men, familiar with the moralities and usages of the business in which the transaction in dispute has taken place, of the task of extracting from these moralities and usages the particular rule of justice applicable to the particular combination of facts which is laid before them. We venture to say that if the Chamber of Commerce, the Stock Exchange, or the Produce Exchange, or any other commercial or industrial corporation were asked whether they could not draft a code which would make arbitration unnecessary, by furnishing a rule of settlement for every possible dispute among their members, they would consider the question childish, and we say this while remembering that small branches of business, like bills of exchange, have been brought under the rule of a code in England.

A NEW YORKER OF THE TRANSITION PERIOD.

The Diary of Philip Hone. 1828–1851. Edited, with an introduction, by Bayard Tuckerman. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1889.

THE story of Mr. Hone's life is briefly told in Mr. Tuckerman's introduction. He was born in 1780 and died in 1851. With a common-school education, he became a clerk in his brother's business at the age of seventeen, and, two years later, was admitted to the firm. In 1820 he retired from business with a fortune ample for those days. After an extended tour in Europe, he came home and settled down to a life of domestic happiness, social pleasure, amateurish politics, and public usefulness. His politics were largely ornamental. He was Assistant Alderman from 1824 to 1826, and then Mayor for one term. Later, he attempted to secure a State Senatorial election, but was overwhelmingly defeated. In his old age he was made Naval Officer under Taylor's Administration, his necessities having become as eloquent as his services. As a Whig Mr. Hone was badly situated in New York for political advancement. He was in much request as a presiding officer and for the handsome entertainment of Webster and other statesmen, a business for which his predilection was immense. He was a trustee of the first savings-bank in New York, and as trustee and president served it for more than forty years. He was trustee or director or president of a whole page of different institutions, mercantile, charitable, educational, and social, and it would appear that he had a conscience for the responsibilities that he assumed. Board meetings found him always present, even though the social dinners that he dearly loved had to be given up.

He did the thing which Wendell Phillips thought added a new terror to death: he kept a diary. He began it in 1828, professedly for his own future satisfaction and his children's; but there is something which suggests anticipation of a wider reading. Though he does not mention Pepys or Evelyn, those famous diarists were probably before his eyes. He would fain do for nineteenth-century New York what they did for seventeenth-century London. But his field was much less various than theirs, and then he had not their literary touch, still less the ingenuous absurdity of the less important but more interesting of the ancient pair. He was a man of mediocre talents, thoroughly respectable, moving for the most part in a round of feeble personalities and small affairs, saying a good many flat and stupid things in an extremely solemn way, having much of that gravity which Rochefoucauld described as a mysterious carriage of the body invented to conceal the defects of the mind. His diary was ample, filling twenty-eight quarto volumes. On May 1, 1851, he questioned whether he should begin another which was ready to his hand, and three days afterwards he died.

Mr. Tuckerman has not given us more than a quarter of the original, and if his selection had been more severe, it would have been improved. The omissions are of comments on new books with extracts from them—means of self-improvement in which Mr. Hone had patient confidence—summaries of foreign news brought by the packet ships, political statistics, records of political meetings, extracts from the speeches of public men and articles of current interest, particulars of journeys made for business or for pleasure. The parts retained relate to industrial changes, to political and social life, to public men and other individuals of note, and to the history of the city of New York. The parts relating to industrial and local changes are the most interesting and valuable.

Beyond the statement of mere facts, Mr. Hone's ability went but a little way. He was no Boswell. From his conversation with distinguished men he brought away nothing but a vague impression of their brilliancy or pleasantness. He dined with Daniel Webster scores of times, and he was always charmed and satisfied with him, but of the good things that he said he does not tell us one. A single conversation is reported, bearing upon Webster's use of wine. Christopher Gore put him up to it, he said, to improve his health; the auxiliary had proved worse than the enemy. Whether Webster gave Dr. Johnson credit for this happy phrase we are not told. It would have been well if Mr. Tuckerman's editing had been more exact as well as more compressive. In that case we should not have had Marcey for Marcy (vol. i., p. 49), nor Buckley for Bulkeley—Emerson's first Concord ancestor (vol. i., p. 162), nor Garrett Smith for Gerrit (vol. i., p. 326, and in the index); nor Binney for Birney (vol. ii., p. 236); nor Rhynders for Rynders (vol. ii., p. 395). Nor should we have had Montgomery's beautiful hymn, "Prayer is the soul's sincere desire," printed at the end of the journal as if it were Mr. Hone's, with many words misquoted, the stanzas transposed, and four stanzas from another hymn tacked on, as if they were a part of it.

One of the most general impressions which the Diary makes is that of the provincialism of New York during the entire period which it covers, compared with the city of to-day. Another is that of its æsthetic poverty. Mr. Hone was a diligent recorder of Academy exhibitions, and he names the pictures that elicited his admiration. We are made present at the birth of Cole's "Voyage of Life," and listen with some incredulity to Mr. Hone's prophecy of its endless fame. His dinner parties must have been very pleasant, but we get little more from them than the names of those who sat down. Chancellor Kent was often one of these, and Mr. Hone's loyal and affectionate admiration for him reflects his genial character. Once Fanny Kemble came to dine, and a few years afterwards told all about the dinner in a book. It was done most cruelly, but it gives us an idea how different Mr. Hone's other dinners might have seemed to us if Fanny Kemble, or some other equally vivacious and malicious spirit, had reported them. Mr. Hone makes a running commentary on her comments, forgiving her much for her praise of his daughter Mary, "with a smile that was not to say a ray, but a whole focus of sun-rays—a perfect blaze of light," but rebutting much, with pathetic loyalty to his friends. He is, however, able to say that she herself made but a poor impression, and a previous entry witnesses the fact.

The domestic establishment of Mr. Hone must have been upon a generous scale. In 1835 he lays in his winter butter, four to five hundred pounds at $2.14 a pound! For this extravagant price, as for the hard times generally of this and the immediately succeeding years, Mr. Hone holds Andrew Jackson's meddling with the Bank responsible. His disrespect for Jackson was exceedingly pronounced; only for his nullification proclamation does he give him any praise. Personal friendship qualified his political hatred of his successor. The shiftiness of party lines while the Whig and Democratic parties were in process of formation comes out very strongly. As between Clay and Webster, Mr. Hone's admiration was divided, with a leaning to the Webster side: he knew the latter statesman so much better. He furnishes us with a good example of the Whig mind in its relation to the slavery question. The Southern protagonists of slavery and the Northern abolitionists are to him equally deplorable, and he often confounds with the latter both Liberty Party men and Free-Soilers. He liked to spice his diary with duels and with mobs, so that a great many pro-slavery mobbings of anti-slavery people are set down, sometimes in terms much more amusing than his deliberate humor. At the burning of Pennsylvania Hall in Philadelphia, the mob, it seems, was "instigated by the wanton outrage of public opinion in the exhibition in the public streets of white men and women walking arm-in-arm with blacks, and by their speeches the females were foremost in arousing the excited populace." We must give Mr. Hone credit for seeing as clearly as Calhoun or Garrison the disunion result of the conflict. He was also quick to apprehend the meaning of the Irish invasion of New York. It seems almost premature to find him writing in 1835, and in italics, "These Irishmen . . . *decide the elections in the city of New York.*" His irritation with the abolitionists makes him sometimes forget himself, as where he speaks of "that ass Lewis Tappan." For Bennett of the *Herald* he has never a good word, but some of his characterizations vary as events proceed. John Quincy Adams is "crazy" and "a fox" in 1841; a little later he is a "sturdy mastiff"; and still later he is that "glorious old man." That the conscience Whigs had some disunion sentiments between the first of these entries and the last may have softened his judgment. His impression of Adams's universal knowledge was profound. Once breakfasting with Mr. Hone and Webster, he plunged into a disquisition upon dancing girls

from Miriam to Fanny Elssler, who was then the rage and on whom Mr. Hone duly called.

Mr. Hone went into the Harrison campaign with great enthusiasm, and was correspondingly depressed by Harrison's untimely death. The pathetic realism with which he depicts the disastrous consequences of the raid of office-seekers on the poor old man has never been surpassed. "He told his friends that his time was so much occupied that he had been prevented from performing the necessary functions of nature." But Mr. Hone's own ideas of civil-service reform were not even (as the boot-maker said of his boots to a protesting customer) "almost about to be commenced." On April 23, 1849, he writes that he has been appointed Naval Officer: "I hope, by the blessing of God, to be enabled to perform my duties with fidelity, ability, and integrity." On April 25 he writes: "The painful part of the duties of my office, the removal of the officers and clerks, has commenced. I have removed the three deputies, Messrs. Spinner, Sandford, and Lee, and appointed my nephew, Isaac S. Hone, my son Robert, and Mr. Franklin, and the worst is yet to come."

There is plenty of local color in this Diary for those who like that sort of thing. We see the City Hall dial lighted for the first time in 1837; we see the Astor House "astonishing the natives" in 1834 by its magnificent proportions; we see the wooden palings of the City Hall Park give place to posts and chains—all this from Mr. Hone's residence, which, from 1821 to 1836, was at 235 Broadway, one of the finest houses in the city, bought for $25,000 and sold for $60,000. The beginnings of railroad and steamship navigation will flatter the pride of a fast-going generation. "Fast enough, in all conscience," says Mr. Hone of twenty miles an hour, and great is his wonder at the trip from New York to Philadelphia by the Camden and Amboy Railroad in eight hours. Sometimes by the packets London advices were seventy-five days old. The first steamships made about the same time as the fastest sailing vessels at their best. The great fire of 1835 is properly enlarged upon. One of the most interesting episodes in the book is that of the mutiny of Philip Spencer on board the United States brig *Somers*. His father was Secretary of War, but he was hung at the yard-arm. As one of Tyler's Cabinet it must have been easy for the Whigs to think ill of the father and prejudge his son.

HEILPRIN'S BERMUDA ISLANDS.

The Bermuda Islands: A Contribution to the Physical History and Zoölogy of the Somers Archipelago. With an Examination of the Structure of the Coral Reefs. By Angelo Heilprin. Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences: The Author. 1889. 231 pages, 18 plates.

Of the geological structure of that portion of our globe which is buried beneath oceanic waters, constituting about two-thirds of its area, little can be learned by direct observation. In the continental land masses, and in the larger islands more or less closely connected with them, erosion, by sculpturing the mountains and carving out the valleys, has disclosed a record in the rocks which has enabled the geological observer to trace with considerable certainty the history of successive elevations and depressions of the land as referred to the ocean level, during which oscillation sediments have accumulated beneath the water, become hardened into rock, and again been elevated above the water to furnish material from their abrasion for new series of sediments. In the oceanic areas, on the other hand, the only records available to the geologist are to be found in a few widely separated volcanic peaks which project above the water level, and in small groups of islets, reefs, and shoals built up by the industrious coral animals (or insects, as they are often improperly called). The manner of formation of the latter—the coral-reef problem, as it is called—having a far-reaching interest beyond that which attaches to curious natural phenomena, has long been and will probably long continue to be a fruitful subject of speculation among geologists. Its study was among the earliest work undertaken by the leading geologists of England and America respectively, and first brought each of them prominently into public notice.

In the summer of 1888, Prof. Angelo Heilprin of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences, with a small party of students, made a visit to the Bermudas, the most northerly and accessible group of coral islands, for the purpose of studying its zoölogy and the geological structure of its reefs. Of the present volume, which gives the result of this investigation, the greater part, and that which presents the most interest to the general reader, is devoted to the physical and geological structure of the islands, and to a discussion of the coral-reef problem, to which Prof. Heilprin had already given considerable attention during his geological studies in the Peninsula of Florida.

The present land masses of the Bermudas, which rise to an elevation of about 250 feet above the ocean level, are, like the similarly elevated portions of the Bahamas, not directly formed by coral zoöphytes, but consist of sands resulting from the abrasion of coral growths by wave action, which have been drifted up by the winds and agglomerated into a coarse limestone rock, with an irregular stratification peculiar to this mode of formation. From his study of the structure of the Bermudas, Prof. Heilprin concludes that the height of the present land was formed during a period of elevation, when the entire archipelago was an oval island extending to what is now the boundary reef, and that the lagoons and sounds were formed during a period of subsidence which followed this elevation. These conclusions are, he considers, in absolute harmony with the views entertained by Mr. Darwin, and, while not proving the correctness of the Darwinian hypothesis, measurably sustain it, and are largely opposed to the requirements of the theory recently proposed as a substitute.

In his discussion of the coral-reef problem and his reviews of the opinions put forth by recent observers on coral islands in various parts of the world, Professor Heilprin strenuously defends the substantial correctness of the theories of Darwin and Dana. The main objection to them, which is based on the evidence of elevation and the association of fringing reefs with atolls, he considers to be not well taken, since a general movement of subsidence by no means precludes local movements of elevation, and geological observation on the continents of the world shows that oscillations or alternations of elevation and subsidence are the rule rather than the exception. On the other hand, in his review of the substitute theories, he argues that none of them are competent to account for the observed facts of nature.

The upward growth of corals from the talus slope of an island or a submerged bank is impossible at a greater depth than 150 feet, and the observed thickness of such a growth can only be accounted for by slow subsidence of the land to which they are attached. Murray's theory, of the formation of lagoons through the dissolving agency of sea water acting on coralline limestone, he regards as founded on a pure hypothesis and not on well demonstrated facts of experiment or observation.

The Bermudas, on account of their isolated position in the midst of the ocean, offer peculiar interest to the zoölogist, but it may be questioned whether the Bahamas would not have been a better field for testing the coral-reef theory. Darwin did not personally visit either, but obtained his knowledge of their structure from the observations of others who were not always trained geologists; consequently he does not express any very decided views with regard to the structure of either, but on his map he colors the Bahamas as belonging to the fringing-reef class, while he leaves the Bermudas uncolored, for the reason that, although fringed by living reefs, their form suggests the atoll structure. Reasoning from the evidence of elevation throughout the region of the West Indies since Tertiary times, he expresses somewhat hesitatingly the opinion that the Bahama Islands and the surrounding banks are the result of a slow elevatory movement, and that the banks have been worn down and kept at a nearly uniform level during their elevation by the action of ocean currents and waves. The Bahamas contain many large islands, one of which is over one hundred miles in length, and the area included by these islands and the surrounding reefs and submerged banks is greater than that of the Peninsula of Florida, with which, from its proximity, it must bear close geological relations. In the island of New Providence, which is the most frequently visited, there is unmistakable evidence of recent elevation of the land; and its higher portion, whose elevation is about that of the Bermudas, consists of the same Æolian limestone that occurs there. But while the Bermudas have been studied and reported upon by a number of competent geologists, the Bahamas present for the most part an untrodden field to the geological observer, and it would seem that their systematic study would throw valuable light not only upon the coral-reef problem, but upon the disputed questions with regard to the Florida reefs and the geological action of the intermediate Gulf Stream.

While Prof. Heilprin's book is well printed and illustrated with reproductions of photographic views as well as zoölogical plates, the former are interspersed entirely without reference to the text; and, what is still more to be deprecated in a scientific memoir, this one is not provided with an index.

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Besant, W. The Lament of Dives. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Brooks, E. S. The Story of the American Soldier in War and Peace. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.
Bulwer-Lytton, E. The Secret Way. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $3.
Bury, J. B. History of the Later Roman Empire, from Arcadius to Irene (395 to 800 A. D.) 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $8.
Chamisso, A. von. Peter Schlemihl's Wundersame Geschichte. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Champney, Elizabeth W. Three Vassar Girls in Russia and Turkey. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Chatterbox. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Cooper, J. F. Leather-Stocking Tales. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $3.
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Edmondson, Rev. E., and Saxby, Jessie M. E. The Home of a Naturalist. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford. $2.50.
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Farmer, Lydia H. A Knight of Faith. J. S. Ogilvie. $1.
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Fowler, H. N. The Menæchmi of Plautus. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.08.
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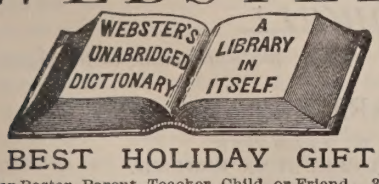

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 5, 1889.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON'S first message to Congress has not been anticipated with feverish anxiety in any quarter. The best that can be said of the message itself is that it will not cause any commotion. Partly because it is not a disturbing document—and this is much in its favor—partly because the President has visibly lost standing with his own party during the nine months that he has been in office, there is no intense eagerness anywhere to read the message. The Philadelphia *Inquirer*, a Republican paper of the orthodox school, says "it is not easy to recall the existence of a like indifference within a great many years, and yet we have no doubt the message will be a very interesting and probably noteworthy document." Interesting it is, as the annual presentment of the nation's affairs must always be, and noteworthy also, but not exactly notable. It is timorous in its dealing with both the tariff and the silver question, but in this it undoubtedly typifies the state of mind of the Republican party on the whole. Foreign affairs occupy, as usual, the first pages of the message. There is very little here to dwell upon and nothing to excite alarm. Our relations with Great Britain occupy only a few lines, and these are satisfactory as far as they go. There is no reference to the Bering Sea question except a statement that the President has sought to protect the fur-seal from extermination. A new treaty of extradition has been negotiated, and will soon be laid before the Senate. The Samoan treaty with Germany and Great Britain is recommended to the approval of the Senate. It is recommended also that our ministers to Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia, Hayti, and the Hawaiian Islands be raised to the dignity of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary—a suggestion based upon Pan-Americanism rather than upon business considerations.

The Treasury surplus is shown to be $57,000,000 for the past year, and probably $43,000,000 for the current year, and as much for the next year. This the President would have reduced by repealing the tobacco tax and the tax on alcohol used in the arts, and by additions to the free list of imported articles "that do not offer injurious competition to such domestic products as our home labor can supply." The recommendations regarding tariff "revision" are almost colorless, defending protection in a general way "for the products of our *farms* as well as our shops"—meaning wool, undoubtedly, but not venturing otherwise upon particulars. The President says a good word for silver, as indicating a kindly disposition towards that down-trodden metal, but he is not in favor of free coinage or of any addition to the present monthly rate of coinage. Whether he would favor Secretary Windom's plan of issuing certificates on deposits of silver bullion at its market value, he has not had time to make up his mind, but will recur to the subject later. In the way of spending money the President is more definite. He is in favor of a Dependent Pension Bill of the kind that President Cleveland vetoed. He recommends subsidies to steamships to South America, China, Japan, and "the important islands in both of the great oceans." He also favors the Blair Educational Bill, with the limitation that no appropriation be made covering more than one year, so that no Congress may tie the hands of a succeeding Congress—a qualification that might well be applied to steamship subsidies also. The only other recommendation of importance is one recommending the establishment of an intermediate court, inferior to the Supreme Court, to dispose of cases of a certain class, in order to relieve the existing pressure on the highest tribunal. This will meet general approval, for although the difficulties are considerable, the necessity is growing to be imperative.

On Monday, for the first time since December, 1874, a President greeted a Congress having in each branch a clear majority of his own party. When President Grant sent in his message fifteen years ago, the "tidal wave" had already swept over the country and insured the Democrats the control of the succeeding House of Representatives, and Hayes confronted an opposition majority in the lower branch throughout his term, and a Democratic Senate during the last two years. In 1880 the Republicans elected a majority of the Representatives, but the Senate was equally divided when Mahone voted with the Republicans and David Davis with the Democrats. By 1883 the Senate had become Republican, but the House was Democratic during the last two years of Arthur's incumbency. Cleveland had a Republican Senate to deal with throughout his term. It is consequently nearly half the lifetime of a generation since the last occurrence of such conditions as exist to-day, when the Executive, the Senate, and the House of Representatives are all controlled by the same party. It is altogether unlikely, however, that the new Congress will be fruitful of legislation. The Republican majority in the House is so narrow that, even with any possible changes in the rules, it will not be able to ride rough-shod over the minority. Revolutionary legislation, like the Federal Election Law scheme, cannot be enacted because the resources of the minority will always be sufficient to defeat it. Indeed, the only effect of the agitation of such projects will be to strengthen the growing popular sentiment against a party ready to champion them—a sentiment which, unless something now unexpected happens to change the set of the tide, will be reflected in the election of a Democratic House next November.

The selection of Mr. Reed as the party candidate for Speaker by the Republican caucus was the best possible. Mr. Reed is a man of marked ability, with habits of thinking about public questions, and likely to take the conservative rather than the radical view of any such subject as the silver question, for example. His success is also a matter for congratulation as a proper rebuke to the new school of sectionalists who have been trying to beat him upon the ground that he represents the East, and that the West ought to have the place—not because it had a better man, but simply because it was the West, and had more votes than New England. The country has had so much trouble with the old sectional controversy between North and South that it is in no mood to have a new one started between the East and the West. Fortunately, there were enough Representatives from Western States who recognized the truth to put an effectual quietus upon the attempt.

The controversy between Mr. W. P. St. John and Mr. John Jay Knox, on the question whether the greenbacks are payable in gold alone, or in either gold or silver at the option of the Government, has attracted some attention in the press, although it is not the main point of difference raised at the Kansas City Bankers' Convention. The question is exactly the same as that raised a few years ago, whether Government bonds are payable in gold alone, or in gold and silver at the Government's option. Most commonly the word "coin" was used in the statutes passed during the war and the suspension of specie payments, when it was intended to distinguish metallic money from paper money; but since there was no full-weight legal-tender coin known to the commercial world except gold coin, the fair presumption is that gold coin was meant by Congress. This presumption is borne out by the fact that in one instance, when United States bonds were described, they were spoken of as gold-bearing bonds. This was the act of July 12, 1870, sec. 3, which provides

> "That upon deposit of any United States bonds bearing interest in *gold* with the Treasurer of the United States, . . . it shall be lawful for the Comptroller of the Currency to issue, to the association making the deposit, circulating notes, etc."

What were the United States bonds, payable in gold, existing in July, 1870? They were all the bonds outstanding. This legislative interpretation of the meaning of the word coin, which had been commonly employed in contradistinction to paper, shows that Congress was not acquainted with any other kind of coin, and did not have any other kind in its mind during the period under consideration. Of course, a lawyer's argument can be made showing that, since the silver dollar was a permissible coin under our statutes up to the Coinage Act of 1873, therefore it must be presumed that Congress always intended that bonds and greenbacks

should be payable in silver. But, as a matter of historical fact, Congress never had any such thought or intention, and this is proved, we think conclusively, by the fact that the only time it ever mentioned a metal it mentioned gold, and classed all of its bond obligations in that category.

The full official vote of the State of New York in the recent election is now at hand, and it makes many interesting disclosures. It shows that without a single exception the most fit candidates upon both party tickets ran ahead of their associates, and that if the election had been as close a one as that in which Mr. Cleveland was chosen to the Presidency, both parties would have had a share in the victory, each electing a part of its ticket. The total votes for candidates on the State ticket were as follows :

Democratic.			Republican.	
Rice	505,963	Sec. of State	Gilbert	485,587
Wemple.	500,242	Comptroller	Cook	489,050
Tabor...	499,377	..Att'y-Gen..	Varnum	489,666
Danforth	502,212	..Treasurer..	Hedges	488,296
Bogart ..	503,958	State Engin'r	Van Rensselaer	486,968
O'Brien..	503,404	Judge Ct. Ap.	Haight.....	487,592

The most desirable candidate upon either ticket was undoubtedly the Democratic nominee for Secretary of State, Mr. Frank Rice, and the most undesirable on either ticket were undoubtedly the Democratic nominees for Comptroller and Attorney-General, Messrs. Wemple and Tabor. The popular verdict upon these three nominees can be shown in two ways, first, by giving the plurality of each over his competitor, and, secondly, by showing how each ran, either ahead of or behind his ticket, and how his competitor ran. We give, in tabular form, the revelations which the official figures make upon these points :

Pluralities.		Dem. candidates behind their ticket.		Rep. candidates ahead of their ticket.	
Rice.....	20,376	Wemple ..	5,721	Cook.....	3,463
Wemple..	11,192	Tabor.....	6,586	Varnum.....	4,079
Tabor....	9,711	Danforth..	3,751	Hedges	2,701
Danforth .	13,916	Bogart	2,005	Van Renssel'r.	1,381
Bogart ...	16,990	O'Brien ...	2,559	Haight	2,005
O'Brien...	15,812				

It will be seen that Mr. Rice is in advance of all his associates, the one coming nearest to him in the size of both total vote and plurality being Mr. Bogart, the candidate for State Engineer, who was a nominee in every way deserving of the public confidence. The worst sufferer in public condemnation was Mr. Tabor, who ran so far behind Mr. Rice that he had less than half the latter's plurality. Mr. Wemple came next in the downward scale, and both men have reason to be thankful that they were running in an off-year. On the Republican ticket the candidate for Secretary of State had the poorest support, mainly because of the superior qualifications of his competitor, and partially because of his record as a prohibition advocate. The two of his associates who ran furthest ahead of him owed their large vote entirely to the unfitness of their competitors.

Judge D. M. Key, who was Postmaster-General under Hayes until appointed by him to the United States District Court, has written a letter to the *Times* of Chattanooga, Tenn., where he lives, discussing the subject of sectionalism, in the old sense of the word. He shows how the disappearance of slavery has removed the cause for it, and insists that the apparent sectionalism which still remains is in no sense a sectional difference when rightly understood, being due to the fact that in the North the negro is an unimportant factor in the population, while in some States of the South, and in many sections of other States, he is in a majority. Friction exists in the South, but does not in the North, simply because of the presence in one case and the absence in the other of the exciting cause. Judge Key shows that race prejudice is not at all a matter of politics, by pointing out that, although there were never many slaves in Eastern Tennessee, although its inhabitants were overwhelmingly in favor of the Union during the war, and although there are only two or three counties in that part of the State which give Democratic majorities, yet "if appeal be made to the rural Republicans to support the colored nominee of their party, they refuse, and will vote for a Confederate instead when they have no other choice."

If he had been familiar with the fact, Judge Key might have illustrated his argument that " race partialities and prejudices always have existed " where the conditions for them exist, by citing the recent election in Lawrence, Kansas, when seven out of eight white Republicans refused to vote for the excellent party candidate for county clerk simply because he was black. A similar illustration has even more recently been furnished in Springfield, Ohio. The regulations of the School Board provide that a normal class composed of the graduates of the high school who have attained an average of 85 per cent. or over, who desire to qualify themselves for teaching, may be formed each year under the direction of the Board, and that such normal students shall be assigned by the Superintendent or Board to the different schools as opportunities arise. A colored girl of Newark, O., went through this course, until she was properly qualified for appointment, but she was never assigned any place. Her father wrote the Superintendent, asking that she be given her rights. "I ask for her," he said, "no more privileges than what she has honestly earned, no more than what others who graduated in the same class with her are enjoying, and no more than some outside of that class have." The presentation of this letter caused a lively debate in the Board. One member said that the only question was that of color, and that the Board ought to assign the young woman to the Central Building, whereupon another said : " Miss Henderson, if her request is granted, will be entitled to and will be assigned to take a sick teacher's place, and this will cause an eruption in our schools. If she is so assigned, I'll withdraw my children, and so will the rest of you." After an acrimonious discussion, the motion to assign her to the Central Building was carried, but only by a vote of seven to five, and it is obvious that any attempt to carry it out may cause serious trouble.

The message of Gov. Richardson to the South Carolina Legislature, which met on Wednesday week, furnishes a fresh argument against the " Bill to Promote Mendicancy." The Governor devotes considerable space to the subject of the public schools, and what he says is full of encouragement, both for its matter and its spirit. He adopts unqualifiedly the traditional idea of New England, that " the public school is the principal training ground of the masses," that "the dictates of religion and philanthropy call for wise legislation in this field," and that " to these high motives is added the safety of the commonwealth." He urges upon the Legislature the most careful consideration of all measures bearing upon this subject, and commends the "salutary and progressive measure " passed by the House of Representatives at the last session, in " the appointment of a standing committee to guard and develop this supreme question." He declares his belief that the agents in the field, school officers and teachers, as a body, are more efficient and earnest in the discharge of duty than ever before, and he recommends the extension of the school year to a minimum of six months, which is the limit in the northern States of New England. From first to last the Governor's treatment of the subject is that of the executive of a self-reliant commonwealth, which spurns the humiliating idea of turning beggar and asking the authorities at Washington to educate her children for her.

A rather surprising proof of the growth of liberal ideas regarding Sunday among the clergy is afforded by a canvass of members of the profession in Portland in respect to a suggestion that the public library be opened on Sunday afternoons. The Rev. Dr. Asa Dalton and the Rev. Henry Blanchard favor the project; the Rev. Dr. A. K. P. Small thought somewhat favorably of it, though not prepared to give full assent to the idea; the Rev. N. T. Whitaker and the Rev. A. H. Wright opposed the plan, on the ground that it would lead to a demand for the opening of other places of public resort, and thus tend to secularize the day; but both Mr. Wright and the Rev. J. M. Lowden approved of a full and free discussion of the subject, to see what opinions would be developed thereby. It is not so very many years since every clergyman in Portland would have been horrified at the mere suggestion of opening the library on Sunday, and would have condemned even

discussion of the question as tending to unsettle the views of the people.

People who tried to travel upon the elevated railways on Thursday, during the hours in which the crowds were moving to and from the foot-ball match, were able to get a faint idea of what we should have to experience daily were we to have a World's Fair here with our present transit facilities. The entire attendance upon the foot-ball match was only 25,000, and not all of these went over the elevated lines. A World's Fair would bring into our city from three to four times this number of daily visitors. The attendance at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876 averaged over 63,000 a day for the 159 days during which it was open. The attendance in 1892 would be much larger, and would, in all probability, average 100,000 a day. If the Fair were to be held on the site at present contemplated, this great body of visitors would have to be transported to and from it over existing lines of elevated and street railways, and it requires very little imagination to picture the discomforts in which the journey would have to be taken. People who are talking about the necessity of having the site within the reach of existing lines of transportation, should meditate upon this outlook.

The presentment of the Grand Jury upon the questions of subways and electric-lighting wires is an admirable statement both of the extent of the evils which we are suffering, and of the causes which have given rise to them. What they say about the manner in which our present laws permit any and every corporation to tear up our streets as often as they please, the lack of system in the laying of underground pipes, and the indifference which is shown to public convenience by the excavating forces—all this is a familiar tale; it has been told over and over again in the newspapers, and every citizen is familiar with it from personal observation; yet it is none the less a reflection upon our methods of self-government because of its familiarity. Why is it allowed to go on year after year? Simply because the people of the city consent to its continuance. When they insist upon a change for the better, they will get it. The Grand Jury set forth with equal truth and force the dangers which threaten us from the electric-lighting wires. They enumerate the most recent and startling accidents from them, declare that they are "due to the practice of stringing electric-light wires upon the same poles with telephone and telegraph wires," that they "cannot too strongly condemn this practice," and that not only is it a constant menace to the linemen, but a broken wire may at any moment be the means of sending "into any house or office a deadly current over the telephone wire." This has been said also in the press, but it comes with additional force when put forth in a formal court presentment and as the result of careful investigation by legal processes.

More attention has been given in Boston to slow-burning construction and to protection against fire in general than in any other American city. Mr. Edward Atkinson has reduced the whole subject to a science, and he has lowered the cost of insurance to the factories associated together in his Manufacturers' Mutual Company to a figure which would have been deemed impossible and fabulous a few years ago. All the principles which he has elaborated are as easily applied to stores as to factories—indeed, rather more so, since factories are exposed to more risk than stores, by reason of their greater use of steam engines, oil, chemicals, and fluffy material easily ignited. Yet within a stone's throw of Mr. Atkinson's office we saw, on Thanksgiving Day last week, an almost uncontrollable conflagration raging through whole blocks of alleged fire-proof buildings in the teeth of a driving rain-storm, destroying five or six millions of property, and checked at last only by the aid of fire apparatus summoned from a dozen places without the city limits. But for that pouring rain, which kept the roofs of distant buildings wet and extinguished the brands falling upon them, where would Boston be to-day? Not unlikely just where Chicago was on the 9th of October, 1871. The fire would have swept onward in the direction of the impelling wind until there was no more fuel in its path. It would have stopped only when the last combustible thing in its range was burned.

Austria-Hungary is seriously considering a thorough reform in her monetary affairs. In spite of the difficulty which both halves of the Empire experience in steering clear of annual deficits, it is hoped that, with the possible aid of an increase in the spirits tax, the budgets of the next few years will warrant the resumption of specie payments, the details of which are to be settled by a commission of high officials and financial experts. This commission will also be charged with the task of fixing upon a monetary standard as well as upon a new unit of value. That the gold standard will be adopted is considered certain, but as to the unit of value which will best suit the needs of the Empire, there is considerable diversity of opinion. The advocates of the mark unit point to the close relations existing between Austria-Hungary and the German Empire, while the adoption of the franc as a unit is urged by those who lay stress on the equally close relations between the monarchy and the countries of the Latin Union, particularly the Balkan States; and, finally, there are those who favor the adoption of a specifically Austrian unit, based on the actual gold value of the Austrian paper florin. This, again, raises the question, what is to become of the Austrian silver florin, which is at present worth about eighty-three kreuzers, or considerably less than the paper florin. The answer is, that, with the gold florin as a unit, the silver florin and its fractions would be retained as subsidiary coin and legal tender in small amounts.

The withdrawal of the Government notes now current coincidently with the resumption of specie payments would involve the issuing of a loan of at least 300,000,000 florins, to which Cisleithania would contribute her usual quota of 70 per cent., while Hungary would furnish the rest. The likelihood that Cisleithania could negotiate her share of the loan at more favorable terms than Hungary—say, at 3½ to 4 per cent. interest against Hungary's 4½ to 5 per cent.—is contemplated with perfect equanimity by the Vienna financiers, who in 1878 gave a very reluctant assent to the establishment of the Austro-Hungarian Bank, which introduced the political dualism of the Empire into its finances, and subjected the Vienna money market to all the fluctuations of the market of Buda-Pesth. Some apprehension is expressed that, in the event of the adoption of a gold standard, the hoarding propensities of certain classes of the population, unused to the sight of gold as a circulating medium, might be stimulated to such a degree as to bring about a serious stringency of money. Of course, whatever plan may finally be determined upon will depend for its execution upon the maintenance of the European peace, the tenure of which is considered by no means secure by cautious Austrian financiers. It is ominously remembered that the outbreak of the wars of 1859 and 1866 found Austria engaged in similar plans for the reconstruction of her finances.

A recent despatch from London states, on the authority of the *Times* correspondent at Brussels, usually a well-informed man, that the Pope is disposed to abandon the attempt to pacify Ireland which the British Government has long been urging on him, in view of the resolute resistance of the Irish clergy. This falls in with the stories which have been current for some time, and have gained much strength since the late Catholic Congress in Baltimore and the foundation of the Catholic University at Washington, that the spirit of insubordination towards the Papacy, on the part of the non-Italian element in the clergy, has been growing rapidly of late, and may find expression in some overt action when the time comes to elect a new Pope. The Irish and Germans and Poles are said, in other words, to be becoming very impatient of the monopoly of ecclesiastical rule held by the Italians, and to be disposed to resent it openly whenever the Pope and his advisers try to magnify their authority by extending it to the secular concerns of other countries. Some attempt has been made of late years to keep down this feeling by a more liberal distribution of Cardinals' hats among the outside barbarians, but as these Cardinals live far from Rome, they exert but little influence on Papal councils. The American and English Catholics, if not the Germans, are said to be in favor of some sort of great liberalization of Catholic theology, so as to keep hold of the sheep who are demoralized by science and democracy; but the necessity of this is naturally not as clear in the Vatican as in Baltimore or Chicago.

MR. WINDOM AND THE BANKS.

At last the Secretary of the Treasury has taken a step which shows that he feels the importance of reducing the Treasury surplus by freer purchases of bonds. He has given six weeks' notice to the depositary banks, calling in 10 per cent. of their Government deposits where the Government account is an inactive one, and, in cases where the account is active, calling in 10 per cent. of the excess above the balance which the Treasury intends to keep. And he takes pains to make it plain to the banks that he is ready to buy from them, in whole or in part, the bonds which they have lodged with the Treasury as security for Government deposits. This 10 per cent. call is to be followed by other calls, with the expressed purpose of reducing the Government deposits in national banks from their present figure, some $47,000,000, to such a total as the Government business may really need, which will no doubt cut down the deposits at least one-half. All the money so withdrawn is to be used in the purchase of bonds. The working of Mr. Windom's circular will cause no disturbance in the money market, since the Treasury is ready to buy the bonds, and at prices considerably above the amount of the deposits for which they are held as security. In fact, the money market will gain stability from the change proposed, the Treasury buying and cancelling the bonds, in place of merely advancing money upon them.

It is represented in some quarters that this action of Mr. Windom, though delayed until he has been nine months in office, is taken in fulfilment of pledges given during the Presidential campaign of last year. If this view is held by the author of the circular just issued, he would probably be puzzled to explain why he did not issue the circular long since. It is, however, unnecessary to inquire into this question at present; it is of more importance to look into the general question of the Treasury deposits, viewed in their bearing on the very peculiar condition of the Treasury itself. The deposits were never anything but an expedient; they have been very useful to the business community at large, and they can be reduced in a manner to increase their usefulness further, which last may be taken as Mr. Windom's purpose in his present declaration of policy.

The Government of this country carries on its financial business as no other civilized Government does. Instead of depositing its revenues with one or more of the strongest banks in the country, and checking on the bank for its disbursements, it sweeps its receipts into its own vaults, making its disbursements afterwards through its own Sub-Treasuries. The system was calculated for a small business, and it has had to be worked on a gigantic scale; and what was easily borne when income and outgo differed little, became very burdensome when receipts largely exceeded expenditures. Congress saw this, even so far back as when the National-Bank Act was framed, and provided some relief by permitting a system of Treasury deposits secured by United States bonds. Such deposits could be made from any moneys in the Treasury, excepting the receipts from customs duties, a very large and important exception. Still, this section of the National-Bank Act gave to the Secretary of the Treasury a very useful power, and one which should have been used much earlier than it was, for it enabled him to relieve part of the stringency which was often caused by the absorption of money into the Treasury. It seems, however, that the Secretary was generally afraid to use this power, and deposits, as a rule, were made only in cases where they strictly facilitated the Treasury's own business. The matter was brought to the attention of Secretary Folger, in the month of October, 1882, and in his report of December of that year he discussed the question at some length, deciding to do nothing, and expressing the fear that deposits might not be returned when called for. The question then slumbered, so far as the public was concerned, until, under Mr. Cleveland's Administration, the Treasury in 1887 systematically increased its deposits in national banks, aiming to place what is called its "available balance," as far as possible, at the service of the trade of the country. The change was of great public utility: how great can only be surmised, but some idea can be formed by trying to imagine what the money-market would have been without this measure of relief.

The system of deposits has grown until the depositary banks are now reported as 266 in number. The deposits themselves are widely scattered, those in New York city being, we understand, a trifle less than six millions. Besides relieving borrowers of all legitimate descriptions, these deposits, being secured by pledge of United States bonds, have drawn together a large mass of the very securities for which the Treasury is the principal buyer. Some of the bonds are owned by the banks, and many of them are borrowed, belonging really to customers of the banks. In either case, their sale is only a question of practical judgment, and this practical judgment Mr. Windom evidently seeks to influence by his circular.

THE DECLINE OF NEW ENGLAND.

We printed last month an extremely interesting letter, from Judge Nott of Washington, throwing some light on the decline of the old stock of New England farmers. His explanation is, in brief, that farming has been ruined in New England, and the old New England society—something unique in its way—destroyed, by the offer of vast tracts of fertile land in the West by our Government for almost nothing to European peasants; and secondly, by the building up, by means of a high tariff, of a great manufacturing interest which has competed against the farmer in the labor market. The farmer was so fascinated by the picture which the high-tariff men drew for him of the benefits that would accrue to him from having "a factory at his door," to consume his produce, that he never thought of asking what the other effects would be. He has now found, after twenty years' experience, that "the factory at his door" does not consume his produce, while it does entice away from the land the laboring youth of both sexes, so that he can get nobody to help him in his fields, or his wife in her kitchen.

In one way or another not only has the New England farmer been ruined or driven from the soil, but the old New England society, in many ways one of the most interesting phenomena in history, has been completely broken up. No other such body of cultivators of the soil as the New England colonies were, down to our own day, has ever been seen. No other men who tilled the ground with their own hands have had such an acute and active intelligence, such intense preoccupation with religious and moral problems, such a keen sense of the superior importance of spiritual things, such reverence for learning, such familiarity with and appreciation of literature, and such capacity for government by discussion. Puritanism, as has often been said, missed its mark in England, but it came as near realizing its ideal as human nature would permit, on American soil. No student of politics or sociology will, in all probability, for ages to come, light on an experiment in all respects so interesting and so successful as Massachusetts and Connecticut were and continued to be down to the outbreak of the civil war. The war, working through the tariff and the railroads, has broken it up almost as thoroughly as it broke up its opposite, slave society, at the South.

The only important point in the catastrophe which Judge Nott does not attempt to explain, or even touch upon, is the equanimity, and even rejoicing, with which the New England farmers have witnessed the disappearance of the social edifice which they had passed two centuries in building up, and cemented with an enormous amount of prayer and self-abnegation. For more than a quarter of a century New Englanders have, through all their organs, in politics and in literature and oratory, eagerly supported the policy which was visibly and rapidly changing the character of their population and the structure of their society. The most ardent advocates and promoters of "the factory at your doors," with its swarm of foreign-born voters, have been New England men. They have seen it rapidly and surely converting Connecticut and Massachusetts into foreign and even Catholic States, ousting the natives of the Puritan stock from all real influence in the Government, and consigning to the lumber-room of history the old Puritan traditions of public spirit and public duty, and have seen it sending all their boys and girls flying into the cities and to the West, without a protest or even a word of complaint. In fact, at the dinners of the New England Society in this city, the favorite boast of the orators has been the rapidity with which New Englanders were leaving New England to leaven society, as they said, and carry on "improvements" in other places. The disappearance from the map of a community more remarkable, on the whole, for its civic virtues than any the world has seen since the days of ancient Greece, has wrung hardly a word of lamentation or re-

gret from any of the recognized organs of New England opinion. The received notion about the matter has apparently been that as long as New England men can be pointed to in New York or at the West in places of responsibility in railroads, mines, factories, or stockbrokers' offices, nothing more need be said by way of apology or regret.

This is all the more surprising because the New Englanders who have emigrated have not sought to reproduce under strange skies the social ideals which reigned in their old homes. They have nowhere tried to found an imitation of their mother States, unless perhaps in the Western Reserve, the original peculiarities of which have, however, already disappeared. New Englanders have made their mark in various fields all over the country, but it is in no way a different mark from that made by emigrants from other States which did not inherit the Puritan tradition. They "make their pile" in much the same way as Virginians or Pennsylvanians, and spend it on much the same objects; hold substantially the same views of the ends of life. If they differ at all from other "live men" or "solid men" of the day, it is in possessing a more consuming energy, not in any superior appreciation of things invisible.

All this forces one on the supposition, to which Judge Nott makes no allusion, that some part at least of the decadence of New England has been due to the operation of causes which are driving the farming population into the cities in all the more highly civilized countries. The better educated and more energetic portion of the agricultural population is abandoning the farms in France and England as well as here. In fact, it seems impossible to keep any longer on the land in a state of content any but the real old peasant class of farmers, with no book-learning and no interests but those of their own calling—men and women whose lives are passed contentedly between toil and sleep, and on whom the attractions of city life have no influence. A population with as much mental activity, and the social ambition which comes of mental activity, as the New England farmers, was sure to be roused into uncontrollable restlessness by the advent of the railroads, the daily newspaper, the monthly magazines, and the visits of the lyceum lecturer. The old people might escape it, but no one who has seen anything of the New England youth of the last forty years can help doubting whether even prosperous farming would have kept them from rushing to the stores and factories of the great towns in search of society, of the theatre, of the picture-gallery and the public library, and the thousand and one suggestions of pleasant variety which the streets even of a country town offer to boys and girls who have been bred in the silence and seclusion of an "old homestead."

THE AFRICAN PROBLEM.

It is quite evident that the expulsion of Emin Bey from the Sudan, combined with Stanley's success in rescuing him, is going to make the African question a great subject of European attention during the next twenty-five years. The death of Gordon and the British repulse in the Sudan have given Egypt more than ever the character of a British dependency, or, indeed, possession, and Egypt is not safe so long as the Sudan is held by a hostile Power. Consequently, the best mode of pacifying the Sudan is now a constant subject of British preoccupation. Besides this, the missionary enthusiasm which down to Livingstone's day looked on the civilization of Africa as possible through the spread of Christianity, has since Livingstone's day given way to the commercial and colonizing enthusiasm, which holds that Africa must be regenerated by railroads, factories, and European trading settlements, to which the missions must be a sort of supplement or adjunct.

Accordingly Germany, England, Italy, and Portugal have plunged eagerly into the work of exploring Africa, not so much because it is a country easy to colonize as because it is now the only part of the world unoccupied by civilized men which European nations find it easy to get at. Germany is pushing out reconnoitring parties from Zanzibar; Portugal is extending her possessions inland from the Western coast; Italy has got a foothold in Abyssinia, and England has chartered an "East African Company," on the model of the East India Company, with full fighting as well as trading powers. Its mission will be, apparently, to push its way into the interior along the line of least resistance, trade where it can, fight where it must, found colonies, build forts, make roads, and lend a hand to friendly native chiefs wherever they need it. It is now proposed, if his services can be secured, to put Stanley at the head of this corporation, and the Germans will very probably try to secure the services of Emin Bey for some similar organization of their own. In short, there is to be a sort of attack all round, on what may be called "the anaconda plan," on the dark continent. It is to be pierced from several directions at once, and, if possible, opened up to civilization.

It is safe to say the civilized world has never before entered on a task so difficult. All the other great tracts of the earth's surface which the European nations have sought to penetrate and subdue—North and South America, Australia, India, and Central Asia—have had climates which the white man found, if not enjoyable, at least endurable. All have either had populations so feeble and barbarous as to be readily exterminated or reduced to submission, or have had political organizations the overthrow of which secured peace and obedience for the conqueror. Central Africa offers none of these advantages. The population is large and savage, and dwells in pestilential forests, and has neither thrones, principalities, nor powers competent to make treaties, surrender territory, or preserve order. All is night and chaos. No conqueror who enters that portion of Africa can at present hold more than the ground he camps on.

It is not, however, the absence of civilization or of strong tribal organization which constitutes the great difficulty in the way of the missionary or the colonist. If the invaders had only the peaceful natives to deal with, the problem would probably be easily solved. The power in Africa which drove Egypt out of the Sudan, which slew Gordon, which keeps the British shut up in Suakim and every now and then threatens them in Egypt, which bars Capt. Wissmann's and Dr. Peters's progress, has driven Emin out of his province, and keeps Stanley, on all his wonderful marches, in constant danger of destruction, is what we used to call in this country "the slave power"—that is, what may be called a vast semi-military brotherhood, composed of the owners and dealers in slaves brought from the interior to the northern and eastern coasts of the continent. The slaves who were brought to the Americas in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were generally captives taken by local chiefs in their tribal wars on the western coast. The slaves who are now sold in northern Africa and in Persia are captured by bands of filibusters composed either of Arabs or half-breeds, who come down from the north and lay waste the country, burn the villages, and carry off the inhabitants wholesale. Their raids are, in ferocity and destructiveness and plan of operation, very like those which the Turkomans, before the Russian conquests in Central Asia, used to organize against the Persians, under the name of "alamans," but they are carried out on a far larger scale and over a much wider area.

The beginnings of this frightful system are said to have been found in the ivory trade. The armed traders got into the way, when short of carriers, of seizing natives for the work of transportation by force. Then came the great success of the Mohammedan missionaries in making negro converts who considered themselves the superiors of the heathen, and entitled to use the sword of the Koran against unbelievers, hold them in slavery, and make up harems of their women. Gradually, little by little, out of these things has grown up an immense traffic which takes, it is estimated, 500,000 men, women, and children annually from Central Africa to supply the labor markets of Timbuctoo, of Morocco, of Tripoli, of Arabia, of Persia, and now of Khartum and Gondokoro. Commander Cameron, who had long personal acquaintance with the traffic, puts down the number actually sold annually at 500,000, but the number who perish on the march to the market is estimated at 50 per cent. of the total, so that the draft on the Central African population may be called one million annually. On the road, the traders every morning inspect their caravan, and kill, with a bar of iron, in order to save ammunition, every slave who shows signs of exhaustion, so as to save the sorghum on which they feed them, and in the desert the water. On certain of the caravan routes in the desert, in fact, it is said, the skeletons or scattered bones make it very easy to follow their track. The passage across the Red Sea in the Arab dhows which have to evade the British cruisers is as full of horrors as the old "middle passage" of the Atlantic traders, but it is happily very short, and the proportion of

slaves landed in good condition is rather large.

The awful nature of the traffic and the difficulties it puts in the way of African civilization have often been exposed. Dr. Livingstone did it; so did Commander Cameron; so did Consul Johnson; so—though last, not least—did Cardinal Lavigerie and a score of others. The Conference sitting at Brussels has done it also. But no one has yet suggested a practicable remedy. The discouraging fact has indeed been brought to light that the traders actually follow in the track of the Christian missionaries, and choose the districts into which they have introduced some semblance of peace and industry as favorite theatres of their infernal operations. Several missionary stations have stood sieges from them or been destroyed by them. The line along which they operate, too, may be said to stretch across the continent, and they thrive in a climate where Europeans can barely keep alive.

Gordon said "there were but two serious means of putting a stop to the traffic. The first is to dry up the source of it by establishing tranquillity in the territories in which this chase after human game is carried on; the second is to close up the slave markets in Egypt, Turkey, and Persia." But how is either of these things to be accomplished? The English Parliamentary Blue Book published in 1888 shows that there is in Morocco a great market for Sudan negroes, and that at Messafoa in that country there is an immense establishment devoted to the preparation of black eunuchs for the harems. Consul Wood reports from Tripoli that he has seen come into the town of Bengazi alone 20,000 slaves in four years, or about 100,000 for the whole of Tripoli. The Governor of the province of Fezzan was said to receive about two dollars per head for every slave who entered his jurisdiction. They are also beyond question smuggled into Turkey. That more or less of the trade goes on in Egypt may be inferred from the existence at Cairo of a "Home for Freed Women Slaves," under the patronage of the Queen, which had very recently four hundred inmates. The truth is, that slavery is so deeply imbedded in Oriental traditions, manners, and religion, that the demand will never be extirpated as long as the supply exists; and to stop the supply we must either civilize Africa or rule it in some such rough-and-ready-fashion, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea, that every slave-dealer who crosses the line will have a well-founded fear that the gibbet or the firing party may await him.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN GERMANY.—II.

At the close of 1887 a number of Berlin women drew up a petition to the Prussian House of Representatives and Minister of Education, praying, first, that women be given a larger share in the teaching of girls in the public high schools, and especially that the "ethical" or character-building subjects, German and religion, be put into the hands of women teachers; second, that institutions be established by the State for the training of women teachers competent to do this work. The grounds of this petition are ably set forth in an accompanying memorial written by Fräulein Lange. The contention of the petitioners is that the girls' schools are at present organized upon a wrong principle; that women no less than men should be educated for their own sake, with reference to the fullest possible development of the faculties natural to them; that the ideal to be kept in view by the schools, therefore, should be *womanhood* of the highest and completest type. To the attainment of this end, the memorial argues, girls must receive a large part of their instruction from women. Instead of being confined, as now, to the instruction of the lower classes (years) in handiwork and calisthenics, women teachers should have charge of the most important part of the course, leaving to men at best those subjects which involve little more than the giving of information.

The memorial admits that women teachers of the kind desired are not now to be had in any considerable numbers in Germany, and argues thence the need of providing them. It does not ask for or favor the admission of women to the universities, but advocates rather the erection of public colleges more or less similar to Girton and Newnham in England; such colleges to offer a three years' course of the highest scientific character, having at the beginning a severe standard of admission, and at the end a State examination vouching for the same grade of attainment and carrying with it the same rights as the present State examination for men. The latter part of the memorial is devoted to showing that women are mentally and physically equal to the severe course of study planned for them, and that their womanliness will gain instead of losing under the strain.

The petition and the memorial are both ably written documents, and present a very cogent argument, but they fell short of convincing the Prussian authorities. After a lapse of eight months, Minister von Gossler replied that he saw no ground for proceeding in the direction suggested. The petitioners had exaggerated the evils of the existing system; women were already extensively employed as teachers, and the best positions were already open to those who would qualify themselves. The State was making generous provision for the training of teachers in the seminaries attached to the girls' schools. The idea that women should teach religion was preposterous, since such an idea would seem to deny the utility of the present confirmation-instruction, which everybody knows to be a blessed institution. The erection of colleges for women was to be looked on with disfavor, since, apart from the question of expense, the young women in such establishments would become estranged from family life. Their health would also be sure to suffer under the regimen proposed. Finally, many poor but respectable young women, such as now find employment suited to their abilities in the girls' schools, would be unable to pay the expense of the proposed course and would thus be driven out of the business of teaching.

Thus the petition accomplished nothing directly in the way of influencing legislation, for the Prussian House of Representatives shelved the whole subject upon learning the attitude of the Ministry. Indirectly, however, much has been effected, and the reformers have reason to look upon their cause as prosperous. For, in the first place, their views are now fairly before the public, and are being, or have lately been, much discussed. A few prominent journals and several influential men espoused the cause of the petitioners, at least to the extent of favoring the *idea* involved. Others, and these the majority, opposed the movement, but in so doing they were at least compelled to tell why; so that the whole question, in its three familiar stages—first, Have women the brain power? second, Will it not injure their health? and third, Who wants a blue-stocking for a wife?—is now seething in a multitude of minds, and slowly evolving a general feeling that something must be done. For of course the reformers have not failed to point out the vacuity of Von Gossler's argument, or to make skilful use of the stinging and inevasible retort that all the insurmountable difficulties foreseen in Government circles have of late been easily surmounted by other nations.

There is evidence that this particular shaft, after first making public opinion somewhat restless, is now pricking through the skin of Prussian officialism; for we observe that the Government has lately sent an envoy to England to inquire into the methods and workings of the English colleges for women. More important still, there has just been established, under the name of "Fortbildungskurse für Lehrerinnen," in connection with the Victoria Lyceum at Berlin, a line of instruction which, so far as it goes, is substantially what the reformers have been asking for. Hitherto the Victoria Lyceum—a brief account of the institution will be found in the *Nation* of January 14, 1886—has confined itself to providing lecture-courses in which the results of scientific research are presented in somewhat popular form and rather easy doses. The new courses aim higher. They are to be systematic and obligatory, to extend over three years, to combine lectures with seminary work, and to terminate in a State examination with a diploma for those who pass. The ideal and the methods of the instruction, which is supported in part by State subsidy, are to be essentially those of the universities. At present, to be sure, the new courses are confined to history and German; but we may doubtless assume that if experience shows a demand for the extension of the work, the extension will be made, and the Lyceum will develop into a university for women.

Finally, we have to chronicle another very recent movement in the same general direction, namely, the new "Realkurse für Frauen," just established under the auspices of the Wissenschaftlicher Centralverein at Berlin. These courses are to provide advanced instruction, open to graduates of the public high schools for girls, in mathematics, physics, chemistry, political economy, German, Latin, French, and English. Here the aim is less distinctly academic than in case of the Lyceum courses just spoken of. The "Realkurse" are intended to give women such knowledge as will make them more independent under the peculiar conditions of modern life. We have before us the excellent inaugural address delivered on the 10th of October last by Fräulein Lange, one of whose hearers was her Imperial Majesty the Empress Friedrich, long illustrious for her exertions on behalf of German women. The programme of the "Realkurse" is thus far a modest one, but with such support as it has no one can foresee what may come of the movement. A foot-note to the address just mentioned indicates that the number of students registered is small but rapidly increasing.

In short, it looks as if the question of higher education for women in Germany were entering upon the road to solution. The initial steps we have described have been taken, to be sure, only in Berlin, and are in themselves perhaps not very imposing. But the reform has now at

any rate a foothold. The principle that a woman no less than a man has a right to make the best of herself, and is entitled to at least as much help from the State, has been recognized, and the future is in the hands of the women themselves. If they avail themselves eagerly, in considerable numbers, of the slender opportunity now tentatively offered them, further provision will, of course, be made for their needs; and as Berlin and Prussia go, so the rest of Germany will go.

One shrinks from giving free rein to the imagination in a matter of this kind when there are mountains of inveterate prejudice to be removed and a mint of money to be expended. Still, it is not hard to defend the thesis that the education of girls is, in a sociological point of view, even more important than that of boys; and so one cannot help wondering what would happen if this principle were to be recognized in Germany, and put into practice with the energy and thoroughness which that country has long displayed the education of men, and is now in the habit of bringing to bear upon all matters vitally affecting the public welfare. We might then look forward to a race of German women essentially different from those of the present day. Will they be less vigorous of body? Science should take care of that. Will they be less attractive to men? Nature looks out for that. Will they be real competitors of German men in the pursuit of knowledge and the application of new knowledge to life? Probably not. Of one thing, however, we are very sure, and that is that they will be helped and not hindered by whatever accurate knowledge they may possess, in the carrying out of the pretty domestic programme which Schiller lays down for them in "Würde der Frauen":

"Nähren sie wachsam das ewige Feuer
Schöner Gefühle mit heiliger Hand."

No doubt whatever that this is a woman's noblest vocation. And the more intelligent she is, the better she can fulfil it.

THE "CULTURKAMPF" IN BAVARIA.

MUNICH, November 13, 1889.

PRUSSIA has made its peace with Rome. If Bismarck has not precisely been to Canossa, he has at least got as far on the way as Venice, and has managed as cleverly as did his predecessors in the days of Barbarossa to patch up a *modus vivendi* with Rome, without coming to extremities either way. This apparent settlement of the religious question by the highest powers in Germany has perhaps diverted attention from another field of religious-political controversy where the same question has never been suffered to rest, and where it has just risen to the surface of affairs with sudden and unusual distinctness. Bavaria is mainly a Roman Catholic country. It is governed by a family which has throughout its history distinguished itself by its fidelity to Rome. In the great religious war of the seventeenth century, the house of Wittelsbach stood at the very head of the Catholic party, and stamped upon Bavaria the character of a truly Catholic land, which it has never lost to this day. But on the other hand this same house of Wittelsbach has always been, especially since it gained the royal title by the grace of Napoleon I., very jealous of its rights as against all comers. The spirit of the old Emperor Ludwig of Bavaria has never, in spite of the weaknesses and sins of his descendants, quite died out, and it is coming to the fore in these days. It was largely under the impulse of that spirit that the electors of Germany, assembled in 1338 at the ancient Königsstuhl at Rense, declared that whoever should be lawfully chosen by themselves should, *without reference to Rome*, be the true and lawful Roman King and Emperor.

It was a great lesson in historic continuity to listen to the debates in the Bavarian Landtag on the 6th, 7th, and 8th of this month, and to see how, with only a change of words, precisely the same problem is before the German people to-day which faced them, under Ludwig the Bavarian in the fourteenth, and even under Henry the Salian in the eleventh century. The present form of the problem in Bavaria, divested of its complications, is something like this. The present Prime Minister, Von Lutz, the Bavarian Bismarck, is a Protestant, and probably the best-hated man in the land. He holds his place by virtue of his great ability, his devotion to the interests of the Government, and the sincere admiration of the liberal elements of the population. The late King Louis II. cared little for the details of administration —was, in fact, during the last years of his reign, undoubtedly incapable of that kind of activity. His brother, the present King, has been for many years a hopeless lunatic. Their uncle, the present Prince Regent Luitpold, is an old man, a worthy person, so far as any one knows, devoted to hunting, and apparently guided very much by the good monarchical feeling that he is, after all, only a regent, and therefore in a sense excluded from original action in fundamental questions. His eldest son, Ludwig, a man in the prime of life, with a great family of children, will succeed his father as regent, and, if he outlives the mad King (which, according to published accounts of his Majesty's excellent physical condition, seems doubtful), will succeed to the throne.

Under all these circumstances, the policy of the Government is distinctly to keep things as they are, to take no decided original action, but to maintain steadily the rights of the throne as it interprets them, and to hand them over undiminished to a new king, whenever, according to the Bavarian Constitution, such a one shall come into power. On the other hand, the Roman party, keen as it ever was to seize upon the weak points in its enemy's position, is using these circumstances of uncertainty in the Government to insist upon certain concessions which it could expect with less confidence from a king strong in an undoubted right, and looking forward to a long period of personal influence upon affairs.

The immediate subject of the recent debates was a proposition presented by seventy-nine members of the party of the Centre, asking the Landtag to declare that the royal approval, the "Placetum Regium" of the Bavarian Constitution, did not apply to questions of faith. This proposition has at first hearing a very harmless sound. To American ears it seems almost like a declaration of religious liberty: "The King shall have nothing to say as to what his subjects may believe"; and, in fact, the Roman party even went to the length of declaring itself the champion of religious freedom as against State oppression. But the real pith of the matter lies deeper. The idea of State support for religion is still deeply rooted in the minds of European peoples of all parties. But State support and State recognition go together. The State must define *what* religions it will support; it must have some principle by which to reach such a definition. In other words, it must, necessarily, sit as judge over purely doctrinal questions, whenever, in the course of events, it is called upon to recognize a new religious body. Such a crisis has been impending in Bavaria ever since the Vatican council of 1870. The doctrine of Papal infallibility has never been accepted by a considerable fraction of the Catholic Church. The disaffected portion began the organization known as the "Old-Catholics," and, ever since, the chief anxiety of the Ultramontane party has been lest this new organization should gain in Bavaria, as it did in Prussia, State recognition, therewith State support, and thereby cease to be a "sect" and become a "church" in the same sense in which the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, and the Greek churches now exist side by side, "recognized" and "supported" by the State.

The danger of such recognition has not increased of late years. The Old-Catholic party has not shown itself capable of supplying the rallying-point for moderate reform which was expected of it. But the Ultramontane party has not been satisfied. It has wanted a formal declaration that the Government shall have nothing to say in questions of faith. It has emphasized in every way the distinction between questions of religious administration and those which involve purely matters of belief, and it has brought forward its present proposition in the hope of getting a formula which shall be capable of indefinite extension in the future.

But the Old-Catholic question is not the real one involved. As Minister Lutz very sharply said, "The Government is not going to give privileges to the Old-Catholics until they ask for them." The real question is the great fundamental one of the relation between Church and State in Bavaria. The debates of last week, and still more the comments of papers throughout Germany, show this beyond all doubt. In his reply to the proposition of the Centre, Minister Lutz went, with Bismarckian directness, straight to the point. He passed in review the action of the Government in related matters during the past centuries of Bavarian history, and maintained, on the basis of Constitution and Concordat alike, that the whole record pointed to the right of the State to control its own affairs, religious as well as secular. He finally charged the movers of the proposition with infidelity to their oaths of office as representatives of the Bavarian people. This accusation naturally called forth a storm of opposition. Members threw off all disguise, and fell into the trap which the Minister had laid for them. His own directness brought similar directness in reply. A stormy scene, quite unusual in German legislative bodies, took place, and culminated in a declaration by the Ultramontane representative, Daller, for himself and his partisans, that they did not feel themselves bound by their oaths of office *in the sense in which the Ministry had interpreted them*. This declaration has since been going the rounds of the German Liberal press as the evident expression of the jesuitical reasoning which underlies the whole matter of the relation of the Roman Catholic subject to *any* State: he takes his oath of allegiance *with a reservation*.

It is a fortunate thing for the Liberal party everywhere that the Ultramontanes of Bavaria have been forced to such a distinct utterance. It must open the eyes of thoughtful men to the fact that the Roman Church has not changed its views since the time of Hildebrand as to the superior claims of the only saving Church over all other human relations. The American citizen may gain the same warning, and will profit by it. He has the same problem to meet, only on different lines.

I was especially interested in one remark of Minister Lutz on the fundamental question of State support. He said in substance:

"There are different ways in which to meet this difficulty. One way would be to withdraw

the support of the State from all religious bodies, and then the matter might be left to them. This way, however, is in Bavaria out of the question. The Government stands on the basis of the Bavarian Constitution, and accordingly must provide for religious support."

The American observer learns by such a declaration that this State control, which in America would be tyranny, is here the present condition of what passes in Europe for liberty. If the nations of Europe are to advance constitutionally from their present level of religious toleration to the higher level of religious liberty, it will have to be through this intermediate action of the State. To one, however, who sees how this State control works to lame and cripple all activity in other directions, the outlook is not cheering. In Bavaria, at all events, the Government has nothing to fear from overliberal tendencies. The proposition of the Centre passed the lower house of the Landtag by a majority of three. Its defeat in the upper house is believed to be certain, but it remains as documentary evidence of what the only true representatives of the Bavarian people think about their relation to Church and State, and it is hailed with the utmost jubilation by the Roman press everywhere as a sign of that ultimate victory which is to reward those who patiently wait until the world comes round to them.

There can be little doubt that the move of the Ultramontane party at this time is a direct personal attack upon the Prime Minister. He himself felt it, and replied to it as such. Under a different system of parliamentary government, the passage of this vote would have brought with it the immediate resignation of the Ministry. Foreseeing the outcome of the discussion, Herr von Lutz emphasized, with great distinctness, the difference between the Bavarian and, for instance, the English system. He reminded his opponents that so far as he, personally, was concerned, he was not responsible to Parliament or to the people, but to the King, and that, so long as it should please the King or his representative to approve his action, so long he proposed to keep on as he had been doing.

The question in Bavaria is thus frankly stated and put before the people in such a form that it cannot be misunderstood. The chances are that the Ultramontane party will be satisfied for the present with its majority of three, and will let the matter slide until another year. Meanwhile, there are enough other points of controversy, as, for example, the still pending question of the approval by the Pope of the new Archbishop of Munich, Freysing, to keep the Ministry in a constant attitude of opposition to the extreme claims of the Vatican. Never, since the days of the Falk laws in Prussia in 1873–'75, has this question of Roman control over the religious affairs of Europe been so clearly before the people. The ultimate solution in Europe, as in America, must be the separation of Church and State, but that can never come until, by some great awakening, the whole theory of the paternal government is abandoned, and no one who watches the direction of affairs either from above or from below can deceive himself with the idea that Germany is advancing along this line. On the contrary, both in the struggle of Socialism and in the resistance of the monarchy, it is strengthening the theory of the "strong hand" which shall, if it only be strong enough, make all things well. E. E.

FRENCH DIPLOMACY FROM THE ARCHIVES.

PARIS, November 15, 1889.

THERE is no branch of literature which has undergone in our time a greater change than history. Historical studies have assumed almost a scientific character; we no longer put up with vague and sententious generalities, we will have facts, texts, documents. This reform was first introduced in Germany, but the modern French school is as severe, and more severe, than the most difficult German professors in Berlin. There is much to be said about the great change which has been made in the direction and in the method of historical studies; even texts, letters, and written documents may deceive us and conceal the truth. Human life is too short to allow us too close a study of the past; and it will soon be almost impossible to study history, as the documents published every day are so numerous that it would take several lives to go through them. At the same time, we must confess that when we have once adopted the modern method, we cannot be content with the vague accounts of the older writers. We have become so critical that we hardly dare to pass any judgments on the past, as we feel that there is always something hidden from us; we must be satisfied with a part of a truth, but we cannot bear what is not the exact truth.

I have before me several large volumes of historical documents, which are published under the general title of "Collection of the Instructions given to the Ambassadors and Ministers of France from the Treaty of Westphalia to the French Revolution." This publication is made under the direction of the Diplomatic Archives Committee of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. These archives have been for twenty years more accessible than in the past: any person who wishes to consult them has only to write a letter to the Minister and to say what subject he intends to study. The Minister consults the Archives Committee on the subject, and gives his permission if the report of the Committee is favorable. As the archives, however, are now so completely open, the Commission has thought it its duty not to leave to the first comer the initiative in publications which, from their dimensions and their object, seem to depend chiefly on the initiative of the Government. On the other hand, the Foreign Office does not think it opportune or necessary to take the entire charge or responsibility of these vast compilations of instructions and despatches. The work has, therefore, been confided to persons known by their capacity, and to responsible editors, who consent to do their work only under the auspices and the superintendence of the Commission.

In accordance with this programme, the Minister has authorized the publication of the instructions given to our representatives abroad from the Treaty of Westphalia to the French Revolution, and has given a subvention to this publication. The habit of our Government has always been, when a new Minister was sent to a foreign court, to give him an extensive account of the anterior relations of France with this court, of the questions which were at the time in discussion, and to draw up for him a plan of diplomatic operations. These instructions may be compared to a proof before the letter: they represent all the effort of our diplomacy in its stage of preparation; they cast their shadow on coming events; they are the invisible thread which unites a number of political events; they are a sort of perpetual commentary on our national history, and show at the same time both what we have done and what we have wished to do.

The diplomatic archives have only been very regularly kept since Cardinal Richelieu, and our diplomatic relations have only kept a perfectly regular course since the Treaty of Westphalia. It is for this reason that the new publication only begins at that date; there are obvious reasons why it should end with the year 1789. Before this date there were instructions of two sorts—those which were given in view of some particular negotiation, such as a treaty of peace, and those which had a general character, and gave a résumé of the regular relations between France and all the States of Europe. The collection made under the direction of the Archives comprises only this second class of general instructions.

The old clerks of our Ministry of Foreign Affairs were obscure but noteworthy men. They spent all their lifetime in the shade; they were never changed, and knew all the intricacies of our negotiations. Many of their memoirs are to be ranked among the best models of historical study. Their names are forgotten, but they played as important a part as the negotiators who received their lessons from them. It is chiefly to them that we owe the continuity of our foreign policy before the great Revolution.

The first volume of the collection gives the history of the relations between France and Austria. The rivalry between these two States fills our history, and the struggle against the powerful house of Austria became a necessary condition of the territorial formation of France. Charles V. aspired to universal monarchy, his possessions surrounded France on all sides. France had to look everywhere for allies, and she found some in Germany itself. The Treaty of Westphalia gave to France the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, Verdun, the landgraviates of Upper and Lower Alsace, the prefecture of Haguenau in Lower Alsace; it conferred more rights on the German princes, and gave them the right of free alliances. France became the guarantor of these rights, and this guarantee became the foundation of her policy.

"These German alliances of France," says M. Sorel, who has written an introduction to this first volume, "are a very subtle and delicate matter"—so subtle that in the instructions given in 1815 to the Duke of Richelieu we read:

"The Duc de Richelieu must not forget that, with regard to the Princes of the Empire in general, it would be dangerous to show too much haste in defence of their interests. Still imbued as they are with the prejudices with which the Court of Vienna has known how to inspire them at all times, they would be inclined to consider such a hasty disposition a result of the King's desire to take a principal part in the interior affairs of the Empire, and to foment division in order to promote his own interests."

After the death of Charles VI., France entered into the coalition against Maria Theresa, with results not foreseen by her, the creation of a new Power as dangerous to France as Austria ever had been. Prussia took and kept Silesia, and the genius of her king soon gave her a place in Europe which she had never had before. The instructions given to Stainville in 1756 say:

"His Majesty used, in 1733, the King of Sardinia, and in 1741 the King of Prussia, as Cardinal Richelieu had previously used the crown of Sweden and several Princes of the Empire; with this difference, however, that the Swedes, ill-paid by France, nevertheless remained faithful to her, while by making the Kings of Sardinia and of Prussia too powerful, we have only made of these two Princes ungrateful rivals—a great and important lesson, which we ought to take to heart, so as to govern each of these

monarchs by fear and hope, rather than by augmentations of territory."

Prussia left the French alliance and signed a treaty with England, which was at war with us; France turned towards Maria Theresa and made peace with her. "If ever an event took place which could justly astonish the world," say the instructions to the Comte de Choiseul (1759), "it was the union of the King with the Empress-Queen. The result was not fortunate for France; she received no support from Austria against England on the Continent; she neglected her maritime struggle with England in order to help Austria against Prussia," and in the end Frederick II. kept his Silesian conquest, France lost Canada, Louisiana, and India. After prodigious efforts made by France, she found herself much diminished. The Austrian alliance had become, however, the new basis of our foreign policy, and it remained so, with some alterations, till the French Revolution.

The mere chronological list of our envoys to Vienna from 1660 to 1790 will be interesting: President Colbert, Chevalier de Grémonville, Marquis de Vitry, Marquis de Sedeville, Comte de Cheverny, Comte de la Vauguyon, Comte de Lusignan, Marquis de Villars, Comte du Luc, M. Mandat (chargé d'affaires), M. du Bourg (chargé d'affaires), Duc de Richelieu, M. de Bussy (chargé d'affaires), Marquis de Mirepoix, M. Blondel (chargé d'affaires), Marquis d'Hautefort, Marquis d'Aubeterre, Comte d'Estrées, Comte de Stainville, Comte de Choiseul, Comte de Châtelet, Marquis de Durfort, M. Durand (minister plenipotentiary), Prince de Rohan, Baron de Breteuil, Marquis de Noailles.

The second volume of the collection relates to Sweden, and its publication has been confided to M. Jeffroy, who has written a good introduction to the volume. He shows in it how laborious French diplomacy was during the last century. By his close alliance with Sweden, Louis XIV. had, so to speak, surrounded the Baltic and northern Germany, balanced in the north England and Holland, restrained Russia and Prussia. Louis XV. and Louis XVI. continued the same work. More than once France had recommended a Scandinavian union, a union which might have had very happy results. But this union of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway was hindered by national jealousies, as well as by the violent temper of such kings as Charles X., Gustavus, and Charles XII.

Portugal forms the subject of volume iii., a somewhat distant field for our diplomacy, but still an interesting one to us, as, by a singular fortune, France was directly mixed up with the events which prepared the political independence of Portugal in the seventeenth century, as well as with those which ended in the revival of this independence in the nineteenth century. M. de Cain de Saint-Aymour has edited this volume, and written its introduction.

Then come, in the order of their publication, Poland, in two volumes, with an introduction and notes by M. Farges; Rome (the first part, extending to 1687), with an introduction by M. Hanotaux; Bavaria, Palatinate, Deux-Ponts, with an introduction and notes by M. André Lebon.

Correspondence.

THE ANCESTRY OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following very important contribution towards the history of the Washington family has just been received from a well-known English antiquary, in friendly response to the suggestion made by Mr. Whitmore, that the aid of our English friends might confidently be looked for.

Mr. F. A. Blaydes, the editor of the *Bedfordshire Notes and Queries*, writes under date of November 8:

"Some fifteen years ago, when I was first bitten with the mania for searching registers, I have a faint recollection of finding the name Washington of frequent occurrence on some register that I went through. It was somewhere not far from Luton, but whether Toddington, Chalgrove, or Hockliffe, I cannot now say for certain. However, I forward you a few data, bearing on your work, one being a Washington marriage, which I hope will be of use.

NOTES FROM LUTON, CO. BEDS. REGISTER.

1663 Dec. 22. WASHINGTON, Mary, d. of Mr. Lawrence and Mary, bapt. [Bishop's Transcripts.]

1668 Nov. 20. FREEMAN, Mrs. Mary, d. of Mr. *Thomas* [*sic*] and Mistress Hester, bapt. [Parish Register.]

1675 Jan. 14. FREEMAN, John, son of Mr. *John* [*sic*] and Esther, bapt. [Bishop's Transcripts.]

1660 Jan. 26. WASHINGTON — JONES. Lawrence, *gen.* and Mrs. Mary, married. [Bishop's Transcripts.]

"The will of Edmund Jones of Luton, gent., dated 8 Mar., 1682 (buried in the parish church of Luton, 19 May, 1683), mentions grand-child Mary Washington, to whom he bequeaths 40 shillings. Proved at Bedford 24 June, 1689."

[It will be noted that three of these entries are from the Bishop's Transcripts of the parish records. Mr. Freeman is termed *Thomas* in the first—an undoubted error, whether made in the "Transcript" or by Mr. Blaydes in copying.]

Here we have made known to us the maiden name and parentage of the first wife of Lawrence Washington of Virginia, the dates of their marriage and of the baptism of their daughter Mary, to whom, it will be remembered, her father gave all his property in England by his last will and testament. And it should not be forgotten that it was to Edmund Jones that letters of administration on Lawrence Washington's goods in England were granted.

Two or three years ago I myself went to Luton to examine the parish registers, but, though I reached the place early in the forenoon, it was not until afternoon that I was able to get access to them. I looked rapidly over the entries down to the year 1658, inclusive, and, finding nothing, hurried back to London. At that time, I suppose, everybody believed that Lawrence Washington was married and in Virginia in 1658 and onward. It now seems doubtful when he actually settled there. I have made no thorough examination of the Feet of Fines later than those of the year 1657. They should be searched for ten years further at least. Now that we know the Christian name of his wife, any conveyance of land in or about Tring, made by Lawrence and Mary Washington, would be good evidence to prove that Lawrence of Tring and Lawrence of Luton and Virginia were one and the same. Knowing, too, the place and date of the marriage, it might be worth the while to hunt for the marriage license, with the hope to learn thence his place of nativity. If there are extant in Luton any borough or guild records, we might get help from them. If young Lawrence Washington was apprenticed to any tradesman in Luton, the book of apprenticeships in which his indenture was enrolled would undoubtedly settle the question of his parentage and place of nativity.

I would call attention to the fact that Lawrence Washington of Virginia is now shown to have married his first wife in 1660, which helps us form an opinion as to his age. Lawrence of Tring must then have been twenty-five years old, which answers very well. Let me also call renewed attention to the interesting and important part played in my story by Mr. John Freeman of Luton, whom we find having children baptized, borne by his wife Hester. It was this John Freeman of Luton whom Mrs. Elizabeth Fitzherbert, aunt of Lawrence Washington of Tring, appointed executor of her will and trustee of her real estate in Tring and Middleton Stony. His wife Hester, we have found, was a daughter of William Roades of Middle Claydon, and so a cousin of Lawrence Washington of Tring. Hither to this parish of Luton, from somewhere in England, came a young Lawrence Washington to marry his first wife, in 1660. Can any one doubt that it was from Tring that he came? If this is granted, my whole case must be allowed; for Lawrence of Luton and Lawrence of Virginia were surely one and the same, while Lawrence of Tring was clearly the son of a clergyman of the same names, and that clergyman can have been no other than the Fellow of Brasenose, whose pedigree was known. HENRY F. WATERS.

[At the risk of seeming superfluous, I venture to point out that these extracts prove the identity of Lawrence Washington of Luton, whose first wife was Mary Jones, with the emigrant to Virginia. (1.) Because Lawrence died in Virginia and his will was proved January 6, 1677. Administration was granted in May, 1677, to Edmund Jones, principal creditor, on estate of Lawrence Washington formerly of Luton, County Beds., deceased in Virginia. No one can doubt that these entries refer to the only known emigrant.

(2.) Edmund Jones is clearly the father-in-law of Lawrence, and mentions his grandchild Mary Washington. Lawrence Washington of Virginia, in his will, gives all his property in England to his daughter Mary and the heirs of her body, and, failing them, to her half-brother and sister, children of his second wife. This devise, moreover, makes it a moral certainty that Mary was an only child by the first wife, agreeing exactly with what the Luton records show.

(3.) It has been *supposed* that Lawrence came to Virginia with his brother John, about the year 1657. But this rests solely upon Gen. George Washington's statement that such was the family tradition. But George was descended from John, the brother of Lawrence, and, even at that time, a century after the emigration, the two families seem to have drifted apart. There are many Washingtons in Virginia not descended from John, who were not clearly traced even to Lawrence.

Now, Mr. Brock's citations from the Virginia Land Registry show grants to John Washington as early as 1661, in connection with Thomas Pope, but the earliest entry to Lawrence is September 27, 1667, jointly with Robert Richards. *Is there any evidence that Lawrence was here before 1667?*

If Lawrence married Mary Jones at Luton in 1660, and had a daughter Mary in December, 1663, and no other child, is it not a fair inference that the mother died soon after, and that Lawrence then turned his steps towards his brother John, already well established in Virginia, and became resident there about the date of his purchase of land in Stafford county as above cited? W. H. W.]

UNSCIENTIFIC POLITICAL THINKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An incidental remark of the reviewer of Bagehot's writings, in your issue of Novem-

ber 21, touches what is to my mind a matter of so fundamental importance as to entitle it to attention on independent grounds. There is in this country, your reviewer suggests, "more political thinking than there has been for a long time, but it is to a great extent bad thinking. It is loose and vague and highly uncritical." There are probably few thinking men who have not had this fact forced upon their attention. It is perhaps at present an opportune time to bring the matter to the consideration of the public, from the fact that no Presidential election is very imminent; for it is undeniable that the heat of a political conflict has proved anything but a favorable atmosphere for sanity and lucidity of thinking.

The vice of much current political thought—and this is a characteristic belonging to no one party as a peculiar possession—is that it takes no account of anything but the present moment, present conditions, present aspects or tendencies. Certainly the historic sense would admonish a trained student that conditions and tendencies in the past have shown constant development rather than rigidity and fixity. It would consequently seem to be only a natural inference that any hypothesis or theory should look well into the past and into the future as well as the present.

Another vice of the thinking which is so prevalent is an almost grotesquely uncritical spirit shown in the weight of authority accorded to the varying would-be expounders of political and economic principles. It is not so much that the uninstructed popular voice classes all authorities as on an equal basis and appealing with equal weight to the choice of the citizen. It is rather that when the citizen exercises a choice, it is in many cases made on so childishly irrational a basis. The loudest voices, the claims oftenest reiterated, standing "headlines" by which "vain repetitions" are made to do the duty of argument, and even the claims accompanied with loudest abuse of the opposite side—such as these are, in too many cases, treated by those who use them as if assured of their effectiveness as political weapons. Moreover, in this those who use them are probably in most instances not deceived as to their effect.

Perhaps if there is any one field in which the average citizen has thus far been more than elsewhere at the mercy of those who have counted on his failure to exercise his critical judgment and logical processes, it is that of statistics. It is certainly an encouraging fact that in all the economic and political disputation of the past decade, appeal has been so much more generally made to statistical tables and figures. It is at least an evidence that mere assertion, unaccompanied by shadow of proof, has not quite the force which it once had, and, to this extent, it may be regarded as indicating one stage at least of progress. It is, after all, however, only an intermediate stage so long as so great lack of intelligence prevails in the use of the statistics. This, however, is not strange. The science of statistics is thus far in its infancy, and this even among the class of men who have most widely explored the field of statistics. It is coming to be understood that for avoiding the perils possible to an unconsidered use of statistics, rigidly logical methods and carefully disciplined mental processes are indispensable. The diffusion of these conditions will come in time.

Yet all other faulty methods in statistical discussion have perhaps not been so productive of misleading political doctrine as the constant tendency on the part of a great multitude of men to approach the statistics with a specific preconceived theory to prove from them, rather than simply to interrogate them as to what they may be found to prove. They deliberately interpose that "subjective element" between themselves and the clear perception of the scientific truth, the separation of which Dr. von Sybel, in his admirable words on the method of historical criticism, has declared to be indispensable, "to secure the true picture of the thing as it is."

The writer is no pessimist, and has no fear for the ultimate fate of all such questions at the hands of the people, believing as he does that complete enlightenment in this matter is only a question of time. Mr. Lincoln's words are worthy of being kept constantly in mind, that even if "it is possible to fool a part of the people all the time, and all the people a part of the time," that at least is the limit. We may, I think, take a lesson from the growth of public enlightenment in this country, in another field, that of æsthetic development. To quote from a recent writer, a quarter of a century ago "the only object of a book or periodical, in America at least, was to serve as a medium for the distribution of ideas. The artistic side was ignored. Illustrations were considered good enough unless they were so bad as to startle the beholder"; but, little by little, the average American, he shows us, has "arrived at that state in which the contemplation of an ugly object" is no longer tolerable.

So, we can hardly doubt, in its slow and gradual, but steady development, will be the progressive advance of the average American to the appreciation of sound theories of government, and the result must, no doubt, in the one case as in the other, be reached by steadily familiarizing the public with sound methods.

CIVIS.

PROVIDENCE, R. I.

PROF. JOHNSTON'S WRITINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The appearance of Prof. Johnston's article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' on the History of the United States as a separate book, tempts me to raise a question which I have often had in mind. It is, whether some arrangement would not be possible by which the articles contributed by him to Lalor's 'Cyclopædia,' on the same subject, could be combined and condensed into a connected account and published as a Constitutional History of the United States?

The work of making such a connected account from the articles would not be, I think, a difficult one, and could be performed by any well furnished and careful graduate student, perhaps under some responsible supervision. The result would be a book, in its sound and level-headed opinions and criticisms, far above the plane of Von Holst or anything else that we have on the whole constitutional period. As it is, these articles of Prof. Johnston's have by no means their legitimate influence. A very large proportion of the people who would gladly use them do not know of their existence, and (by no means least of all) there is sad need of such a book in the college work of the country.

PRESTON.

THE EAST IN THE WEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From time to time the columns of the *Nation* have been open to correspondents upon the topic of foreign (usually English) ignorance of America. It is all very amusing and strange, but not quite so amusing and strange as the frequent exhibition of ignorance by enlightened people of the social conditions that obtain in the "West." It may be premised that the "West" is a rather large place. In what follows I shall not attempt to embrace under that name more than the Mississippi Valley. Somewhat as a foreigner uses "America," when he really means a half-dozen large cities in the United States, so Eastern people use the word "West" when they really mean a half-dozen cities on the further side of the Alleghenies.

A case in point is contained in a recent issue of the *Nation* under the caption, "A Good Farm for Nothing." The writer takes occasion to institute a comparison between the rural New England of fifty or a hundred years ago and the rural West of to-day. If the opinion there expressed were confined to one individual, or to one community, it could afford to be overlooked; but there is reason for believing that it is the opinion of a majority of the intelligent and reminiscent East. Contempt for Western civilization is so frequently expressed in Eastern magazines and newspapers that it is a matter of surprise to find that an appreciative writer, like Charles Dudley Warner, can tell the truth at all. It is to mildly protest against this false conception—and, incidentally, to defend the Western hog—that this is written.

Let Judge Nott's words be recalled:

> "What we do know is, first, that the old nursery of good and great and useful men is, under existing causes, being destroyed. . . . Second, that there is no rural New England in the West rearing a posterity worthy of the old stock; that the youth who was starved out of his birthplace . . . has not been replaced there by a wiser or a better man, and that in his new habitat material wealth has been his only gain."

This would be sad if it were entirely true. It is quite in the vein of Matthew Arnold's characterization of all "Americans" as "too beastly prosperous." The climax is reached in the assertion that the Western-bound youth departs with this (in italics) sounding in his ears: "Go West, young man, go West, to make money to buy land to grow corn to fat hogs to make more money to buy more land to grow more corn to fat more hogs." This would be desperately sad if it were not one of those rhetorical half-truths which have all the attributes of ubiquity and immortality peculiar to fallen angels. This, too, reminds one of Arnold, and one expects something about the materialism and vulgarity of a civilization which submits to such names as Kankakee, Kalamazoo, and Oshkosh. The reviewer of Miss Alcott's life, in the same number of the *Nation* with the article under discussion, could not forbear quoting a passage in which the latter city appears to disadvantage.

It needs to be stated that these towns are not the centres of civilization in the West, but that they will compare favorably with manufacturing New England towns of 10,000 to 25,000 people. For 500 miles westward from Kankakee and 300 south and 300 east, however, do we find somewhat of the rural West. In this immense domain luxuriates the hog-raising farmer. It is doubtful if in all this region there is a farm without its hogs. Many of the farmers have grown rich in the process by repeating it again and again. If so, do they differ from any other successful class? Food and raiment are the primal wants of the race. The New Englander for several generations has been meeting the second want. Shall he gibe at the man who provides the first and go unrebuked? The American hog, as Western breeding has perfected it, is quite as much a blessing to humanity as the great inventions—the steam engine, the cotton gin, the telegraph. He is the most economical machine yet produced for

making cheap and nutritious food. A Western Poland-China makes the most possible hog on the least possible food in the shortest possible space of time. Making clothes, or literature, or interpreting laws may be cleaner undertakings than making hogs, but it may be questioned if the latter is not just as honorable and just as necessary for the welfare of society as the former; and by as much as food is more than raiment, by so much is the Western farmer to be esteemed above the Eastern manufacturer.

If we take three of the foremost hog-growing States, Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa, the statistics of the last census indicate that the traits that were most admirable in New England rural life—intelligence and piety, plain living and high thinking—are as characteristic of their inhabitants as they were of those of New England fifty years ago. The indications are that for every abandoned church and school back yonder, two at least have sprung up out here. Actual life in one of these States leads me to believe that *in a multitude of ways the old life is lived over again under slightly altered conditions.* Are these people lacking in intelligence? What, in addition to a public-school system that puts a school-house every two miles along the highways, mean the 35 colleges and universities in Ohio, with 350 instructors and 6,000 students; 15 in Illinois, with 300 instructors and 5,000 students; 17 in Iowa, with 200 instructors and 3,000 students? It is readily conceded that the name is sometimes too large for the institutions, and that they are petty affairs compared with the magnificent schools of the New England of to-day. Ah! but we are talking now of the rural New England of the past. The same divine fire that planted Harvard and Yale and Dartmouth was present at the founding of these—it was New England's "starved-out" youth, who had gone West to "grow hogs," who founded them. And even the least of them offer facilities quite equal to those which produced a Webster. I apprehend that Oberlin, and Wabash, and Beloit, and Iowa Colleges are to-day better equipped, exercise a wider influence, and graduate quite as intelligent classes as did Williams in the days of Dr. Hopkins's Presidency.

These institutions are types of the New England colleges of our fathers' and grandfathers' time. In them do we find the same fervid piety, the same number of earnest young men studying for the ministry (often as high as 50 per cent.), and the same simplicity of life. As yet, college dissipation and extravagance have not been made a fine art. It is in the States I have named that is found the transplanted New England race with its fire unabated. Here it is that white houses with green blinds, maple trees before the door, red barns, and churches everywhere (6,700 in Illinois, 3,300 in Iowa), proclaim the presence of the old race and the old stock. Here it is that a posterity is being reared worthy of their ancestors. If the youth was "starved out" of his birthplace, it was a kindly fate, for here, indeed, he is "doing better," and gaining much in addition to his material success. "He makes money to buy land to grow corn to fat hogs," in order that he may surround himself and family with the comforts of a home which the scanty soil and bleak hillsides we wot of too often denied to his forefather—a home in which books and pictures and music are not strangers. He builds railroads to help him market his product, to bring himself and his within reach of the quickening influences of the daily mail and the telegraph, and to facilitate intercourse with his fellowmen. Isolation, the curse of farm life, is to be banished as far as may be.

The "West" needs not to hide her head because of any lack of richness in human products. Let Ohio's long and great list of foremost actors in the late civil war attest their patriotism. The social conditions which produced a Lincoln need to yield nothing to a people who can think of Webster as the statesman ideal. Webster? An orator indeed, but whose manhood was not high, not pure, not noble.

I have a belief that the race that has left the New England hills still lives, is still as great as in its old home, and that the Mississippi Valley is to-day a nursery of good and useful men, many of them destined to be great. I have a fancy that comfort and peace and plenty for all—the dreams of every idealist from Plato to Bellamy, the things for which humanity through many weary centuries has toiled with but indifferent results—has been attained in no land, no clime, with greater success than in the "great West."

THEODORE JESSUP.

BALDWIN, WIS., November 27, 1889.

Notes.

A NEW volume of poems by Robert Browning, no fewer than thirty, will be published this month by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., under the title, 'Asolando: Fancies and Facts.' They will shortly issue also 'Portraits of Friends,' by Principal Shairp.

Mr. John Bigelow's edition of Franklin's Autobiography has been put into the form of the Knickerbocker Nuggets series of the Messrs. Putnam. This pocket size is, on the whole, the most becoming to it, and its pretty dress likewise; and that an index much above the average has been provided is a still further recommendation.

The bound volume of *Harper's Young People* for 1889 does not obviously differ from its predecessors in any respect. Several of the continued stories in it have already been republished as books. One observes the customary number of articles which seem not calculated for youthful readers, but for their elders, like the paper on the vocal training of children, as well as many which imply a pretty mature understanding and age; so that we think the editor might well try the experiment of insinuating some advice about the cultivation of the mind through reading and study—but this field is quite neglected. On the other hand, we think that with articles on "Boys Who Became Famous," and portraits of living heroines, champions, prodigies, and even of correspondents, quite enough is done to foster a precocious love of notoriety.

The monthly magazine *Babyhood* (New York: Babyhood Publishing Company) concluded last month its fifth volume and year, and remains a solid comfort for young mothers—a sort of mothers' exchange—under capable medical and literary direction. Not a few of the contributed papers, like "Botany for the Little Ones," or "Children of the Bush," "The Musical Education," or even "The Dressing of Simple Wounds," might have appeared in *Harper's Young People* or *St. Nicholas.*

Mr. Philip G. Hubert, jr., has compiled a rather sumptuous 'Nursery Lesson Book: A Guide for Mothers in Teaching Young Children' (Putnams). It is designed to stimulate curiosity and attention, and to facilitate learning to read, draw, and cipher. The suggestions are sensible if not original. A number of nursery songs, with music, from a well-known English collection, are inserted.

Josephine Pollard's 'Plays and Games for Little Folks' (McLoughlin Bros.) is in the main an excellent collection, very prettily printed and adorned, and falls into three divisions of "Sports of all Sorts," "Fireside Fun," and "Singing Games" (with the music, of course). "To place wine under a hat and to drink it without touching the hat," is no doubt practicable, as shown, but it is a dangerous experiment for children. A glass of water would serve the purpose. And in a book of games for children, "men and women sit alternately in a circle" where we should look for boys and girls.

More elegant as a book, and both like and different in its contents, is 'Kate Greenaway's Book of Games,' illustrated in colors in her usual dainty fashion. Tops, hoops, ball, marbles, kites, and dolls, battledore and shuttlecock, swings, soap-bubbles, are lightly touched upon.

Raphael Tuck & Sons send us a number of their holiday publications in color, of which we can only specify two delicate little calendars, one "from Pekin" with Chinese *motifs*, by J. Pauline Sunter, and one, not inferior, by Harriett M. Bennett; two books of verse, 'Tiny Toddlers,' and 'Golden Days and Silver Eves,' in which good designs and mediocre mingle on an even footing; and 'Character Sketches from Charles Dickens,' without subtlety or elevation.

Mr. Ruskin has, we believe, decided objections to any American reprint of his works. So far as this wish is disregarded, we presume he would be less annoyed by a fine than by a shabby presentation, and Messrs. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have gone far by way of propitiation in their well-proportioned and well-printed edition of the 'Sesame and Lilies.'

The second volume or series of the *Bookworm* (London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son) continues to be a scrap-book in which hardly anything exceeds half-a-dozen pages in length, and the unexpected may be looked for at every turn of the leaf. Superficialities about Thomas Bewick, Albert Dürer, Rowlandson, Bernard Quaritch, the Elzevirs, Swiftiana, French bookbinding, Goldsmith's 'Citizen of the World,' John Newbery, hornbooks, Drayton's 'Polyolbion,' Bailey's 'Dictionary,' the Greek chorus and Parthenon, literary anachronisms, etc., mingle with all sorts of paragraphs relating to books or literature. Cuts old and new abound, and the typography leaves nothing to be desired.

The critical apparatus for the study of the Japanese language receives an important addition in the publication, by Messrs. Trübner & Co. of London, and Kelly & Walsh of Yokohama, of Mr. J. H. Gubbins's 'Dictionary of Chinese-Japanese Words,' Part I., pp. 325, A.–J. It is so clearly arranged and so well printed that even the beginner can use it easily. The work is especially strong in the vocabulary that has come into vogue since the introduction of Occidental ideas.

In 'Les Artistes littéraires: Études sur le XIXe siècle' (Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), M. Maurice Spronck considers the writings of a group of recent French authors whom he declares to be not popular, and preëminently artistic in their effort after perfection of form. Those of us who have read what M. Brunetière, M. Jules Lemaitre, and M. Émile Faguet, one or another, have said about Gautier, Baudelaire, the Goncourts, Flaubert, Banville, and Leconte de Lisle, may be interested in what can be adduced in their behalf by an admirer. But although M. Spronck comes to praise, his eulogy is never very hearty. Apparently he likes these literary artists more in his heart than in his head he approves of them. His book is not without interest.

It has always been a matter of wonder to those Americans who studied French literature, and who were curious as to the attitude of French critics, that so little was known in France about Hawthorne, while Poe was so widely praised. Poe's position was due chiefly to the praise of his disciple Baudelaire, while Hawthorne has lacked even a good translator. M. Paul Masson now announces that he proposes to publish, in the *Revue Bleue*, translations of all Hawthorne's short stories, the 'Twice-Told Tales,' and the 'Mosses from an Old Manse'; and in the number for November 16 he begins the series with "La Fiancée du Shaker."

In one of the most manly letters we have ever seen, M. Francisque Sarcey announces his final decision not to apply for admission to the French Academy. Certain of his friends among the immortal forty had urged him to come forward as a candidate for the chair now made vacant by the death of Émile Augier. One of the first duties of a new Academician being to pronounce the eulogy of his predecessor, no more fit choice could be made than that of the foremost dramatic critic of France and of our time. M. Sarcey's reason for declining an honor he highly appreciates is that even a candidature would possibly, indeed probably, give grounds for doubting the absolute disinterestedness of his dramatic criticisms. There are a dozen dramatic authors in the Academy. M. Sarcey declares that his influence is due wholly to the belief that he always speaks his mind freely, and he is unwilling to do anything which might cast a doubt on his perfect independence. He is proud of his profession, and his letter, which is not without its pathos, declares that he hopes to have on his tomb only this inscription: "SARCEY: Professeur et Journaliste."

Volume xliii of section 2 of Ersch and Gruber's 'Encyklopädie' begins with "Leibeigenschaft" and ends with "Ligatur." The longest articles are on Leibnitz (10 pp.), Lessing (10), Leipzig (11), battles of Leipzig (14). The Byzantine Emperors and the Popes named Leo require 18 pages, while 42 are needed for the German emperors and other kings and princes Leopold. Leopardi, Leicester, Leroux, Lesage, and many other biographical notices are treated more briefly. There are some omissions to be noted, mostly in English and American subjects, which are a weak spot in the most learned German books; such as Jacob Leisler, John Leland, all the Leslies, Sir Roger L'Estrange, John Leyden, etc. Although most of these are not very important, one expects to find them at least mentioned in what is undoubtedly the most extensive encyclopædia ever published outside of China.

If he receive sufficient support, Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., will issue in January a quarterly *New England Notes and Queries*, a medium of intercommunication for historical and genealogical students.

The first volume of a serial bearing the title of *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, edited by a committee of the classical instructors of Harvard University, will be published early this month. It is the expectation that one volume, containing about 200 octavo pages, will be issued each year. The contributors will be, for the most part, instructors in the University or graduates from it, but contributions of other scholars will not be absolutely excluded. Any correspondence respecting contributions should be addressed to Prof. J. B. Greenough, Prof. J. W. White, or Prof. F. D. Allen, Cambridge, Mass. Subscriptions—one dollar, four marks, or five francs a volume—may be sent to Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig, Germany, or to Ginn & Co., 57 and 59 Ludgate Hill, London, E. C., and Boston, New York, and Chicago.

The *Arena* is a new monthly magazine begun in Boston with the current month. Poverty is, to judge from the first number, to form a large part of the burden of its discussions; but the theologians, too, are not going to have an easy time of it. The number of Unitarian clergymen in the present table of contents is significant.

The Rev. Dr. Edward D. Neill leads off the *Macalester College Contributions* (Department of History, Literature, and Political Science) with a paper on the Virginia Governors under the London Company (St. Paul, Minn.).

A very interesting drawing is now on view at the rooms of the Royal Astronomical Society, London. It is a large and detailed delineation of the Milky Way, upon which Dr. Otto Baeddicker of Lord Rosse's Observatory has been at work for five years.

The report of the Bureau of Education for 1886-7 (the last published) gives the statistics of bequests and gifts to institutions of learning for that year. The entire sum given amounts to nearly five millions of dollars, and of that amount Harvard receives an even fifth. The whole amount given to institutions for the education of women alone is a paltry $53,000—for Mills Seminary, California. But this is not the worst of it. Four hundred thousand dollars, roughly, were contributed by women, and even of this sum a whole half was devoted to the education of men alone, the rest being given to schools for both sexes, chiefly to schools for secondary instruction. The amount of money which women can call their own is very small, and of the pittance which they can give away, it does seem deplorable that they should feel called upon to lavish a whole half, not upon men and women jointly but upon men to the exclusion of women. That they have not yet changed their plan of campaign is shown by the fact that it is a woman, Mrs. Caroline Donovan, who has just given a hundred thousand dollars to the Johns Hopkins University. Is there never to be a limit to the amount of self-forgetfulness which the Selfish Sex is willing to accept from the Unselfish Sex?

The Association of Collegiate Alumnæ is desirous of establishing a European fellowship, to be held each year by that woman college graduate who shows herself to be most deserving of receiving it, the award to be made by a committee appointed by the Association. Nearly enough annual subscriptions have already been received from the alumnæ themselves to start the project, but they desire to collect a fund of $10,000 in order to put it on a permanent basis. Contributions may be sent to Mrs. C. L. Franklin, 1400 Linden Avenue, Baltimore.

—The *Atlantic* for December opens with an Old Boston paper upon the colonial hostelry under the sign of the Bunch of Grapes, from Mr. Bynner's faithful and sympathetic pen; and, the scantiness of his materials being considered, he has certainly made the most of his story. The tavern had a hundred years of prosperity, and counts among its figures many of the famous men of the old Province and the rising nation, from Sam Sewall to Lafayette. The leaf of local history was well worth preserving, and it is prettily illuminated by Mr. Bynner's knowledge of colonial details. A specially timely article is furnished by Mr. Lawton, in connection with the awakened interest in Delphi occasioned by the project for the excavation of the site by the American School at Athens. He deals with the religious traditions of the locality, and in a general way with the political influence of the oracle, and will follow up this preliminary essay with one of more definite and greater historical interest. The Congress of All-America now sitting suggests the subject of Mr. Albert G. Browne's reminder of the important differences between the Latin and Saxon communities in this hemisphere, from which he argues very unfavorably for the hopes of close amity and intimacy between them, and reinforces his warning from the never-aging Farewell Address of Washington. Mr. Van Brunt writes a very interesting article on the prospects and practice of the art of architecture in the West, with a very hopeful feeling that the outcome will be good when the time of experiment and research is over. The remainder of the papers are all excellent, and touch upon a variety of subjects.

—*Harper's* Christmas number is, as usual, very richly illustrated with many full-page cuts. The distinctive Christmas art-subject is the Flight into Egypt, and is variously set forth with an admirable selection of the great works upon this motive in both Northern and Southern and mediæval and modern art. Mr. Child contributes a second art-paper upon the modern work of Russia, which he illustrates plentifully; but there remains something alien in its form which makes it seem distinctly foreign, and one misses in it any great imaginative or intellectual force. The designs by Abbey in illustration of the "Merry Wives of Windsor" easily hold the first place in interest, and they are excellent even beyond this artist's usual work, several of them being remarkable—though perhaps, when at their best, too much refined. The text by Mr. Lang, made prominent by a displeasing largeness of type, seems to us exceedingly poor work. The rest of the number is occupied with stories, not especially written for the holidays, and none the worse for that; but none of them represent their authors at their best. Mr. Hardy's "First Countess of Wessex," notwithstanding one or two powerful situations and a strong handling of the Squire's character, is unpleasant throughout, and in its conclusion is not without a certain worldly cynicism. Miss Wilkins contributes a Christmas tale in the traditional manner. Mr. Millet's production depends for its interest on a peculiar incident. Miss Jewett easily leads the rest in a portrait of an old sea-captain with the attendant village gossips; but the vein is not her happiest.

—*Scribner's* observes the season by an interesting and, we may hope, a useful paper upon the poor of this city, with illustrations that recall the aspects of European poverty. The text is excellent, both in matter and in tone, and is not so discouraging as it might naturally have been made. The great necessity of encouraging and developing all charitable enterprises, in order to meet the enormous evils bred under the conditions of the growth of the city, is emphasized in a dozen different ways, and brought before the public most effectively by a speaking survey of facts without any weakening touch of moralizing philanthropy. The interior views of the lodging-houses and some street scenes are the most striking, but the writer has succeeded in giving an impression rather of the social conditions of these nests than of the actual physical suffering and moral degradation of the individuals. The second notable article is Mr. Mitchell's account of the growth and present condition of the art of caricature in America, the illustrations of which are admirably selected. The two stories are both in

the worst sensational taste, disagreeable in subject and unprofitable examples of vulgarity; neither is there anything in the tone of the writers or their art to extenuate the offence against good taste. Some illustrations of Breton life adorn the number, and Mr. Frederic's serial maintains its interest, though the story is too long delayed in deploying the figures on the Dutch background.

—The portraits of Wellington in the *Century* distinguish the number, and those of his young friends are interesting in themselves and in connection with his brief notes, which illustrate the child-loving side of the old General's nature. Mr. Joseph Jefferson's autobiography goes on in that peculiar style which seems to belong to theatrical memoirs, and makes them appear as if written by one old-fashioned hand, and the illustrations have the same traditional air. A third curious set of illustrations is given in connection with the description of the Panorama of the Nineteenth Century exhibited at the Paris Exposition, but the portraits are ineffective in consequence of their diminutive size. The solid article is upon the New Croton Aqueduct; the scale of the work and the immense physical labor involved in it are well given by the cuts, and the text is sufficient for its purpose. The scenery and properties of Japan are used to vary the style of the illustrations, and the paper accompanying these designs is instructive upon more serious topics than are suggested by them. The Lincoln biography takes up the episode of the President's entry into Richmond and his negotiations with regard to the meeting of the Virginia Legislature. Prof. Fisher discusses the position of the Bible in the Protestant religion as modified by the criticism and scholarship of this century, and advances his view that it is to be regarded as a result rather than the primary source of the religious life. The diminution of its authority allowed by him is of the slightest, but the change of perspective which he would make can hardly be adopted without loss on the supernatural side.

— The popular furor for Millet's "Angelus" naturally excites interest in its name. The first occurrence of the word thus far discovered in an English book is in Chambers's Cyclopædia of 1727. But no literary man used it before Longfellow, a hundred and twenty years after, in "Evangeline." These facts could not be known but for researches the results of which are shown under the word Angelus in the dictionary of the Philological Society now in the course of publication by Dr. Murray, who says that Angelus is "incorrectly explained" by Chambers. One at least of Dr. Murray's own illustrative citations, which asserts that "the Angelus did not come into use before the beginning of the sixteenth century," is also clearly incorrect. More than a century and a half before the year 1500, Popes and councils had combined by appeals to both hope and fear to enforce the ringing of the Angelus bell and the offering of the Angelus prayer. Thus, in 1347 a church council (*Concilum Senonense* [Sens]) ordained that an ordinance before made by Pope John XXII. (1316–1334) concerning saying the Ave Maria three times at the hour of curfew (*ignitegii*), should be inviolably observed. It ordered that the church bells should sound at the hour of curfew, and that parishioners should be charged, at this bell-stroke, on bended knees, to repeat the angels' salutation to the glorious Virgin Mary, thus gaining ten days' indulgence (*Et ex hoc lucrantur decem dies indulgentiæ*). In 1369 it was ordained that at dawn (*in aurora diei*) there should be three bell-strokes, and that whoever hearing said three aves and as many paternosters should obtain twenty days' indulgence (*in remissionem suorum peccaminum*). In 1472 Louis XI. ordered the Angelus to be repeated three times a day, and obtained a papal decree that whoever obeyed the order should thereby acquire three hundred additional days of indulgence. This threefold daily Angelus had also been recommended as early as 1423 in Mainz and Cologne; in Breslau in 1416, etc. These facts, condensed from an article on the Angelus, written more than two centuries ago by the accurate DuCange, prove the usage much more ancient than Dr. Murray would lead us to suppose. That the name was derived from the first words of the prayer, namely, *Angelus Domini nuntiavit Mariæ*, must be clear to every one at first sight of this salutatory service.

—The shocking murder of Mr. Edward Cunningham of Milton, Mass., on his own grounds by armed poachers, on November 21, removes a man of rare grace and strength of character, whose fearlessness, indeed, was the immediate cause of his death. An old China merchant, some forty years ago, who had faced at the risk of his life a furious Chinese mob, he knew how to esteem this despised people for their true worth. In California he publicly came out in their defence against shameful persecution which had the open or secret approval of the class in which he moved. With a like independence, as some of our readers will remember, he exposed in these columns the discreditable treaty of 1881 with China. "Our memory of him," says one who knew him most intimately, "will cling to the characteristics of the man—his unswerving kindness to all around him, high or low, whether of his own kin or not, especially the weak and suffering who needed his sympathy; and the unfailing cheerfulness with which he carried the burdens which a keen sense of duty led him to take up." "Without the slightest pretension of general philanthropy," he had "that very uncommon weakness which always led him to restrict himself in his own tastes in order to supply the necessities of others who came within his rather far-reaching circle." Mr. Cunningham was an infrequent but highly valued contributor to the literary department of the *Nation*.

—Vendôme was originally a Gallic oppidum, replaced later by a feudal castle, around which the modern town has arisen. It gave the name in the tenth century to an independent county, which, in 1515, was raised to a duchy. It is now in the Department of Loir-et-Cher, and the canton and commune still perpetuate the name. For Americans perhaps its greatest interest lies in the fact that it was the birthplace, home, and burial-place of the Rochambeau who led the French troops sent to help us in the war of the Revolution, as it had been of his ancestors and as it still is of his successors. The present representative of the family, owner of the Château de Rochambeau, is well known in this country, as he paid us two visits—one as a representative of the French Government to the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876, and again in 1881 as one of the delegation of the descendants and representatives of French officers of our Revolutionary War, invited to the Yorktown Centennial. His archæological studies, pursued for twenty years, have just resulted in the first volume of a work, 'Le Vendomois: Épigraphie et Iconographie' (Paris: Champion), which is a very complete local history, canton by canton, commune by commune, and throws a curious light on many points of interest to students of history and of art. The present volume has many interesting drawings of churches and other ecclesiastical works, and some good examples of well-preserved domestic buildings, for châteaux have fared better in France than churches, and restoration has dealt more kindly with the lay than with the church properties. Few old families remain in possession of their ancestral homes, but there are still many of the old names referred to in this volume which have lineages going back to the crusades, while not a few historic names are borne by peasants and small farmers, still mindful of their old rights and privileges. Glatigny, the ancestral home of the family of Du Bellay, Princes d'Yvetot, still well preserved by its present owner, and an admirable example of the domestic architecture of the sixteenth century, is fully described.

— The Royal Astronomical Society has issued stringent instructions for observing the coming total solar eclipse to two astronomers some thousands of miles away. Eclipse observers are apt to be novices, as it is difficult to secure the same person for more than two or three occasions at most. Those who stay at home know well what should be done at the rare and swiftly passing moments of totality; it is the unpractised observer who forgets so much when the wonderful spectacle of the outflashing corona thrills his pulses. Accordingly, the programme for each individual should be simple and strictly adhered to. In the present instance, the Royal Astronomical Society hopes, if the weather is favorable, to clear up one or two doubtful questions: (1) whether the photographed corona changes perceptibly in two hours and a half; (2) whether the supposed "extension" of the corona is a solar appendage, or diffused light from the sky; (3) what is the photometric intensity of the corona at different points. Rev. S. J. Perry, F.R.S., has been detailed for a station at the Salut Isles, and Mr. Albert Taylor will soon land at Loanda in West Africa, establishing himself about sixty miles south of Professor Todd's party. By a comparison of the two sets of plates taken by Father Perry and those made by Mr. Taylor, questions 1 and 2 may be settled, while question 3 merely involves placing beforehand on each plate a set of standard photographic squares. These were described by Captain Abney to the Photographic Society in 1885, and have been used since by Mr. Pickering in Grenada in 1887, and also in California on January first of the present year. The coming eclipse will be followed by an interval of four years in which none will occur. It is the last of a tolerably rapid succession of important total eclipses.

WELLS'S RECENT ECONOMIC CHANGES.

Recent Economic Changes and their Effect on the Production and Distribution of Wealth and the Well-Being of Society. By David A. Wells, LL.D., D.C.L. D. Appleton & Co. 1889.

No one deserves to be called a statistician unless he can make figures interesting; and if Mr. Wells were to be judged by this criterion alone, he would be assigned a place among the highest. It might almost be said that under his hands figures themselves lose half their evil in losing all their dryness; yet, however indispensable this power may be, it constitutes but a small part of his qualifications. Many persons who deal with figures are imperfectly acquainted with political economy, and many economists have little experience in business. Mr. Wells, however, is not only an economist, but also a man of affairs; he has the necessary

data for economic deductions at his command, the wisdom requisite to perceive their significance, and the ability to make the most effective use of all his materials. His previous works have secured him distinction, but the subjects discussed in them have been in the main of a character to interest special classes rather than the general public. This volume, on the other hand, appeals to all mankind. No one, however well informed, can fail to add much to his knowledge by reading it, and the most impassive must be thrilled by accounts of human achievements that surpass the wonders accomplished by the genii of the Arabian Nights.

It is, indeed, quite possible that many readers will be content to follow Mr. Wells's narrative of the facts of the industrial progress of modern times, without concerning themselves much with his argument. Most people know in a general way that great changes have taken place within a generation, that there have been important inventions and discoveries, that many run to and fro, and knowledge is increased. Very few know definitely what the nature of these changes has been, how completely the new order has displaced the old, how swiftly and how extensively the results of inventive progress have become manifest. For information of this kind, accurately stated and systematically displayed, we know of nothing to compare with this book. It is as full of facts as an encyclopædia and as fascinating as a romance. It presents a capital instance of the use of the imagination in science, not glorifying "all-inventive man" after the fashion of the chorus in the "Alcestis" of Euripides, but showing how rationally we may consider "that which he has done but earnest of the things which he shall do."

If the aim of the author were only to astound his readers by revealing to them the prodigious advances of the present age, and the boundless possibilities of the future, he must be held to have amply succeeded. It would be easy to fill our space with illustrations of his skill in marshalling facts in the most telling way, as when he mentions, in speaking of the cheapening of ocean freights, that it has been computed that "half a sheet of note-paper will develop sufficient power, when burned in connection with the triple-expansion engine, to carry a ton a mile in an Atlantic steamer." Equally effective in the discussion of the future supply of food is the use made of Mr. Atkinson's calculation that the present wheat crop of the United States could be grown upon wheat land of the best quality selected from that part of the area of the State of Texas by which that single State exceeds the present area of the German Empire. But it is the cumulative effect of multiplied instances of this kind that gives its overwhelming force to Mr. Wells's argument, and of this effect quotations can give no idea.

The outline of the argument is as follows: For the last twenty years trade has been universally depressed or disturbed, which implies the existence of a cause universal in its influence. This cause is overproduction, in the sense of production in excess of demand at remunerative prices to the producer. It is owing to this cause, and not to a scarcity of gold, that prices have declined, that laborers are displaced by machines, and the profits of capital have diminished. The value of things, as Henry C. Carey used to maintain, is not determined by the cost of production, but by the cost of reproduction; and, measured in this way, vast quantities of fixed capital have been made worthless by improved processes. No one can engage in a manufacture without running the risk of finding himself suddenly working at a loss, owing to the application of labor-saving inventions. Consumers, however, have been benefited—the laboring class, considering its increase in numbers, as much as any; the capitalists, considering the fall in the rate of interest, the least of all. It is the incessant readjustment to new conditions that causes the present discontent, and not any deterioration in the welfare of mankind. The social troubles that arise are necessarily connected with our unparalleled progress, and are not due to any defect in our institutions. As society becomes accustomed to its rapid pace, these troubles will settle themselves; nor is it impossible to foresee how a readjustment of industrial relations in the line of greater freedom for individual enterprise may take place.

We have said enough of the splendid array of illustrations which Mr. Wells brings to his subject, and his argument in the main amounts to a demonstration. In our opinion it would have been improved, however, had he used throughout, as he does occasionally, the terms "disturbance" in place of "depression," and "cheaper production" in place of "overproduction." As he shows by manifold proofs, there has been no depression, but a vast increase, of trade in the period of which he treats, and he recognizes the truth that universal overproduction is an absurd idea. There is some reason to think that the author himself has been unconsciously affected by this confusion of terms if we compare the statement on p. 175, that there has been an almost universal complaint of the absence of all profit in producing wheat, with the note to p. 177; and the figures showing the cost of producing wheat in California, p. 172, and those on the preceding pages relating to the increase of production. Why, if there was no profit in it, did the product of Dakota rise from nothing in 1881 to 62,000,000 bushels in 1887? A minor inconsistency as to the wages of farm-hands in England is to be noted in comparing p. 88 with pp. 85, 353, and 407.

It would be an agreeable task, did our space permit, to give some account of Mr. Wells's exposition of the distinguished success in discouraging trade which has attended the protective policy of various European governments, and especially of his brilliant and entertaining narrative of their dealings with the sugar industry—the result being in the case of Germany, as Prof. Sumner puts it, that "the Germans have the industry and the English have the sugar." But it is impossible to call attention to all that is meritorious in so many-sided a book as this, and we must content ourselves with advising every one who wishes to understand our modern world of trade to buy it and study it. We have noted errors, probably due to careless proof-reading, on pp. 44, 144, 146, 189, 201, 391, 398, and 412. As it is probable that several editions of the book will be called for, these defects should be removed.

BERING.

Vitus Bering, the Discoverer of Bering Strait. By Peter Lauridsen. Revised by the author and translated from the Danish by Julius E. Olson. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xvi., 223. Illustrated.

THIS book is a misnomer, since Bering Strait was discovered by Simeon Deshneff, nearly sixty years before it was entered by Bering, and its author is of the opinion that Bering himself was well aware of the discoveries of Deshneff, and even directed the attention of Müller, the geographer, to the records of the expedition in the archives of Yakutsk. Why he should claim the discovery for Bering is incomprehensible, but perhaps not more so than several other features of the book, as will shortly appear.

A good life of Bering has always been a desideratum. As the first educated officer to take command of explorations in those seas, his figure can but be conspicuous. That such a life has not been attempted in the country which he served, is probably accounted for by the fact that, after having toiled and suffered untold privations in the preparation for each of his expeditions, when the tide was at the flood and the fateful hour arrived, the hard-sought opportunity invariably slipped from his fingers. His voyages offer a spectacle of Herculean endeavor on the one hand and of pitiable anti-climax on the other. "Parturiunt montes" might have been his motto. Nobody likes such a subject for literary art, at least in biography, however otherwise amiable, honest, and pious, or hard-working; though very human, it is wretchedly inartistic in one's hero to do little when he might have done much, to turn his back on doors hospitably open, to shut his eyes to the apples of the Hesperides after he has slain the dragon—all without any perceptible motive or reason except the incapacity for striking when the iron was hot.

Some of the author's hypercritical comments in the Danish edition on the first Arctic explorer of our time have been very temperately answered by Baron Nordenskiöld in the Journal of the American Geographical Society (vol. xvii., New York, 1885, p. 267). In this reply the Baron, with that kindness which should always be accorded the unfortunate, suggests that the incapacity shown by Bering during his last expedition was due to the fact that he was ill of scurvy. Doubtless this did aggravate his natural defects, but it is sufficiently evident from Mr. Lauridsen's account of him, without going further, that the Russians, who knew him best, are practically unanimous in the opinion that there was a streak of indecision and feebleness in Bering's otherwise admirable character which was exhibited in all his undertakings. It certainly was as obvious in his first voyage as in his last. It is very true, nevertheless, that the dislike which such weakness engenders in the observer may have operated, and probably did operate, to render the estimate of Bering by his contemporaries unjustly low, and that it is but equitable to review the case before their judgment becomes irrevocable by lapse of time.

Herr Lauridsen, through the patronage of a Danish institution of learning, was enabled to visit St. Petersburg to prepare himself for writing the present work. He seems to have been a good deal surprised to find that the books and manuscript records relating to the explorer were in the Russian language (p. xv); but, by the kind intervention of the Director of the Hydrographic Department, translations were made for him. So far as the book itself indicates, his material has been obtained from printed sources; its chief value is in presenting in English some important data hitherto veiled under the obscurity of the Russian tongue. Of original research the work offers little, unless the correlation of matter as above obtained can be so named.

If Herr Lauridsen's preparation for original work in the Russian archives was not of a serious character, he at least was well adapted for polemics. Though an ordinary person making no pretensions to historical research, in compiling a synopsis of the progress of Russian discovery, might consider himself justified in depending on the official maps of the Imperial Academy of Sciences and the officially

published records of surviving members of the expeditions concerned, he would receive no mercy from this gentleman, who cannot understand how a bay could exist between points as far apart as "Copenhagen and Bremen." It is even forbidden to say that Bering "took to his bed," since this indicates (p. 152) that that necessary action is considered as "a kind of crime." As Gerhard Friedrich Staatsrath von Müller was the historian of the expeditions, he comes in for much upbraiding and dark insinuation, though perhaps less than is dispensed to those who have innocently quoted him as an authority. An amusing instance of this occurs in the matter of the maps of the first expedition to Bering Strait, of which Herr Lauridsen gives reproductions, taken from D'Anville and Müller. He has denounced (pp. 45-49) the map of Müller with great vehemence while praising the work of Bering upon which it was chiefly based. Now, the only essential difference between the two maps in the delineation of the shores of the Tchuktchi Peninsula is this: On Bering's map the northern coast, which he had not visited, is represented as projecting in a great cape which has four islands off the end of it. On Müller's map this cape is expanded with broken lines in a circular manner (after an old fashion of cartographers when a coast was unknown), and bears the legend, "Extent unknown." As no such cape or islands exist, and the shore does not project in this vicinity, it is evident that Müller has the best of it, in spite of our author. Again, he accuses Müller of misplacing on his chart the name of the Tchukotskoi Cape with a desire to injure Bering (p. 44), while on page 32 he admits that Bering did not mention the name in his journal, and on the other hand we know that the word merely means the Cape of the Tchuktchis, and was variously applied by the adventurers in that part of the world.

To do the work of a biographer in this case it is needed that one should be able to read Russian, should have a knowledge of old-fashioned nautical methods and terms, and be familiar with the best modern charts of the region. In none of these particulars was Herr Lauridsen properly qualified for his task. We even find him attempting to prove Bering's landfall on Kayak Island at great length, a decision which has been the common property of cartographers since Sokoloff, the distinguished naval historian of Russia, first published a facsimile of Khitroff's chart in 1851 (Zapiski, Hydr. Dept. ix, p. 191, pl. ix) down to the Alaska Coast Pilot of 1883 (p. 205). The same conclusion had even been reached, without the aid of Khitroff's chart, by Martin Sauer (Billings's Voyage, p. 194) as early as 1802. We have called attention to the defects of our author's methods somewhat at length, because, since we are now the owners of Alaska, the name of Bering will belong to our annals, and the record of his services deserves a consideration which in this case it has not received. His ghost might well implore to be delivered from his friends.

In the whirl of indiscriminate eulogy and denunciation which seem to form the staple of this book, some things the author has made less foggy than before. He has shown better than has been done in English the itinerary of Bering's first voyage. He has called attention to the truly stupendous difficulties under which the preparations for the third voyage were made. That his own character was to blame for part of the difficulty did not make it less of an obstruction to Bering. Lastly, Lauridsen has thrown a stronger light on the patience, persistency, honesty, and lovableness which Steller eulogized in the unfortunate commander.

It is very deplorable that some years ago the ancient records of early exploration gathered at Yakutsk were destroyed by fire. Nothing was saved. Few had been copied, and an interesting field of historical research has disappeared. How much there may be in St. Petersburg is a matter of doubt. Lauridsen says "cartloads," but specifies nothing in particular. It is to be hoped that the Russia of the future will supply her own historians, who will at least be free from petty racial jealousies, such as nullified the efforts, sometimes, even of the Great Peter, in the hot rivalry of foreign candidates for office and promotion. In a scientific biography such factors must of course be noticed, but that, as seems to be the case here and there in this work, they should furnish a motive and a color to a modern writer, is much to be deplored. It is a false patriotism which engages in such ignoble strife.

Vitus Jonassen Svendsen was born in Horsens, a small seaport of Jutland, in the summer of 1681. In after life he took the surname of his mother, Anna Bering, whose family was presumably better than that of his father, and has furnished a very respectable number of men of note in literature, law, and theology to Danish annals. His parents were poor and had a large family. The boy went to sea, and about 1703 joined the Russian naval service, where Peter was offering unusual opportunities to foreigners. His name in Russian is always given as Ivan Ivanovitch Bering, but, if we understand Sokoloff's account, it was necessary for him to join the Russian Church, and to take a new baptismal name was required of all such recruits. In this way he received the name of John or Ivan. As has been shown by several authors, the Germanized form "Behring," which has obtained such a hold in popular literature and cartography, was never used by Bering, and has no present claims to consideration.

Those who are interested in the closing scenes of this remarkable life will find important data in the *Deutsche Geographische Blätter* for 1885, and in the Proceedings of the United States National Museum for 1884, contributed by Dr. Leonhard Stejneger, who, within the last ten years, has made a special exploration and study of Bering Island and its fauna, under the patronage of the Smithsonian Institution.

TEN BRINK'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Geschichte der englischen Literatur. Von Bernhard ten Brink. Zweiter Band, bis zur Thronbesteigung Elisabeths. Erste Hälfte. Berlin: Oppenheim; New York: B. Westermann & Co. Pp. 352.

It is now *eleven* years since we had the pleasure of reviewing Ten Brink's first volume in these columns. Although various causes have conspired to bring about this delay, it will be enough to specify one—the author's extreme conscientiousness. Those who are familiar with his method know that he is one of the most painstaking literary scholars living. And the merest glance at the present volume (even in its incomplete state) should satisfy any one that it is the concentrated result of years of research. The eleven years of which we have spoken have been memorable in English philology. On the purely linguistic side, they have witnessed the placing of Anglo-Saxon grammar on a permanent basis through the labors of Paul, Sievers, Sweet, and their associates. On the literary side, or mixed linguistic and literary, they have witnessed the success of such periodicals as the *Anglia* and the *Englische Studien*, and the enormous expansion of the Early English Text, Chaucer, Shakspere, and other societies. Here in America the impetus given to the study of both language and literature by our newly established undergraduate and post-graduate courses is almost incalculable. This journal, in particular, feels that it is addressing a different generation from that of 1878. And indubitably Ten Brink himself realizes all this, and knows that he is now looked up to by hundreds and thousands who can imagine no greater pleasure than that of being really taught by him. Mindful of the maxim *Noblesse oblige*, he has striven nobly to make his teaching worthy of himself, of his readers, of his subject. If ever there was a literary history that evinced microscopic erudition, artistic sense of proportion, clearness and grace of expression, and an abiding good sense that appeals to the purely human in us all, assuredly this is the one. It is worth the waiting for.

Of the present instalment of 352 pp. we shall discuss only 322 pp. The remainder, which treats of the beginnings of the revival of letters in England, must be deferred until the completion of the volume. These 322 pages, then, have two main subjects, viz., Chaucer and the miracle-morality plays. What does not fall under these heads may be summed up as follows: Wiclif, pp. 1–33; Gower, pp. 39–40, 101–106, 137–143, 211; Trevisa, 83–85; Richard de Bury 100, 101; a recurrence to 'Piers Plowman,' 208–210; and the so-called school of Chaucer (Occleve, Lydgate, etc.), 217-243. Our tabulation is not so otiose as might seem, this instalment being printed without table of contents. In round numbers, Wiclif gets 33 pp., Chaucer an almost unbroken stretch of 180 pp., the religious drama 80 pp. From these data the reader can make his own deductions concerning the author's sense of proportion.

Ten Brink's survey and estimate of Wiclif's life and writings are in every respect admirable. It would scarcely be possible to improve upon his treatment, or indeed to make any serious addition, without writing a separate Wiclif biography. We venture to criticise only one point, namely, his strictures upon Wiclif as a translator, pp. 27, 28, 32. Are participial and relative clauses such a fault after all? And are they exclusively Latinisms, or may not some of them be due to French influence?

Before taking up Chaucer, let us interpose a word or two in praise of Ten Brink's treatment of Chaucer's contemporary and would-be rival, Gower. All that he says of Gower is so apt, so convincing, as to fill one with wondering envy. It is easy nowadays to understand and appreciate Chaucer, for it is quite the correct thing. But it is and will ever be hard to do justice to a pedant and *poète manqué* like Gower. In particular Ten Brink's critique of the 'Confessio Amantis,' pp. 137-143, is a memorable specimen of sober justice tempered with mercy that is not strained. Yet we question his representation of the stimulus of the 'Confessio' upon Chaucer, p. 143; to say that Gower's laurels *liessen ihm keine Ruhe*, is a trifle hazardous even for one of Ten Brink's powers of divination.

What shall we say of Chaucer himself in this novel illumination? When we reflect upon the innumerable beauties and equally innumerable problems of language, thought, allusion that the fourteenth century has bequeathed to us with the name of Chaucer, we are tempted to assume *à priori* that to dispose of them in considerably less than two hundred pages is an

impossibility. Or shall we denominate Ten Brink's critique, like the first Basque grammar, a solution of the impossible? If Ten Brink has not squared the Chaucerian circle, he has come so near it that we and our successors for many a generation shall be content to work by his formulæ.

This is the author's portrait of his poet, p. 34: pleasing in appearance, striking and attractive by virtue of a certain serious, dreamy expression; inclined to embonpoint (at least late in life); amorous (*sehr verliebter Natur*); a jovial companion, affable, modest, cheerful, although at times too taciturn; when opportunity offered, capable of playing the rogue (*Schalk*) and surprising you with his transcendent humor. It would not be safe to challenge any one of these assertions. At least we are persuaded that the biographer, if challenged, would promptly produce chapter and verse for each. Yet in general we look with some mistrust upon the tendency in Ten Brink (and, indeed, in most of the modern Chaucer students) to interpret a decided personal element into writings of a very conventional cast. It does not matter much whether the writing be a Complaint, or a book of the "Duchess," a Sonnet, or an Eclogue. Were Spenser interpreted as rigidly, for instance, as Chaucer has been, what should we have? The conventional writer of the 'Shepherd's Calendar' is bent with grief, wrinkled with the crow's-feet of care, looking back upon the four ages of his life. The real Spenser is under thirty, writing cheerily to his friends, making real love to a woman in London while sighing for the half-mythical Rosalind of the glen. The 'House of Fame' is evidently full of autobiographical touches. These were well brought out twenty years ago by the author, in his 'Chaucer-Studien.' Yet we cannot go to the same length in estimating the relation between Dante and the 'House of Fame.' On this point we sympathize somewhat with Palgrave in his recent letters to the London *Academy*.

Ten Brink has displayed his utmost ingenuity in classifying and grouping the 'Canterbury Tales.' Whether his arrangement will remain wholly unmodified, is a question for time to decide. It is one that will require repeated practical testing. In justice to the author it should be stated that the data upon which he bases his conclusions are not cited in this instalment, but reserved for the concluding part, where they will appear as appendices. Usually Ten Brink is nothing if not clear. But in one instance at least his language is unfortunate. The "ordinary reader," not on his guard, will be misled, we fear, by the wording of page 134 into taking January and May to be the story actually told by the Wife of Bath. And in other passages the style is vague because too stylistic and not sufficiently dogmatic. The "ordinary reader" needs to be told more positively what is before him, and ordered more peremptorily to believe and to disbelieve. The grouping of the 'Canterbury Tales,' for instance, is not brought out typographically in a way to strike the eye.

It would be superfluous to do more than state that Ten Brink has abandoned his former belief (in the 'Chaucer-Studien') that the 'Romance of the Rose,' as we have it, is by Chaucer, although we are by no means satisfied that the final word has been spoken on this vexed question. And it would be equally superfluous to dwell at length upon the rare excellence of the various literary judgments to be found in these pages. Ten Brink's parallel between Petrarch and Voltaire, p. 53, is as bold as it is novel to us, but we are not at all disposed to cavil at it. The analogies pointed out, p. 97, between Pandarus and Polonius, Mercutio, and Sancho Panza, are both shrewd and diverting. In treating Troilus and Cressida, our author has fairly let himself go. As for such *loci classici* as the Prologue, the Knight's Tale, and Reynard and Chanticleer, one scarcely needs to be a Ten Brink to write of them pleasantly and profitably. But here again the graceful illumination, p. 156, of the Prologue with regard to Lessing's canon of description warns us not to take too much for granted.

Like master like servant: the adage might be applied—with a modification—to Ten Brink's treatment of Chaucer's pupils and imitators. His estimate of Occleve is good; even better is that of Lydgate. Neither could be improved without writing a monograph, as we said above concerning Wiclif.

The author's treatment of the religious drama in England is even more original than his Chaucer lucubrations. In this field he has had less help from the pioneer work of others. Two novel features are especially prominent—the ascendancy of the northern districts (Yorkshire), and the destructive analysis of the so-called Coventry plays. Although it has long been suspected or assumed that the beginnings of the English drama were Anglian rather than Saxon, it remained for Ten Brink to raise the guess, or hypothesis, to the dignity of a working theory. With regard to the Coventry collection, Ten Brink rejects all identification of it with the Franciscan Order in Coventry, and looks upon it as the "property," so to speak, of a wandering troupe, carelessly put together. His remarks upon isolated religious plays or small groups of such are equally to the point. In his treatment of the Moralities there is one position, or assumption, that we are disposed to combat. It is to be found, somewhat disguised, at p. 318, where we read that comedy deals rather with types of character, and that the greatest comic dramatists aim at reforming mankind. This may answer for the Latin-French comedy, but scarcely for English, unless we are prepared to admit that Ben Jonson is superior to Shakspere. We doubt, too, whether the allegorical drama developed (*sich gestaltete*) into the real. Of course we admit unhesitatingly that it helped, by training actors and the public. But to our eye there is an unbridged gulf between the best allegorical play and the poorest comedy.

We have two strictures to pass upon Ten Brink's method. One is that he rates the literary value of our religious drama too high. Yet this was perhaps inevitable. It is in human nature that a man who by dint of uncommon energy has worked himself into a difficult subject should overprize it. Obstacles overcome seem beauties. This human trait is a wise dispensation of Providence, for without it scholarship might not rise to its sunniest heights. Of Ten Brink in particular we hold that unless nature had fortunately endowed him with the gift of seeing in these old plays more beauties than we can, he would never have become the quick-witted interpreter that he is.

Our other stricture is, that he has not given an adequate account of the origin and early steps of the religious drama in general, *i. e.*, in Europe outside of England. Two pages and a half, pp. 244-246, are all that we get upon a subject which at once attracts and repels by its exceeding difficulty. Their character of vagueness, meagreness (aridity is scarcely too harsh a term) is not redeemed by the author himself labelling them *eine typisch gehaltene Skizze*. Ten Brink's book is for the "ordinary reader." What scholar of adequate attainments, then, has familiarized the ordinary reader with the nascent liturgical drama? How much, rather how little, has Ten Brink the right to take for granted? True, if one has struggled through Ward, Aubertin, Klein, Mone, Lange, Wirth, and a few other writers of varying excellence, one may have a glimmering insight into the process by which cult grew into dramatic action. But such a reader is no ordinary reader. Had Ten Brink taken twenty pages instead of two, he could have made at least the main points clear. As it is, his "sketch" will only mystify the ordinary reader. The specialist alone will accept it as a useful epitome.

May we hope that the conclusion of the volume will not keep us too long in suspense?

BRAZIL IN 1889.

Le Brésil en 1889. Paris: Charles Delagrave. 1889. Pp. 699.

THIS work comes with a certain timeliness at the present moment, when the attention of the world is drawn to Brazil by the remarkable revolution in government which has lately taken place in that country. The publication of the book is, in a sense, a result of the Paris Exposition. Nearly two years ago the idea was conceived by certain Brazilian merchants in Paris that that country should be represented in the Exposition. To this end an appeal was made to Brazilians in Paris and to French merchants engaged in trade with Brazil, the result of which was the formation in that city in March, 1888, of a Franco-Brazilian committee, composed of citizens of both countries. Through the exertions of this committee, the patronage of the late Emperor, Dom Pedro II., was secured for the project, and in July, 1888, an appropriation was obtained from the Brazilian Parliament. Having succeeded in their efforts to have Brazil officially represented in the Exposition, the committee subsequently, in response to a desire for information in regard to that country, intrusted to one of their number, Mr. de Santa Anna Nery, the task of editing and publishing a book which should contain full and comprehensive information in regard to the social, political, commercial, and physical condition of the country up to the present time. The result is the present work, which is remarkably complete, as may be seen by a reference to the subjects which it contains.

In the beginning a general review of the geographical features of the country is given by the editor. Following this is an article on the hydrography of the country, by the Baron de Teffé, Director of the Bureau of Hydrography at Rio de Janeiro; on the climate, by Henri Morize, astronomer at the Imperial Observatory; on mineralogy, by Henri Gorceix, Director of the School of Mines at Ouro Preto; on the history of Brazil (nearly a hundred pages), by the Baron de Rio Branco, a member of the Historical and Geographical Institute of Brazil; on population, territory, and the electorate, by J. P. Favilla Nunes, a Brazilian publicist; on the labor of the country, by the editor; on the agricultural zones, by André Rebouças, professor at the Polytechnic School at Rio de Janeiro; on agricultural institutions, by J. M. Leitão da Cunha, a deputy of the General Assembly from the province of Pará; on finances, by A. Cavalcanti, a Brazilian economic writer; on banks and institutions of credit, by Luiz Rodriguez D'Oliveira, an eminent Brazilian merchant in Paris; on railways, by Fernandes Pinheiro, Chief of the Commission of the Brazilian Ministry of Public Works in Europe and to the United States; on commerce and navigation, by the editor; on the postal system, telegraphs, and telephones, by the same; on immigration, by E. da Silva Prado; on the

press, by Ferreira de Araujo, editor of the *Gazeta de Noticias* of Rio de Janeiro; on art, by E. da Silva Prado; on public instruction, by the editor and others; on literature, by the editor; on science and the National Museum, by Ladislau Netto, director of that institution; on literary and industrial property, by the editor; on the protection of infancy, by the Baron d'Itajubá, formerly Minister to the United States and now Minister to Italy; on the organization of the judiciary, by S. N. MacDowell, a deputy in the General Assembly; on the navy, by M. J. Alves Barboza, a captain in the Imperial Navy. From this outline of the contents of the book, it is seen that there is information to be found in it on almost any subject which the student of Brazilian questions may desire to examine.

A fact not generally appreciated in the case of Brazil is its great territorial extent. It contains, roughly speaking, nearly 3,300,000 square miles, or about 250,000 more than the United States, if we exclude Alaska. If we include Alaska, the territory of the United States exceeds that of Brazil by only about 320,000 square miles, which is little more than the area of the State of Texas. According to the imperfect census of 1872, Brazil then had a population of 9,930,478 inhabitants, of whom 1,510,806 were slaves. Of the total population 3,801,782 were mulattoes and mongrels, 3,787,289 were of the Caucasian race, 1,959,452 of the African, and 386,955 were Indian-Americans. The census, however, did not include several parishes of the empire, nor 10,993 Indians living in villages in the province of Maranham, nor 4,059 inhabitants of the province of Rio de Janeiro. Of persons included in the census, 5,123,869 were males, of whom 4,318,699 were free and 805,170 slaves; 4,806,609 were females, of whom 4,100,973 were free and 705,636 slaves. Of the total number of inhabitants 9,902,715 were classed as Catholics, and 27,766 as non-Catholics, the latter all being free. In respect to nationality, of the free population 8,176,191 were ranged as Brazilians and 243,481 as foreigners.

Since 1872 no census of the population of Brazil has been taken, and it is consequently impossible to determine what the present number of inhabitants actually is. Mr. Favilla Nunes, basing his calculations upon the rate of increase by birth and immigration, estimates the present population of Brazil at about 14,000,000, or an average of less than five inhabitants to the square mile. Into the apportionment of this population as between the pure and mongrel races he does not enter, and reference on this subject must be had to the statistics of 1872, bearing in mind, however, that since 1872 the ratio of increase by immigration has constantly grown. In the fourteen years from 1873 to 1886, there were 304,796 immigrants, of whom 110,891 were Portuguese, 112,279 Italians, 23,469 Germans, 15,684 Spaniards, and 9,022 Austrians; the rest being divided between various nationalities. The statistics above recited convey a vivid notion of the mixed character of the Brazilian population. It is stated that the Republic has proclaimed universal suffrage, or manhood suffrage conditioned upon the ability to read and write. In this relation it is pertinent to observe two facts. By a law approved May 13, 1888, by the Princess Imperial, then regent, slavery was entirely abolished. Prior to that time efforts had been made to the same end, and a system of gradual emancipation was established. But by the official report of the Government of March 30, 1887, there still remained at that date 723,419 slaves. The law of 1888 simply said: "From the date of this law slavery is declared abolished in Brazil." The other fact is, that out of the whole population in Brazil there were in 1887, according to the revised lists of that year, which are probably the last made, only about 220,000 electors, or 1.5 for every hundred of the whole population, capable of voting for members of the provincial and national legislative assemblies. This fact may in part account for the circumstance which has recently caused so many expressions of surprise, that the acceptance of the revolution has apparently been so general, notwithstanding that at the late elections for the National Assembly only two Republican members were returned.

One of the problems necessarily to be dealt with is that of finance. The public debt of the country, including emissions of paper currency, is about $375,000,000. To supply the expenses of Government and to maintain the public credit, recourse has been had to imposts on lands, industries, and professions, circulation and transportation, consumption, and to duties both upon imports and upon exports. The sudden emancipation of the slaves in 1888 has necessarily had a disturbing effect upon production.

For electoral purposes the Empire of Brazil was recently divided into 125 districts, which together elected 125 temporary representatives (deputies) for four years, 60 representatives for life (senators), to the national Parliament, and 641 members to the provincial assemblies, chosen for two years. These 125 electoral districts comprised 20 provinces and 892 municipalities, with 330 cities, 526 towns, and 1,866 parishes. In 1881 the system of voting directly for representatives to the national Parliament was first established, and at the same time the *scrutin d'arrondissement* was substituted for the *scrutin de liste* in the election of deputies.

To attempt to give an account of the reign of Dom Pedro II., the lately deposed Emperor, would be to review the progress which Brazil has made in the last half century in the development of liberal institutions. As a ruler, he was characterized by remarkable breadth of view and by great humanity of conduct. In nothing is his reign more remarkable than in the development of the system of public instruction. Primary instruction, however, was wisely left to the regulation of the provincial assemblies by the Constitution of 1824 and the additional act of 1834, before he ascended the throne. The result has been a sure and healthy development of an extensive system of primary schools. In 1869 the number of public schools of that character was 3,516; they were attended by 115,735 pupils of both sexes between the ages of six and fifteen years, which are the years of eligibility to such schools. At that time there was one school for every 541 children of the requisite age. It is estimated that at the present time there are not less than 7,500 primary schools, mostly public, and about 300,000 pupils. In some of the provinces the increase in the number of schools has been remarkably rapid. For example, in the Province of San Paulo there were in 1882 774 primary schools; in 1886 there were 1,034, or an increase of 260 in four years. In these statistics private schools are not included. Only the higher instruction has been under the control of the central Government. Under such control are the two faculties of law at San Paulo and Recife, the two faculties of medicine of Rio de Janeiro and Bahia, the Polytechnic School at Rio de Janeiro, and the School of Mines at Ouro Preto.

HOGUE'S ATTIC VERB.

The Irregular Verbs of Attic Prose: their Forms, Prominent Meanings, and Important Compounds; together with Lists of related Words and English Derivatives. By Addison Hogue, Professor of Greek in the University of Mississippi. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Prof. Hogue seems to have discovered a genuine deficiency in our apparatus for classical study, and to have filled it very successfully. He has produced a work which will be an instructive companion not only to college students in their reading, but to teachers of preparatory schools. A slight expansion of the plan would make a complete record of Attic prose usage in the verbal forms, within certain limits, and a convenient book of reference for scholars of advanced attainments. The author's object is more modest, however. He has written

"not for scholars, but for students, with the hope that they will find much that they need, and find it in a form more accessible and intelligible to them than it can possibly be in the lexicons, seeing that these have to cover a vast territory not touched upon here, and have to present their results in such compact space and in such abbreviated form that many a student loses himself in trying to pick out what is good Attic from what is not."

He aims chiefly at facilitating a mastery of the forms and the acquisition of a vocabulary. He does this, in the first place, by treating the formation of the regular verbs more fully and with more numerous examples than the grammars in ordinary use. He next presents the irregular verbs in Part II. (which occupies nearly 200 pages), and gives with great care and minuteness the forms in actual use in Attic prose down to the period of Aristotle, together with their principal compounds and their more direct English derivatives. He makes each verb, in fact, the subject of a short dissertation, in which he sets forth clearly and accurately its chief meanings, the peculiarities of its forms and tenses, the more usual constructions and idioms, and illustrates these various points with well-chosen examples, mostly from Attic authors. It may be said that such particulars can be extracted from the grammars, the lexicons, and from Veitch's 'Catalogue of Irregular Verbs.' As a matter of fact, however, a single article, such as those on ἀκούω, γιγνώσκω, δέω, δέομαι, παίω, or πιπράσκω, condenses the results of extensive reading and observation, and presents certain groups of facts which the learner could collect for himself only after many wanderings and misapprehensions.

We are not sure that the list of derivatives is so valuable a feature as the author fancies, or deserves as much space as it occupies. They are sometimes explained with a digressiveness which, though quite proper in the familiar talk of the class-room, simply trenches on the province of the English dictionary or encyclopædia, and appeals, we believe, to a different plane of intelligence from that contemplated in the general plan of the work. Any intelligent student will easily trace out most of them for himself, and will enjoy the process of discovery, and hold fast to his Greek all the more for his own researches. Whether *Anatolic* and *Kalorama* and *Chrematistics* will help either his Greek or his English to any useful extent, may be doubted, though these are, of course, extreme instances. On the other hand, discussions like the note on the aorists of πέτομαι and the compounds of λέγω are a praiseworthy departure from the unavoidable limits and methods of the ordinary school grammar. They introduce the student to the uncertainties and the conflicts of authorities; they show him

that, in certain questions of language, there is no Vatican to render infallible decisions, and that his grammars and lexicons are founded on processes of observation and discrimination which he himself can imitate, and the results of which he may possibly improve.

We notice a few slips in facts or expression, and some apparent inconsistencies. The statement (page 204) that Thucydides has "only φθῆναι," is an oversight, as φθάσαι is found several times. *Paschal* is, rather strangely, referred to πάσχω. The remark on ἵστημι (page 108 g) is misleading: "In the compounds the intransitive tenses are occasionally found as transitive." The meaning is not that the intransitive tenses change their force, but that a transitive force is introduced by the preposition. Under καλέω (page 118) the rendering of the perfect passive, "by what name have you been called," neglects the peculiar meaning of the verb in that tense. Would it not be well to indicate that, as a matter of strict Attic diction, the authority is expressly in favor of ἐδέδισαν instead of ἐδεδίεσαν, and of the shorter contracted forms in certain parts of λούω? Is δέω, *to bind*, contracted throughout simply "by way of distinction" from δέω, *to lack, need?* The analogous case of κλάω, *to break*, and κλάω, *to weep*, points to the influence of a digamma in the forms which do not contract. To say that εἶπον is a "more usual" form than ἔλεξα (page 132) hardly expresses the comparative rareness of the latter aorist, which is used oftener, we believe, by Xenophon than by any other writer. Yet, in the 'Anabasis,' we find only one form of ἔλεξα to about five of εἶπον; in the 'Hellenica' (Books II and III), one to thirty; in half-a-dozen orations of Lysias, a solitary stranded optative, λέξαιμι, to thirty-one forms of εἶπον. In Plato, the disproportion is still more striking. We cannot tell whether βλαστάνω, θιγγάνω, and ἔτλην are omitted accidentally or because they so rarely occur in Attic prose. In this matter Prof. Hogue has gone so far that he might well have gone a little further, and made his record complete. He mentions, for instance, such singularities as ἀμφιλεξάντων and ἔβησα in Xenophon, and ἀντιλέξειν in Lysias, and those interesting fossil forms of the first aorist active of ἄγω which crop out once in Antiphon and Thucydides. Why not mention also περιέπω, used a few times by Xenophon, and the rare aorist active of ἀπαγορεύω? Why not, since defectiveness is an irregularity, include other defective verbs as well as μειδιάω, and thus make a special catalogue which, by reason of its completeness, would have its permanent value for scholars as well as for learners? The list, we believe, would not be much extended, and would call attention to the differences of usage that exist between classic writers within the brief period of about a century.

The illustrative quotations are, as we have said, well chosen, and are rendered into vigorous and idiomatic English. The un-Attic expression "to boss the job" would seem to require at least quotation marks to fence it from the trespass of American youth. We are strongly of the opinion that it would be a great gain to refer to their sources all citations from the Greek except ordinary phrases and formulæ. The sort of student for whom the book is designed will certainly profit by an accuracy that leads him to consult authors for himself and to note the peculiarities of their diction. The indexes are prepared with great care and ingenuity; the quantity of doubtful vowels is everywhere marked, and substantives and adjectives are conveniently classified according to their gender and accent.

There are some points in the history of a dead language about which one would like to consult an intelligent ghost, and which can never be settled except by a message from the dead; in spite of this, men of real learning and ability will affect a sort of inspiration in such matters and deliver their oracles, undismayed by the refutation of their conclusions on questions of legitimate research. Prof. Hogue apologizes in his preface for "the constant recurrence of 'seems' and 'perhaps' in stating the facts in regard to usage." To our mind his candid suspense contrasts favorably with the "cock-sureness" which is a grace and a virtue only when joined with omniscience, and of which he exposes one or two examples. Our own criticisms and suggestions are offered with reference to future editions, and chiefly from the point of view of the teacher. They are, indeed, mostly based on the fact that the work is more complete than it professes to be, and performs decidedly more than the modest promise of its author. It is not merely an aid to the student in acquiring forms and a vocabulary, but an excellent handbook in the practice of prose composition, and an accurate guide to some of the niceties and elegant economies of Attic style.

RECENT MUSICAL LITERATURE.

The Story of Music. By W. J. Henderson. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 212.

Review of the New York Musical Season, 1888-1889. By H. E. Krehbiel. Novello, Ewer & Co. Pp. 221.

System of Harmony for Teacher and Pupil. By John A. Broekhoven. Novello, Ewer & Co. Pp. 118.

It is a somewhat remarkable fact that there are to-day four musical critics of the New York daily press who have written books. Mr. Henderson of the *Times* has just entered the list by writing a brief sketch of musical history. The *Times* for many years was eminently unfortunate in its choice of musical critics, but since the accession of Mr. Henderson it has become a helpful influence in the advancement of what is best and noblest in music. The same qualities of a clear and fluent literary style, fearless frankness, and incisive sarcasm which distinguish Mr. Henderson's criticisms are apparent in his 'Story of Music,' which is an attempt to describe the evolution of the art itself, omitting most of the biographic details and dates which usually take up so much space in histories of music without throwing any light on the subject.

The plan is an excellent one and has been well carried out. Of course in the case of some of the greatest composers a few biographic data were called for, but as a whole it is a history of music and not of musicians that Mr. Henderson has written. Even with these omissions, an attempt to compress the principal facts of his subject into 212 pages compelled him to ignore some important lines of development, but the highway of musical evolution is clearly pointed out. For obtaining a bird's-eye view of musical history in a few hours, and without great mental effort, we know of no work equal to the present, which is also enlivened by frequent references, in the early chapters, to modern events and questions. The author looks at his subject from the modern "advanced" point of view, with certain reservations. It is refreshing to read his remarks on Bach and Händel, so different from what one usually finds in English books: "Bach has been frequently compared with Händel, but this is folly. Händel was great in one department of his art. Bach was master in all. Händel has left us the 'Messiah' and 'Israel in Egypt,' together with a few other masterpieces, and thousands of pages for which the present age has no use. Bach wrote scarcely a measure that we can spare." No love is lost on the Italian opera composers, Verdi excepted. On p. 160 the famous mad scene in "Lucia" is analyzed to show "how far removed is the work of a charlatan like Donizetti from that of a true poet." For Verdi's last two operas great admiration is expressed, and the belief that they point to a new school of Italian opera, absorbing much of Wagner, but differing by giving more importance to vocal melody. The following is a just criticism: "There are passages in 'Faust,' unhappily too few, such as the death of *Valentine* and *Marguerite's* scene with *Mephistopheles* in the cathedral, which seem to me to come nearer to the ideal music-drama than anything outside of the best scenes in Wagner's works."

Wagner Mr. Henderson considers "the greatest musical genius who ever lived"; yet, oddly enough, he objects to what will some day be recognized as his chief claim to greatness—his constant and novel use of "harsh" dissonances and chromatic progressions, which do not "please the ear." Precisely the same objection was urged by Artusi at the beginning of the seventeenth century against the great reformer, Monteverde, for using unprepared sevenths and other "harsh" discords, and has been raised at every step subsequently made to enlarge the harmonic boundaries and the dramatic expressiveness of music. Besides, Mr. Henderson should remember that ears differ. Those of the full-blooded Wagnerite are highly delighted by the chromatic dissonant progressions in the *Norn* scene in the "Götterdämmerung" or the *Klingsor* episodes in "Parsifal." It is a question of accustico-æsthetic evolution, and we recommend Mr. Henderson to read an essay by Prof. Haeckel on the development of the sense-organs, in which this matter is discussed in a playful and sarcastic, yet suggestive manner.

Throughout the greater part of this volume the lecture tone prevails, which, however, does not seem out of place even when it modulates into exhortation, as on p. 68. There are some happy expressions scattered through the text, like this: "Music cannot definitely express emotion; but it can produce it." In view of the recent enormous successes of Wagner and Verdi, Mr. Henderson believes that the most important developments of music in the future will be in the domain of opera, and he consequently advises young composers, as a matter of business, to devote themselves to the opera rather than the symphony or the quartet.

Mr. Krehbiel's volume is the fourth of a series which, if continued on the same plan, will some day prove very useful to an historian of music in America. It is printed and bound in a manner which is a credit to the publishers; it gives the programme of every concert worth mentioning, with critical discussions of all novelties and other important productions; and its index, as usual, is very complete. An appendix gives a survey of the choral work done in the principal American cities during the past season, and another chapter contains a twenty-page summary of operatic history in New York, in which one cannot but be impressed by the remarkable list of great singers whom New Yorkers have heard again and again, which helps to account for the undeniable fact that operatic audiences in New York are more critical, or at least less easily pleased, than in any European city. The best articles in this volume are those on "Rheingold," the "Yeo-

men of the Guards," a history of church music in New York, and the general retrospect, containing, among other things, the usual official statistics of the German opera season.

The three operas which brought the most money into the treasury were Wagner's "Rheingold," "Siegfried," and "Tannhäuser," followed by "Il Trovatore," "L'Africaine," and "Die Meistersinger"; and the highest average receipts were for Wagner's "Götterdämmerung," "Tannhäuser," and "Rheingold." "In the season, the seven works of Wagner brought into the exchequer of the Metropolitan Opera-house an average of $16,540.64 each, while the nine operas not composed by Wagner yielded an average of $10,421.84." These figures, better than all arguments, prove that Wagner continues to be the favorite of New York opera-goers. Some curious details may be spelled out from these tables. Thus, although the average attendance on "Trovatore" was greater than on "Rheingold" nights, the average receipts were greater on "Rheingold" nights — thus proving that Wagner's opera appeals more to the well-to-do classes than Verdi's. The wisdom of reducing the price of seats is shown by the fact that $24,000 more were paid in than during the preceding season. Those of the stockholders and others who would like to put Italian in place of German opera can see the utter futility of such a plan made obvious on p. 165.

The Von Bülow recitals and concerts do not get quite as much notice as their importance seems to warrant, nor would the reader suspect from anything he can find in this 'Review' that Von Bülow's reading of a certain Beethoven symphony, in essential agreement with Herr Seidl's reading and Wagner's elucidations in his pamphlet "On Conducting," was a blow to Mr. Krehbiel, who had stoutly opposed these innovations; for Von Bülow is universally acknowledged to be the greatest living authority in the interpretation of Beethoven. But we have little doubt that Mr. Krehbiel will finally acquiesce in the new method.

Mr. Broekhoven is a teacher of Harmony and Composition at the Cincinnati College of Music, and his little treatise gives evidence, on every page, of the practical knowledge gained by the necessity of frequently explaining abstruse rules to young students. It is a misfortune that most manuals of harmony offer great impediments to students by their obscure definitions; Richter's, the most famous of all, sinning most in this respect. Mr. Broekhoven's definitions are not open to this objection, and pupils whose memories are weak will find their work facilitated by frequent references to preceding paragraphs. The exercises are abundant and useful. The use of the word septchords and other novel terms to avoid confusion is commendable. The theoretical side of Harmony, as developed in the works of Fétis, Hauptmann, Helmholtz, and Riemann, is ignored in this work; but as a practical guide to composition, and an elementary treatise on musical logic, it will be found very useful.

MEDIÆVAL HERESIES.

Beiträge zur Sektengeschichte des Mittelalters. Von Ign. v. Döllinger. Erster Theil: Geschichte der gnostisch-manichäischen Sekten. Zweiter Theil: Dokumente vornehmlich zur Geschichte der Valdesier und Katharer. 2 vols. 8vo. Munich. 1890.

It is pleasant to greet the veteran Dr. Döllinger again in the fields of research which he has made so completely his own. A life prolonged beyond the usual span allotted to man seems to find him as vigorous as ever, with undiminished ardor for his favorite studies, and undiminished zeal in conveying their results to other students. If these two portly volumes seem to tread closely upon the heels of the two which, in conjunction with Dr. Reusch, he issued a year ago on the 'Moralstreitigkeiten in der römisch-katholischen Kirche,' it is not to be inferred that they have been hastily composed, or that they indicate a fecundity too great for the due elaboration of their subject. The author informs us that the printing was commenced more than ten years ago, and has been carried on slowly. Indeed, one would imagine that the delay had been even greater, since documents extracted from the Bibliothèque Nationale are credited to the "*kaiserliche* Bibliothek in Paris," as though they might have been printed before the fall of the Second Empire.

The book consists of two portions essentially distinct. The first volume, of about 250 pages, presents a sketch of the sects which handed down the early Manichean doctrines in Europe nearly to the commencement of the Renaissance. Beginning with the Paulicians, the author traces the spread of their dualistic principles to Europe, where, under the names of Cathari, Albigenses, Patarins, etc., they formed the most formidable body of heretics with which the Church had to deal during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Interesting as is their external history—their sufferings so heroically endured, and the ruthless persecution which finally exterminated them—Dr. Döllinger pays little attention to it, and concerns himself almost exclusively with an examination into the beliefs of the various subdivisions of the sect. It is needless to say that this is based wholly upon a critical examination of the sources, and although there are occasionally points upon which opinions may differ, no one will call in question the fulness of learning of the author, his impartiality, his insight, or the admirable clearness which is so characteristic of all his productions.

The second volume reaches to nearly 750 pages, and is a contribution for which all students of mediæval thought may well be thankful. For many years Dr. Döllinger has employed his annual vacation in searching among the MSS. of the great collections not only of Munich, but of Paris, Vienna, Florence, Rome, and other places, for all documents that bore upon the heretical developments of the middle ages, and these he has now freely rendered accessible to all, in place of doling them out, one by one, as most scholars would have done, and rendering each the basis of a voluminous essay.

The subjects are not confined, as in the first volume, to the Cathari, but embrace all the sectaries—the Waldenses, the Spiritual Franciscans and Fraticelli, the Beghards, or Brethren of the Free Spirit, the Hussites, and some minor heresies and individual heretics. It is true that, in consequence of the prolonged delay in the press, a portion of the matter has meanwhile seen the light through the labors of other scholars, and Dr. Döllinger prefixes to his volume a table of the seventy-two documents of which it is composed, with indications of the places in which can be found those in the publication of which he has been anticipated; but as these are mostly printed in special periodicals or the transactions of learned societies, they are not easily accessible to the ordinary student. One, indeed, we have observed, of which the prior publication has escaped Dr. Döllinger—the heresy of Thomas Scot of Lisbon (p. 615), which has already appeared in Menendez y Pelayo's 'Heterodoxos Españoles,' i., 782, from a Venetian MS., while Dr. Döllinger's is from Paris.

Many of these documents shed new light on obscure points of the history of heresy and persecution, or on the manners and institutions of their periods. Thus a Penitential of the fourteenth century (pp. 621-624), from the Munich library, deplores the delivery of heretics by the Church to the secular arm to be burned. Apparently it was the custom after conviction to give them another chance of escape by the ordeal of red-hot iron; if they failed in this and refused to repent, then they could be put to death; but, on the whole, the writer thinks that if they did not attack the Church, it would be better to let them alone. He alludes to a curious custom in a certain place by which no one could receive Christian burial unless a friend would undergo the cold-water ordeal to prove that he died properly repentant, and he mentions the case of a knight who was slain in a tournament, at a time when all who took part in such encounters were excommunicated, and who was accordingly buried in unconsecrated ground. His friends appealed to the Pope, and proved that the hand of the corpse was raised to the face for the purpose of making the sign of the cross, thus showing that he had died repentant, and on this evidence the Pope permitted the transfer of the body to the cemetery. Still more quaint are the instructions to the confessor to inquire into the vocation of all penitents, for there are some pursuits which are wholly sinful, such as those of strumpets and players, and some, such as trade, which can scarce be followed without sin. There are, the writer tells us, three kinds of players. Some debase their bodies by filthy dances and gestures, or by nakedness, or by wearing horrible disguises, and these are infallibly damned unless they abandon the profession. Others wander around as jesters to the courts of magnates, telling foul stories and ridiculing the absent, and these likewise are damned. The third class are minstrels with musical instruments to please the people. Of these there are two varieties, for some of them frequent public dances and debauches and provoke licentiousness, and these too are to be damned.

No student of the mediæval period can afford to be without this rich and varied collection of material which Dr. Döllinger has thus placed within the reach of all. We hazard nothing in saying that no such contribution to its special department of history has been made since the labors of the Benedictines, a century and a-half ago.

FORD'S FRANKLIN BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Franklin Bibliography. A List of Books Written by or Relating to Benjamin Franklin. By Paul Leicester Ford. Brooklyn, N. Y. 1889. 8vo, pp. lxxiii, 467, printed on one side only.

Franklin, in his 'Autobiography,' forcibly shows how a man who "forms a good plan," and "makes the execution of that same plan his sole study and business," may powerfully benefit his fellow-men. One might almost believe that a purpose of following out this suggestion of Franklin's had been Mr. Ford's spur and inspiration in the very exceptional service he has been able to render, by supplying bibliographical helps such as the present one. This, we believe, is the seventh of his separately published bibliographies issued within as many years; and it is in many respects of ampler and more comprehensive scope than any of its predecessors—a fact which the title-page does not fully convey. Not even biblio-

graphers have hitherto established any uniform usage in narrowly distinguishing between "a bibliography" and "the literature of a subject." Mr. Ford, in his 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana,' published three years ago, perhaps included all that each of these terms implies; but in this volume he by no means stops with what is comprised, first, under the head of works "written by," and second, "relating to" Franklin, but gives us also "Pseudonyms used by Franklin," "Writings wrongfully or doubtfully ascribed to Franklin," and several successive indexes, constructed with great ingenuity. If to these we add his very instructive introduction to the work, the whole constitutes what might perhaps be described as a bibliographical cyclopædia. Exclusive of the indexes, the entries, which are numbered consecutively, considerably exceed 1,000, 600 of these coming strictly under the heading "Books and pamphlets wholly or partly written by Franklin," but counting, of course, the successive editions of a given work. Thus, Mr. Ford gives 145 editions of the 'Way to Wealth,' perhaps the most conspicuous instance of an English work which has attained the polyglot form, unless we except some of Cooper's tales and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'

Mr. Ford very properly devotes a portion of his "Introduction" to showing where the most considerable collections of Franklin literature are now to be found, citing in this connection Mr. Winsor's claim, in justifying the beginning of the invaluable collection now in the Boston Public Library, "'that Franklin is to Boston' as Shakspere is to England." He also enumerates the efforts of his own predecessors in the work of constructing Franklin catalogues or bibliographies, including Sabin' Stevens, Swift, and others. Of Mr. Lindsay Swift's 'Catalogue of Works relating to Benjamin Franklin in the Boston Public Library,' etc., published by that library in 1883, he remarks: "Had I been aware of its existence before I began my work, the present list would never have been started." Nevertheless, it is decidedly worth while that he should have carried his own list through, since, from the necessary limitations of Mr. Swift's catalogue, it falls far short of that degree of completeness possible to Mr. Ford's work. To take a specific instance, Swift enumerates only thirty-two editions of the 'Way to Wealth,' as compared with Ford's one hundred and forty-five. "Completeness," however, it is gratifying to find Mr. Ford recognizing as at the best but a question of comparative degree. Indeed, he expressly picks this flaw in the title-page of Mr. Bigelow's recently published edition of Franklin's Works, namely, that he has styled it "The *Complete* Works." "The writings of Franklin," Mr. Ford maintains, "will never be complete," and he plainly looks forward to the gathering in the future of still other of "his known or recognizable pamphlets and contributions to periodicals."

No portion of this volume, perhaps, has a greater interest, and certainly few portions have more value, than the department devoted to "Writings wrongfully or doubtfully ascribed to Franklin." The eighteen titles here noted include some about which the general agreement of bibliographers has long settled itself, while in other cases our author renders noteworthy service by unravelling errors of authorship which have been perpetuated by so careful writers as Sparks, Sabin, Stevens, Swift, and others. Mr. Ford enters as "erroneous" the attributing to Franklin of the volume, 'Philosophical Essays,' Edinburgh, 1768, but does not suggest the true author. This work, though anonymous, was doubtless written by James Balfour of Edinburgh. Mr. Ford's division devoted to "Works relating to, written to, or dedicated to Franklin," comprises two hundred and twelve entries. While he nowhere claims absolute completeness for this enumeration, there are a few omissions which are somewhat surprising, among them the paper on "Benjamin Franklin" in Sainte-Beuve's 'English Portraits'; Part II. of the Messrs. Hale's 'Franklin in France' (Part I. is entered in full), and Mr. G. M. Towle's very interesting chapter on "Franklin, the Boston Boy," in the 'Memorial History of Boston,' vol. ii. An omission less to be missed is that of the various "lives of the signers" of the Declaration of Independence, by Lossing, C. A. Goodrich, N. Dwight, and others; Sanderson being the only one of this class cited. Twice Mr. Ford uses the word "classical" in a sense which will to most readers be an unexpected and unfamiliar one, namely, in his table of "contents," where he speaks of the "Reference list and *classical* index," and again at page 279. In both instances it means based on subject *classification*, rather than as almost invariably elsewhere. We find that Mr. Ford is not absolutely the first to make this innovation, Sir Henry Maine having used the word in this sense in 1883, in his 'Dissertations on Early Law and Custom'; yet this precedent, we must think, had better have been left unfollowed.

Westminster Abbey. By W. J. Loftie. With many illustrations by Herbert Railton. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

Mr. Loftie's 'Westminster Abbey' is one of those interesting and useful books which the pages of the *Portfolio* have yielded to the art-loving world. A picturesque and entertaining account of Westminster Abbey itself and its relations to London in early days is followed by an account of the Abbey as a long-established "show place" of great repute—a monument famous since long ago, though of course more for its sepulchral memorials and its historical associations than for its architecture, which, in the sixteenth century and later, was in little repute. The coronations which have been held beneath its vaults are next treated of, and finally, with the fifth chapter, the work settles down to an account of the interior of the building. It seems that there is here the accuracy of a guide-book and more than a guide-book's fulness of detail, combined with a certain freshness of style with which guide-books are not commonly supplied. If in the course of the whole work there is too little said about the rank of the building as a piece of Gothic architecture, we have not, perhaps, to complain of that, in view of the fact that the attempt to discriminate between the architecture of this building and that of other edifices of the same general character would be dry for the ordinary readers of the *Portfolio*, while the detailed account of the tombs, their effigies, inscriptions, decoration, heraldic bearings, and traditions, is something which all visitors, and all those persons who wish they were visitors, to Westminster Abbey, may unite in enjoying. The work is concluded with a chapter entitled "Walks in the Precincts," and this is really quite novel and worthy of minute attention.

As regards the illustrations, the case is not so clear. There are reproductions from Hollar which are, of course, of great interest. There are small, vignette-like drawings in the text, which are good in their way, and as expressive of the subject as a sketchy, so-called artistic rendering of architecture can be made. There are also photographic engravings printed with the text, which, although not of the first excellence, have in their trustworthiness a charm which the above-mentioned sketches have not. The unsatisfactory illustrations are the large etchings, the full-page prints with margins, pretentious in chiaro-oscuro and elaborate in detail, which contrive to give so false an impression of the interior that the book would be better without their presence. The main fault is that the scale is greatly exaggerated. The plate opposite page 28 would be tolerably truthful in this respect if it represented, not the narrow and far from lofty nave of Westminster Abbey, but the colossal span and reach of Milan or Cologne. A still more noticeable bit of falsification is in the plate opposite page 34, the Confessor's Chapel, where there is shown a very considerable walk from the tomb to the piers that support the roof, instead of the few steps that all persons familiar with the church know it to be. The chapter-house is expanded and spread away in the same fashion, and, in short, we have here a set of plates which would be somewhat overstrained in character if they represented a great cathedral like Bruges or Rheims instead of a church of the much smaller English dimensions. One large plate, and only one, seems to us a desirable possession, and that is the reproduction of Hollar's plate of Henry VII.'s shrine. Here there is something else than architectural interest: a square inch of Hollar is worth a great deal of Railton.

Illustrations of the Spires and Towers of the Mediæval Churches of England, preceded by Some Observations on the Architecture of the Middle Ages and its Spire Growth. By Charles Wickes, Architect. 3 vols. in one. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

American Mansions and Cottages. Carl Pfeiffer, Architect. Parts I–V, folio. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

The publishers and booksellers who supply the constantly increasing demand for books necessary in the offices of architects and decorative designers have, during the past few years, introduced a plan which, at little cost to themselves and little cost to the buyer, puts into the hands of this latter much that is desirable; nor does it always involve a breach of that simple law which forbids you to appropriate your neighbor's goods, for there are many of these books which, in their original form, are so old that copyright has no longer to do with them. Thus, in the case before us, the outline drawings of English church towers, which fill three thin folio volumes, and cost £5 or £6, have been reproduced in facsimile by the heliotype process, and published in one volume at a lower price. The book is well known, and hardly needs any remark to introduce it to the student. The general accuracy of the drawings is admitted, and it must be said of them that they are unusually intelligible—that is, that the details are expressed in such way as to make them clearly understood. The projection and character of mouldings, the nature of carved string-courses, drip-mouldings, and the like, the amount of projection or of reveal, and all such essential points, which modern drawings of architecture are very apt to ignore or to slight, are unusually well expressed in these lithographs. A comparison of this reproduction with the original is certainly favorable to the former. The plates lend themselves to heliotype reproduction, and the result is satisfactory.

The five parts of Mr. Pfeiffer's book consist entirely of plates; and a small leaf, serving the

purpose of a prospectus, is all the information obtainable concerning the plan and scope of the work. In this it is stated that Mr. Pfeiffer, a New York architect whose early death a short time ago caused general regret, had been employed in preparing a work on American domestic architecture, and that the executor of his estate has issued, through Messrs. Ticknor & Co., this selection from the drawings which had been prepared. It appears that all the designs offered are Mr. Pfeiffer's own, so that it is not so much a work on American house architecture as a résumé of this architect's practice, or at most of his ideas on this most important subject; that is, it is a book of material rather than of criticism, and of suggestion rather than of analysis. This, however, is equally true of the numerous books on house architecture which have appeared in this country. So far, we lack the book on house architecture in general, offering designs from many sources and the solution of the problem which would be furnished by many minds. The work before us consists of a number of separate schemes for houses, which are worked out in considerable detail. Thus, to take one of the houses at a venture, Design B fills thirteen plates, four giving the four elevations or geometrical projections of the four faces of the house, one giving plans and sections, and the rest being occupied with details of dormer-windows, chimney-tops, staircases, and the like. There is enough in these thirteen plates to allow of a house being built from these lithographs complete without the interposition of an architect or draughtsman, and no doubt some persons will put them to this use. The difficulty of proceeding in that way is, of course, that the moment a change, even a very slight one, is required, there is no longer any certainty in the use of the plates. No one can tell how much alteration throughout the large structure his single change of plan may involve; and with a more considerable change, the drawings become practically useless. As for the designs, they are generally of that somewhat too forcible character which marks so much recent American work; they have the somewhat exaggerated picturesqueness which has certainly served to give some novelty to our recent country houses, but which is very hard to keep within bounds, and leads too often to an oddity which reaches positive ugliness. There is no doubt, however, that young architects will find these convenient for suggestion, and would-be builders of country houses may study them to advantage without necessarily following them exactly, in building.

Martin Van Buren to the End of His Public Career. By George Bancroft. Harper & Bros. 1889.

It is a question for casuists whether contemporaneous obloquy can be outweighed by any amount of posthumous praise. Martin Van Buren was certainly despised and detested in his day, not only by his political enemies, but also by the general public. Could he have foreseen the judgment which some recent writers have passed upon him, the thought of a triumphant vindication in the eyes of posterity might well have glorified the tranquillity of his later years. Mr. John Fiske has paid him a respectful tribute; Mr. Shepard has constructed a most persuasive and elaborate apology for his public life; and now Mr. Bancroft comes forward with this enthusiastic and unqualified eulogy. We would not stir up strife, but we cannot help feeling that here is an exceptional opportunity for the presentation of some neglected aspects of the truth. It seems incredible that so pure a patriot and so eminent a statesman as our modern historians reveal to us, should have inspired the men of his own generation with complete lack of confidence, to speak mildly; and, before accepting this recent verdict, we would gladly hear counsel on the other side.

In one sense, it is true, Van Buren may be said to have anticipated his vindication, for the manuscript of this volume was submitted to him by Mr. Bancroft, and was pronounced by him to be, "as a record of facts relating to himself, authentic and true." It appears that Silas Wright suggested the writing of this sketch, and supplied very complete data for the purpose, but that, the public mind being "grievously agitated by party divisions on public affairs and on public men," its publication was postponed to a time more favorable to fairness of judgment. It seems strange that some part of the interval should not have been spent in completing the work, for that most interesting episode, Van Buren's candidacy on the Free-Soil ticket, is not so much as alluded to; indeed, the history closes with his term as President.

Compared with Mr. Shepard's Life of Van Buren in the "American Statesmen Series," this book is in almost every respect inferior. It has more quotations from Van Buren's writings and speeches, and contains a more detailed account of the earlier portion of his career; but the masterly comprehension of political history which distinguished Mr. Shepard's essay, is lacking. There is, in fact, little attempt at criticism; we have not noticed a judgment that was not favorable, and the general level of the book is not above that of a campaign biography. On this account its effect is weak. We listen with indifference to the statement that the vast progress in numberless directions made by the State of New York is due to the extension of the suffrage promoted by Van Buren, and with disgust to the information that, "by his especial direction, a public ordinance secured to the laborers on public works opportunity for due domestic enjoyment and repose." Such indiscriminate and even fulsome laudation defeats its own purpose, and we find ourselves wondering whether it may not be possible that the astute subject of this biography contrived its suppression until some period should have arrived "more favorable to a fairness of judgment on his character and career" than the lifetime of his contemporaries. Still, the book is worthy of an index—which it does not possess.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Mary. Alexia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Alphabetic Catalogue of the English Books in the Circulating Department of the Cleveland Public Library. Cleveland, Ohio.
Anderson, E. L. Modern Horsemanship. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Bamford, Mary E. Second Year of the Look-About Club. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Bell, Henry G. Mary Queen of Scots. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Bigelow, J. Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Björnson, B. Arne, and the Fisher Lassie. Scribner & Welford. $1.40.
Black, R. Death No Bane: A New Translation of Cicero's First Tusculan Disputation. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Brine, Mary D. The Boys and Girls of Marble Dale. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Burnside, Helen M. Christmas Lights.—The Lord's Prayer. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Cable, G. W. Strange True Stories of Louisiana. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Cable, G. W. The Silent South. New ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Chettle, E. M. Tiny Toddlers. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Crane, Walter. Flora's Feast: A Masque of Flowers. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Davies, T. A. Am I Jew or Gentile? E. H. Coffin. 25 cents.
Dr. E. G. F. Grisanowski. Mittellungen aus seinem Leben und seinen Briefen. Hanover: Schmorl & Von Seefeld.
Garnett, E. The Paradox Club. 2d ed. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Gilbert, Rev. G. H. The Poetry of Job. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Gilbert, W. S. Foggerty's Fairy, and Other Tales. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Golden Days and Silver Eves. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Haggard, R. Allan's Wife. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Haigh, A. E. The Attic Theatre. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Harper's Young People for 1889. Harper & Bros.
Harrison, C. H. A Race with the Sun: A Sixteen Months' Tour. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Hauff, W. The Wine Ghosts of Bremen. White & Allen. $1.50.
Heimburg, W. Magdalen's Fortunes. Worthington Co.
Hoffmann, Prof. More Magic. George Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Holst, Prof. H. von. Constitutional and Political History of the United States: 1856–1859. Buchanan's Election—End of 35th Congress. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Horwitz, Carrie N. Swanhilde, and Other Fairy Tales. Adapted from the German. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. A Hazard of New Fortunes. Harper & Bros.
Hubert, P. G., jr. Liberty and a Living. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jameson, Prof. J. F. Essays in the Constitutional History of the United States, 1775–1789. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.25.
Jessop, G. H. Gerald Ffrench's Friends. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Jewett, Sarah O. Betty Leicester: A Story for Girls. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Johnston, Prof. A. The United States: Its History and Constitution. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Josephus, F. Works. 3 vols. Scribner & Welford. $4.20.
Kate Greenaway's Book of Games. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.
Kent, C. The Modern Seven Wonders of the World. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.25.
Latnrop, G. P. Would You Kill Him? Harper & Bros.
La Ville de Mirmont, H. de. La Moselle d'Ausone. Bordeaux: G. Gounouilhou.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies and Practice: A Treatise on American Law in Civil Causes. Vols. I., II. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Learned, W. Between Times. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.
Leger, Prof. L. History of Austria-Hungary, from the Earliest Time to the Year 1889. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lyon, J. B. Statutes relating to the Taxing of Corporations by the State of New York for State Purposes. Banks & Bros. $1.50.
Macdonald, W. A. Humanitism: the Scientific Solution of the Social Problem. London: Trübner & Co.
Marbourg, D. "I Will Ne'er Consent": A Novel. Robert Belford.
Markham, C. R. Life of John Davis, the Navigator. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Mathews, Joanna H. Maggie Bradford's Club. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.
Matthews, B. A Family Tree, and Other Stories. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
McKendrick, Prof. J. G. Text-Book of Physiology. Vol. II. Special Physiology. Macmillan & Co. $6.
Morley, H. English Prose Writings of John Milton. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $1.
Morley, J. Walpole. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Munroe, K. Dorymates: A Tale of the Fishing Banks. Harper & Bros.
Murdock, H. The Reconstruction of Europe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Nichols, Laura D. Lotus Bay: A Summer on Cape Cod. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Noailles, Duc de. Cent Ans de République aux États-Unis. II. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Norris, W. E. Mrs. Fenton. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Norton, Mrs. Minerva B. In and Around Berlin. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Ober, F. A. The Knockabout Club in Spain. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Ohnet, G. Dernier Amour. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Parker, W. H. Familiar Talks on Astronomy. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Paul, C. K. The Thoughts of Blaise Pascal. Scribner & Welford. $1.40.
Pfeiffer, C. American Mansions. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Platt, J. Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Platt, J. Money. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Poyser, Arthur W. Magnetism and Electricity. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Reddall, H. F. Fact, Fancy, and Fable: A New Handbook for Ready Reference on Subjects Commonly Omitted from Cyclopædias. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $3.50.
René de Pont Jest. Rhea; or, the Case of Dr. Plemen. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Richards, Laura E. Queen Hildegarde: A Story for Girls. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Ricks, G. Natural History Object Lessons. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.35.
Ripper, W. Steam. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents
Rolleston, T. W. Life of Gotthold Ephraim Lessing. London: Walter Scott; New York: W. J. Gage & Co.
Rothschild, M. D. Handbook of Precious Stones. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Rushton, Rev. J. Christmas Carols Old and New. Chicago: Religious Newspaper Co.
Ruskin, J. Sesame and Lilies. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Sandford, F. R. The Bursting of a Boom. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Selfe, Rose E. Dr. Arnold of Rugby. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Serrano, Mary J. Marie Bashkirtseff: The Journal of a Young Artist. 1860–1884. Cassell & Co. $2.
Seven Days after the Honeymoon: A Cook-book. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Simon, A. H. Synthèse Scientifique et Philosophique. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Smith, G. A. Compendium and Concordance of the Complete Works of Shakspere. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $1.50.
Social Register, New York. 1890. Social Register Association. $2.50.
Steel, Rev. R. The Achievements of Youth. T. Nelson & Sons.
Stepniak. The Career of a Nihilist: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Stickney, A. The Political Problem. Harper & Bros.
Stoddard, W. O. R. B. Hayes, J. A. Garfield, and C. A. Arthur. (Lives of the Presidents.) Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.25.

Stowe, Rev. C. E. Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Taber, C. A. M. Winds, Ocean Currents, and Ice Periods. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis.
Thayer, Emma H. Wild Flowers of the Pacific Coast. Cassell & Co. $7.50.
The American Railway; Its Construction, Development, Management and Appliances. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $6.
The Bookworm. Second Series. A. C. Armstrong & Son $3.
The Characters of Charles Dickens Portrayed in a Series of Original Water Color Sketches, by "Kyd." Raphael Tuck & Sons.
The Voice of the Silence. W. Q. Judge.
Thiusen, I. A Far Look Ahead, or The Diothas. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Thomas, J. J. Froudacity: West Indian Fables by James Anthony Froude Explained. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $1.25.
Thurston, Elizabeth A. The Little, Wrinkled Old Man. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Townsend, T. S. The Honors of the Empire State in the War of the Rebellion. A. Lovell & Co. $2.50.
Trowbridge, J. T. The Adventures of David Vane and David Crane. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Van Dyke, H. The Poetry of Tennyson. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Vigney, A. de. Cinq-Mars; or, A Conspiracy under Louis XIII. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Walton, Amy. White Lilac; or, The Queen of the May. Scribner & Welford. $1.
Warner, C. D. A Little Journey in the World. Harper & Bros.
Warner, H. H. Songs of the Spindle, and Legends of the Loom. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Wedgwood, Julia. The Moral Ideal: An Historic Study. 2d ed. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Weeks, C. I. Human Life: A Poem. S. C. W. Byington & Co.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Cunning Woman's Grandson. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.

Fine Arts.

THE BARYE EXHIBITION.

THE Committee of the Barye Monument Association which has had in charge the organization of the exhibition now open at the American Art Galleries, rightly thought that, along with the works of Barye himself, should be shown some of those of his contemporaries and friends; and in choosing among these the names of Géricault, Delacroix, Corot, Dupré, Decamps, Diaz, Troyon, Rousseau, Millet, and Daubigny, they have presented a group of great artists who stand for a complete, definite movement in modern art. This movement, begun by Géricault and Delacroix, the leaders in the famous revolt against classicism, has extended to every part of the western world where art flourishes, and in France has produced, in the painters of Barbizon and their immediate contemporaries, the most admirable school of painting of our times. The idea in this movement, the thing that gave it its impulse and carried it through to the splendid results we find in the works in the present exhibition, is Life, the essence of things as they are in nature; and the expression of it involved the complete release of art from the formulas of the Academy to which David adhered with such obstinacy, and which M. Ingres never quite lost sight of, though the traditions to which he most fondly clung proceeded from the pure source of the Renaissance. Courbet should be included in this movement for many reasons, and, indeed, no painter among the contemporaries of Barye has had more influence on the art of to-day; but Courbet's place is at the head of the Impressionists, with whom the poet-painters of the forest of Fontainebleau have little in common. Rude certainly belongs in it, and as a sculptor he stands with Houdon and Barye, if not above them, as the leaders in the wonderful school of sculpture in France to-day, the only school of sculpture that exists that is worthy of the name, and in which all that is best is the outcome of the same principle that formed the guiding-star of the Romanticists and their followers in painting. It has not been possible here, however, to do what was done in the great Retrospective Exhibition just closed in Paris—that is, to show the development of French art during the present century in its entirety; nor has that been the aim of the Committee. What it has attempted to do is to show what was achieved in one direction by a group of painters, more than a hundred of whose works have been brought together at this exhibition, and who without question have produced the most perfect art the century has yet seen. The fact that in this comparatively small collection all of these great artists are adequately represented, and that many of the works are among the finest and most celebrated they ever produced, makes the exhibition one of the greatest importance, while it surpasses in interest any similar exhibition ever held in New York.

Antoine Louis Barye, born at Paris on September 24, 1796, was two months younger than Corot, who was born on the 20th of July, while both died in the same year, 1875, in which year, too, Millet and Rousseau passed away. Troyon had then been dead ten years, and Decamps fifteen; Diaz died the next year, and Daubigny in 1878; Jules Dupré, the last survivor, died only a few weeks ago. Appreciation of Barye's works has grown side by side with that of the great painters he lived with, and in whatever private gallery we find a Millet or a Corot we are almost sure to find some of the wonderful bronzes of the great sculptor. Beyond such genuine appreciation, however, has grown up a sort of exaggerated Barye "cult," and the ordinary Barbedienne bronzes which are cherished by their owners as "originals" are numerous and to be found almost everywhere. At this exhibition, where the splendid collections of Mr. W. T. Walters and of the Corcoran Gallery, among others, are shown, it is possible to see some of the finest specimens in existence, and some pieces that are unique examples. Not even in Paris would it be possible to bring together a finer collection than this. Yet it must be said that they cannot be seen to the best advantage, for, owing to the considerable number of duplicate casts in the exhibition and the small amount of space given to the placing of the pieces, the gallery is far too crowded, and many of the best things can only be seen from one point of view. The dignity of the work suffers from such a jumble, and it would have been better to have had more room or fewer pieces; but this was, no doubt, a matter that the Committee could not control without a lack of graciousness which is always expected of committees for loan exhibitions. If only the large plaster cast of the "Lion and Serpent" had been placed in another room, it would have been an improvement, and this magnificent group could have been seen, too, better than it can be in its present place. One wants clear space to walk around it, to approach, and draw away. For it is truly magnificent, this wonderful lion with his mane erect and his terrible paw holding the great serpent pinned to the earth. It is magnificent in its mighty grandeur, and all the dignity of the lion is expressed in it, along with all his force, his graceful strength, and that marvellous beauty of bone and sinew of the cat. It is in his figures of the cat tribe, moreover, that Bayre is at his best. His human figures are rugged and powerful in their way—at least some of them are—but more are commonplace and clumsy; his horses are almost without exception artificial in the exaggerated curves of the neck and over-lightness of limb; the deer and the birds are truthful enough and beautiful enough, and the dogs are thoroughly characteristic—good sagacious creatures like the beagles, or elegant and graceful like the beautiful "Greyhound Reclining," No. 83. The bears are the very heavy, shaggy fellows they are in life, with rolling movement of the body and clumsy paw. The bulls are, if anything, even better than any of these, and there is in the "Elephant of Cochin China," No. 21 (seen again in larger form and a unique example in "Elephant Walking," No. 423), such a master work as would alone make a sculptor of animals famous.

The closest observation of movement, the most exact truth to nature in structural detail, the most extraordinary sympathy with animal life, and a wonderful sort of intuition are shown in these works. Yet in those where he has to do with the tigers, the lions, the panthers, and the jaguars Barye's work reveals a still greater quality, a tragic sort of quality that amazes and terrifies and charms. Look at the "Jaguar Devouring a Hare." Could powerful, subtle strength be better expressed than in the nervous body of the beast, firm as steel and yet undulating like a serpent, as he crouches with his jaws fixed in the vitals of his prey? In the "Lion Walking" and "Tiger Walking" what strength and grace are expressed, and with what grand simplicity! In the "Lioness of Algiers," No. 140, what an intense feeling for the beautiful forms of the most graceful animals is shown in this animal standing still with head raised intently looking at something! The "Panther Seizing a Stag," No. 24; the "Tiger Devouring a Gavial," No. 29; the "Ocelot Carrying a Heron," No. 292; the "Tiger Surprising an Antelope," No. 275; the "Lion Sitting," No. 138, and "Two Young Lions Wrestling," No. 135, are all of them full of this splendid suppleness of the cats that makes them the most beautiful and at the same time the most terrible of animals. It is in these works far more than in any of the others that Barye's wonderful talent is shown, and in the whole range of sculpture there is nothing to equal them and only one thing to be compared to them. Frémiet, in his famous group of a gorilla carrying off a woman, has concentrated in the rigid strength of the animal's right arm and the iron grip of the hand, a sort of force that is found in the greatest works of Barye. It is almost as powerful as that marvellous paw of the lion that holds the serpent.

The collection of Barye's works, which numbers 453 pieces in metal, wax, and plaster, includes also a number of water-color drawings and a few studies in oil. What is true of the sculpture is equally true of the pictures—those depicting the animals of the feline race are the best. "Tiger," No. 478, a study in oil, is one of the finest of these, and among the water-colors, "Tiger Playing," No. 504; "Tiger Rolling," No. 502; "Walking Lion," No. 493; "Tiger Asleep," No. 469, and "Serpent Crushing an Antelope," No. 466, are especially to be noted. Of interest also are three or four little landscape studies, one of which, "Study of Trees, Fontainebleau," No. 514, is a sober bit of brown and dull yellows, suggesting the tawny coats of the animals the great sculptor so wonderfully portrayed. In this gallery also is hung a portrait of Barye by Bonnat, whose admiration of Barye's work amounts to a passion. It stands as the accepted portrait of the sculptor, and shows the figure in three-quarter length, the head inclined slightly forward, with a broad brow, deep-set eyes with a penetrating gaze, and a mouth and chin of great firmness.

No name is so intimately connected with the Barbizon School as that of Jean François Millet. Passing over his early period when he painted semi-classical subjects, Millet's life-work was done at Barbizon, in the fields about that little village on the borders of the noble forest. There he lived his humble, quiet life,

and there he painted those pictures of peasants' toil that have made his name the most famous one in the art of the century. It is especially interesting at this time, just after the undisputed triumph of his pictures "The Gleaners" and the "Peasant Leaning on His Hoe," at the Retrospective Exhibition in Paris, to find in the exhibition at the American Art Galleries what is without doubt the most complete collection of his works that has been brought together since the exhibition held in Paris after his death in 1875. Here are no less than twenty-two canvases, among which are some of his most important works and one that has been called his masterpiece. It is unnecessary to make comparisons between this exhibition and the one that has just closed in Paris, further than to say that there is here no single work by Millet that equals "The Gleaners." In that picture all that is best and greatest of his qualities is gathered. It is the one work of the great poet painter that leaves nothing unsaid he has said in other works, and yet says more. The most perfect of all his works technically, it is among the purest and most unaffected in sentiment. Nor is there here any picture that so admirably expresses what Millet strove to make us feel when he painted the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe," a picture wherein all the homely poetry of the peasant's plodding labor is resumed, and we are impressed in looking at it with the true sentiment of the toiler's life, alone on the broad plain, with the freshly turned earth sinking beneath his feet, and only the birds for companions. There is such another picture as this, "The Sower," in Mr. Vanderbilt's gallery, and it is a pity that it could not have been brought here and placed among these other beautiful works of the master.

Of course, in the present exhibition, "The Angelus" first demands our notice. Much has been said and written about this noted work, and it has been rated, justly enough on some accounts, as one of the finest of Millet's pictures. The question to be settled before we can decide where it is to stand among his works, is one that depends on whether sentiment that is extraneous to the actual truth of the subject has any place in a picture; and if it has not, how much the presence of such extraneous sentiment in a work of art may interfere with our enjoyment of it. In this single picture of Millet's we find, instead of the true sentiment of peasant life as it is expressed in "The Gleaners," "The Peasant Leaning on His Hoe," "The Sower," "The Buckwheat - Threshers," "The Churner," "The Grafter," and "The Planters," a religious sentiment that is artificial and forced, because it does not exist in the peasant; and the fact that it is only in this one picture that there is a trace of this sort of extraneous sentiment makes us wish that Millet had depended in this instance on the simple poetry of the hour, as he has in other pictures, for the true sentiment of the subject, and that his sympathetic brush had interpreted nothing but the real feeling of the peasant workers at the close of day. Technically considered, the picture is an admirable one, and ranks very high. The only fault to be found with it, perhaps, is that in general aspect the canvas is somewhat prettified, notably in the sky, where, on the left side, where it grows lighter as the place where the sun is setting is approached, the tone is too clean and a little too high in value to harmonize with the rest of the picture. The figures are marvellously enveloped in atmosphere, and as fine in character, apart from their unusual attitudes, as any of the peasants Millet has painted, with one or two exceptions; and there is nothing in any of his pictures more tenderly and beautifully painted than the field in the foreground and the plain stretching away to the distant village, with its church-tower in silhouette against the evening sky.

To see the "Buckwheat-Threshers," No. 555, is to see one of Millet's very finest compositions. As such there is no one of his pictures that surpasses it, unless it be that great masterpiece "The Gleaners," and the "Buckwheat-Threshers" has many points in common with that picture. Like it, it is a scene in a harvest-field, and the women in the foreground in each picture have the same sinewy strength that is only not grace because it is not meant to be. The "Buckwheat-Threshers" is not carried to the same point of finish in execution, but it is much like the other picture in the suggestion of the color scheme. "The Churner," No. 601, is one of the finest single figures Millet has painted, and the picture is notable for the beautiful painting of the interior of the cottage, where the churner is seen at her work. "The Sower," No. 620, again, is another excellent single figure. It is a different composition from the one in the Vanderbilt collection, the figure, for one thing, being smaller in the landscape and differently placed on the canvas. "Breaking Flax," No. 527, though a small picture, contains one of the very finest of Millet's female figures. Indeed, there is nothing more admirable in the galleries than this woman in her blue and gray gown of coarse stuffs, with every line of her body expressing the action in her work. Here, too, is found that wonderful humanity that Millet put in his pictures. It is only a picture of a woman working with her back turned to us, yet how full of real beauty it is, and what a delightful little piece of quiet color! "After the Bath," No. 587, is to be noted as the only study of the nude by Millet in the exhibition, belonging as it does to the period of his work that precedes the life of Barbizon. It is an admirable little figure, robustly modelled, and fine in tone. The other smaller pictures, each of which has distinctive characteristics and particular merits, are "Sheep-Shearing," No. 551; "The Shepherd," No. 602; "Woman Making Lye," No. 564; "Sea View off Cherbourg," No. 552 (a curious little canvas, one of the rare ones in which Millet has attempted to depict a purely marine view); and "The Gleaners," No. 588. This last picture is that fine little piece of blonde color which formerly belonged in the Spencer collection. The figures are almost identical in pose with those in "The Gleaners" in Paris, and they are grouped in about the same relative positions, except that in the larger picture the woman on the right is placed further away from the two others.

There is no more beautiful, no more poetical picture by Millet than "The Sheepfold—Moonlight," No. 545. Even in this collection, where the landscapes form such an important part, and where some of the finest of all that these great artists have painted may be seen, it impresses by its purity and truth. Two other pictures which belong in the domain of pure landscape show that Millet was a master of art in this field. They are "Landscape in Auvergne," No. 619, and "November," No. 608. The first is a splendid technical achievement, a great piece of pure painting from a simple motive, and especially remarkable for fine color quality; the second is equally simple, and from its subject—a ploughed hillside under a gray November sky, with a flock of birds rising at the high horizon—has a peculiar charm in its very nakedness. A fine landscape effect, though a trifle forced, is found also in the "Potato Harvest," No. 534, and the figures in this picture belong in the same category as those in the "Buckwheat-Threshers." They are hardy peasants painted in their true character at their work in the fields, without affectation or the attribution of a sentiment that does not belong to them. "The Turkey Keeper," No. 614, an important work notable for its landscape again, and with a telling figure wrapped in a cloak, is a canvas with a fine color-scheme very frankly and hardily suggested. The "Sheep-Shearing," No. 563, with its shepherd in blue blouse at the gate in the barn-yard, the gray walls of the farm buildings, and the grayish-white and brown of the sheep in the pens forming the principal notes of the color-scheme, is another beautiful picture of the farmer's life, and it is distinguished by a fine general tone of quiet gray that is especially delightful. In the "End of the Village—Gréville," No. 553, we find a remarkable Millet that is rather odd in composition and seems to be without interest at first glance, but which is nevertheless one of the best of the pictures here. Nothing could be more truthful than the effect of the gentle sunlight falling on the road and the wall at its edge where the cliff descends to the sea; and in the broad expanse of sea and sky beyond there is infinite charm.

Lastly, to complete this list of works wherein every side of Millet's temperament may be seen and studied, there are three pictures: "Waiting—Blind Tobit and his Wife," No. 573; "The Grafter," No. 628; and "The Planters," No. 554. "The Planters" closely resembles "The Angelus" in technical treatment, and though the time of day is different, there is a striking similarity in the color-schemes of the two pictures. In "The Planters," also, as in "The Angelus," there are two figures—a man and a woman—at work in the fields. "Waiting" is one of the most widely known of Millet's works, and it has been very highly ranked, but it cannot be said that it is one of the very best of his works, especially when it is seen in its present company. In so far as the sentiment of the subject is concerned, that is well suggested in the attitude of the blind man groping his way over the threshold of the cottage, and in the figure of his wife holding her hand above her eyes while she scans the horizon whither the road leads over the hilly ground to the west. But there is too much indifferent execution in the picture to give it a place among the best work of a man who at other times painted so perfectly, unless we are to throw everything aside when a canvas by Millet is in question, and say that everything he has done is well done. Still, there is a great deal of beauty in the picture, and it is not hard to explain how it has come by its high reputation. The things that are most easily appreciated in Millet's art are not always those which are of most value, and in this composition there was a story to tell, and its meaning is plain without the tablet on the frame that tells us the blind man and his wife are awaiting the arrival of their son. "The Grafters" is one of the best of Millet's works. Here is simplicity in subject and in painting. Here the figures of the man and of his wife, holding her child in her arms, are plain human beings seen in the garden of their humble homes and thinking of nothing beyond the life that surrounds them and the tasks they have to do. There is no more than that to say in the picture, but that is enough. Millet has said it quietly, soberly, and with his great art that dignifies the smallest and the humblest things, and this is the sort of pictures that have made of Millet the poet-painter his contemporaries knew and loved.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 12, 1889.

The Week.

THE following extraordinary confession about the silver question is made by President Harrison in his message:

"To the plan which will be presented by the Secretary of the Treasury for the issuance of notes or certificates upon the deposit of silver bullion at its market value, I have been able to give only a hasty examination. . . . At a later day I may communicate further with Congress upon this subject."

It must be remembered that the silver question has been for ten years the most important question—after the tariff—before the country, and that it has entered on an acute stage since President Harrison came into office, owing to the determination of the mine-owners to discover some method of making the Government buy more of their products. One of the first things Gen. Harrison ought to have done when he came into office was to study it thoroughly, so as to have a manly opinion about it when Congress met. He now confesses, after he has been nine months in office, that he knows nothing about it, and has only given his Secretary's remarkable scheme "a hasty examination." "What has he been doing to prevent his giving it attention?" the public may well ask. The answer is, that he has been all these nine months dividing small offices among a parcel of paltry schemers and political adventurers, and this in the teeth of a solemn promise, made before election, that he would do nothing of the kind. In other words, he has in nine months rendered no proper service for his salary, besides bitterly disappointing the good folks who believed that he was an honest and faithful, as well as a pious, man.

We have received letters asking us to explain Secretary Windom's plan for dealing with the silver question, the writers saying that although they have read it, they do not understand it. Perhaps the best explanation may be given by an illustration. The Secretary states his plan in these words:

"Issue Treasury notes against deposits of silver bullion at the market price of silver when deposited, payable on demand in such quantities of silver bullion as will equal in value, at the date of presentation, the number of dollars expressed on the face of the notes at the market price of silver; or in gold, at the option of the Government; or in silver dollars, at the option of the holder. Repeal the compulsory feature of the present coinage act."

Under this plan a depositor of 1,000 ounces of silver bullion, when the market price is 94 cents per ounce, would receive Treasury notes (not legal tender) to the amount of $940. These Treasury notes the depositor could pay to anybody who should be willing to receive them. The Government would be obliged to redeem the certificates either in gold at par, or by giving a quantity of silver bullion equal in market value to the face of the notes at the time when redemption was called for. In other words, the Government would redeem the notes either by paying $940 gold, or by turning over to the holder as much silver bullion as would sell for $940 gold in the market, at its own option. But the holder would have the option of taking $940 in standard silver dollars in lieu of either of these modes of payment, and his option would be paramount. In the event that silver has fallen in price meanwhile, the Government will lose the difference. If it has risen in price, the Government will make a profit. The Government under this plan becomes an insurer of silver, but, in order to guard against speculation and combination, the Secretary asks for power to sell silver bullion in the market. The plan is not easily understood except by experts and economists, and this is one of the arguments against its adoption. It is of the first importance that all laws regulating the currency of the country should be simple and free from mystery.

Mr. Windom mentions in his report "one cause which, probably more than any other except hostile legislation, has depressed the market value of silver, namely, the sale of Indian Council bills." He adds:

"About 1867 a diminution in the flow of silver to the East was clearly marked. This was due to the use of bills of exchange, called 'Council bills,' sold by the India Council of the Government of India residing in London. These bills of exchange, which are claims for certain sums of silver, are bought by merchants wishing to make payments in India, silver being the standard and only legal tender in that empire; so that just as the expenses of the Indian Government rose, and, in consequence, the number of Council bills offered for sale in London increased, the exportation of silver to India was saved. . . .

"These $50,000,000 to $90,000,000 of Council bills, payable in silver, annually thrown upon the market, affect the price of silver as would the sale of so much bullion. That these Council bills hang like an incubus upon the price of silver cannot be doubted, and they must enter largely into any inquiry as to the causes of depreciation, and into any estimate of the probable advance of that metal."

All this is very dark and needs much elucidation. "Council bills" are simply bills of exchange drawn on the Indian Treasury by the home Government. They are payable in India in silver, and they are therefore bought, like all other bills of exchange in London, by merchants who owe silver in India, to save themselves the cost and trouble of sending silver to India. The Government draws and sells them to save the Indian Treasury the trouble and expense of sending silver to London. The use of them doubtless occasionally prevents a slight temporary rise of silver in London, and a slight temporary rise of silver in Calcutta and Bombay. They do not, of course, either increase or diminish by one ounce the quantity of silver in the market. They simply save cost of transportation. How, then, they "hang like an incubus on the silver market," passes comprehension. All that the Secretary offers in support of his view is figures showing that, as the amount of Council bills increases, the imports of silver into India from England decrease. But he might also show that for the very same reason the exports of silver from India decrease. They do not affect the general and permanent demand for silver, except in so far as they prevent a certain quantity of it being boxed up for four weeks at a time in steamers between London and Bombay. Great quantities of bills of exchange payable in gold pass every week between London and New York. Are they an "incubus" on gold?

Under the head of "Deposits of Public Money," Secretary Windom makes an elaborate attack on his predecessor in office. He thinks that the deposit of public money in the banks is contrary to the spirit of the subtreasury act, and that it "necessarily involves the temptation to favoritism of the most objectionable character"; also, that "it is grossly unjust to the Government to grant the free use of its money while it pays to the very parties thus favored 4 and 4½ per cent. interest on its own bonds, which are pledged as security for the money thus received." He calls these deposits "one of the gravest inherited misfortunes of the Administration," and in fact lectures Mr. Fairchild through two full pages of his report, thus putting on record a reprimand by one Secretary of another. It would have been better manners (and in this we think that the whole business community will agree) if Mr. Windom had said that these deposits had been placed in the banks by his predecessor in the first instance under a doubt as to his legal authority to buy bonds at a premium beyond the amount required for the annual sinking fund, and that they had been continued down to the 4th of March, 1889, in order to avoid the payment of what were considered excessive premiums, but that he (the present Secretary) thought that better dispositions could be made. Then if he could give any reasons for continuing the deposits nearly a year after Mr. Fairchild went out of office and he came in, it would have been quite in order to state them. It is easy to see that these two pages in Mr. Windom's report are a late conception, and are in the nature of a stump speech, the effectiveness of which is much impaired by the lapse of time.

Secretary Windom says of a "horizontal" reduction of duties:

"It would diminish the demand for American labor and capital by the amount of labor and capital expended in foreign countries upon the production of such increased importations."

Well, if this be so, how would the importations be paid for? Does he mean to say that foreigners would furnish them gratis? If they send them here for sale, whose labor and capital would supply the means of settling the bills? If not American labor and capital, whose would they be? Importations are nearly all made to order, and are drawn against by the consignors of the goods abroad, and none are delivered unless the ex-

porters feel sure of their pay. One of the crazes of the high-tariff men is that people go on importing foreign goods after the demand for their own products has ceased, or, in other words, when they are no longer able to pay for them. But every man, or nearly every man, who finds the demand for his own goods declining, cuts down his supply of other people's goods. This is "elementary," as the French say, and that Mr. Windom does not know it well we refuse to believe.

A nation which has escaped the threatened disgrace of having a commonplace Indianapolis lawyer receive the highest judicial honor, simply because he has been the President's law-partner, has especial reason for rejoicing that the vacant place on the Supreme bench has finally been awarded to so good a man as Judge Brewer of the United States Circuit Court—even if it be true, as the well-informed Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Inquirer* intimates, that the discreditable appointment of Attorney-General Miller is only postponed until the occurrence of another vacancy, which is soon expected through the resignation of one of the judges who have long been able to retire upon pensions. Judge Brewer has already served upon the bench more than a quarter of a century, having been steadily promoted from the Probate Court of his county in Kansas, through a District Court, and then the Supreme Court of that State, until, five years ago, he was appointed by President Arthur United States Circuit Judge for the Eighth Circuit. He has demonstrated, in this long judicial service, his entire fitness for a place on the highest bench ; he is a man of the highest personal character, and, as he is only fifty-two years old, has every prospect of long service in his new office; and altogether his selection appears to merit unqualified praise.

The committee assignments made by Speaker Reed, so far as they have been announced, are satisfactory. It was quite proper that Mr. McKinley should be Chairman of the Ways and Means. He represents the dominant feeling of his party on the tariff question, whether it be the dominant feeling of the country or not. The chief interest attaches to the question whether the Committee as constituted will vote for the Senate Tariff Bill of the last Congress, with its increased duties on wool. It looks to us as though there might be two Republican members of the Committee who would not support such an increase. If so, the extremists will not be able to carry their point, for of course all the Democratic members will vote against such increase. Mr. Gear of Iowa, one of the new Ways and Means Committee, is quoted as saying since the November election in that State: "I am satisfied that the Republican party must either cut loose from its high-protection theories, and at once set about a radical reform of the present revenue system, or give up all hopes of a return of power." Whether he has said this or not, it is very likely that he has thought it. If Mr. Cannon is to be the master of his own Committee and remains of the same mind as formerly, the steamship subsidists will have a hard road to travel. He has been the most pronounced anti-subsidy man in the House of either party. On one notable occasion he defeated a subsidy bill after it had passed the Senate. That is, he took the leadership of the opposition and carried the House with him by sheer will-power and force of argument. This bill was known at the time as the John Roach Brazil mail subsidy. Its scalp hangs in Mr. Cannon's wigwam at this hour.

Senator Edmunds's plan for the foundation of a national university in Washington has been expected ever since the scheme of a Catholic University in the same city began to take shape. Senator Ingalls introduced a bill embodying the same idea four years ago, which was never acted on. Senator Edmunds's bill is intended to be, as Senator Ingalls's was, but more directly, a sort of Protestant offset to the Catholic institution, and expresses the dislike of the various evangelical denominations, especially of the West, to seeing the national capital made a great centre of Catholic influence. It is said to follow the lines of Senator Ingalls's as to organization. Senator Ingalls's bill provided for a Board of Regents, composed of members appointed by the Governor of each State, with five members-at-large to be appointed by the President, and a number of ex-officio members, to be furnished by various learned and scientific societies. Unless Senator Edmunds can improve on this, the scheme is doomed to failure as a University from the outset, although it might be in some ways a beneficial outlet for Government money. The governing body would be controlled by politicians, and be constantly subject to their criticisms and attacks in Congress, which would make it difficult for self-respecting scholars to keep their places in the University. There would probably soon arise in it Republican history and Democratic history, Republican political economy and Democratic political economy, and perhaps also party geology and chemistry. Fancy Mr. George Hoar or Senator Farwell or Rising-Sun-Stove-Polish Morse having a voice in directing the teaching in a great college, and we shall have an idea of the difficulties which might arise. All this was foreseen some time ago by some of the presidents of existing universities, and a movement was made, we do not know with what result—though it may be that Senator Edmunds's scheme is the result—to get the Government to endow a university in Washington to be controlled by some sort of joint Board furnished by the present colleges. It may be laid down as a rule that no real university can exist which is not governed by the Faculty. A university at Washington, so governed, might be the glory of the country, for the riches of Washington in libraries and scientific collections are now extraordinarily great. But a political college in whose doings every Son of Thunder whom the President or the Governor of a State wished to "recognize," would have a finger, would be simply, in the long run, a national shame.

A careful examination of the Republican press has not yet discovered any commendation of the endorsement which the President gives to the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy." The scheme was already so thoroughly discredited by public sentiment that a canvass of Republican editors would have shown a general agreement with the opinion recently expressed by the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, that "nobody believes in it but a few sentimentalists and surplus-killers." Now that Mr. Harrison has arrayed himself with this little band, the muzzled editors feel bound to suppress their honest convictions and keep silence about his folly; but the unmuzzled ones continue to speak their minds with entire freedom. Thus, the Buffalo *Express* says: "We are sorry to see the President flirting with that dangerous fad, national aid to education." After noting the qualification of his endorsement of the scheme, the *Express* adds: "But it is the entrance upon such a policy of pauperization that is to be dreaded. Better leave it alone. It is not needed." So, too, the Indianapolis *News*, an independent journal which supported Harrison for President, in the faith that he would have the courage to resist the Blair school of cranks, says: "Though he does not go the full length of a definite and colossal appropriation for years, as the Blair bill provided, he accepts it by espousing its principle and suggesting that it be tried for one year. This is most unsatisfactory ; for while it is a full surrender to and embracing of the idea and action, it is done in a way that suggests timidity; the same in kind, but greater in degree, perhaps, than the attitude on tariff revision." The only result of the President's course in endorsing this demoralizing scheme, at a time when it has come to be almost universally condemned, will be to weaken himself; for it is obvious that nothing can now put strength into the bill itself.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt has been denouncing, with praiseworthy vigor, the following story set afloat by the Indianapolis *Journal*, the President's family paper, on the authority of Senator Gorman of Maryland:

> "A very bright young man, of splendid physique, and perfectly familiar with every street and number in the city, submitted himself for examination for a position as letter-carrier. He could read and write, and had been attending night school, and was in every way fitted for a letter-carrier, but failed when asked the most direct route from Baltimore to China. He said he had never been in China, nor did he expect to go there, and he only wanted to be a letter-carrier."

Mr. Roosevelt pronounces this "absolutely false and foolish," and challenges the production of proof that any such question was ever asked. The proof will not be forthcoming. The story is simply a sample of hundreds which politicians circulate among their constituents. But it ought to be said, in excuse for Mr. Gorman and his kind, that we believe they rarely invent such stories themselves. They are in nine cases out of ten the production of candidates who have failed to pass the examination, or have only secured a low standing on the eligible list, and wish to

account for their failure to their friends in some creditable way.

The *Civil-Service Reformer* publishes two letters—one from Charles J. Bonaparte and the other from Lucius B. Swift—to an unnamed correspondent who had asked them certain questions "in behalf of a Cabinet officer." The *Reformer* intimates that the questioner was the private secretary of Mr. Wanamaker. These questions were three in number, viz.: (1) whether civil-service reform does not logically require pensions for superannuated clerks; (2) whether there is not already an excess of certified candidates for clerkships; and (3) whether there is not serious danger that "in ten or fifteen years some of the departments will be seriously crippled by the inefficiency of old clerks who cannot be discharged." Mr. Bonaparte gives a stinging reply to the ignoramus who wrote or inspired the questions. "Civil-service reform has no more to do," he says, "with a system of superannuation pensions than it has with a system of compulsory vaccination." There is no more reason, and no less, why the Government should pension its clerks than why Mr. Wanamaker should pension his salesmen and shop-walkers. As to the excess of qualified applicants, a similar excess exists in the offices of merchants without harm. But it must be a great relief to a Cabinet officer having public duties to perform that he can refer Congressmen and politicians who are pushing him for places, to the law and the list, and show them that he has no power to answer their importunities. Finally, the Civil-Service Law does not prevent the discharging of anybody. It only prevents the filling of the discharged man's place by "pressure." Mr. Swift answers this interrogatory neatly thus:

> "The merit system puts no limits upon the power of removal for cause. It is cause for removal that a clerk has got too old to perform his duties. He takes his chances when he enters the service. It is a strange objection to urge that a man ought to be removed at the end of four years for no cause, and not at the end of twenty for cause."

Let Mr. Wanamaker try again, and ask a harder one.

In Birmingham (Alabama) on Tuesday week, Dr. J. D. S. Davis and Dr. W. Locke Chew had a dispute over the proper treatment of kidney diseases at a meeting of the local Medical Society. After the adjournment it was renewed in the street, and Dr. Davis found it necessary to kill Dr. Chew, which he did with his pistol. Now, this is one of the puzzling cases which we so often have to ask Southern Sociologists to explain. Here are two members of a learned profession, both, we are told, "highly successful practitioners," who dispute as medical men over a professional question—a thing which happens in all countries; but when they lose their tempers—also a common occurrence among doctors—they settle the dispute after the fashion of "medicine men." Why is this? One would expect a pair of doctors who try to murder each other about the way to treat "kidney troubles," to treat them as a medicine man or magician would treat them—by giving the patients a draught made by stewing a fillet of snake, a newt's eye, a frog's toe, a bat's wool, a dog's tongue, and a lizard's leg all together in sow's milk, to be taken hot at bedtime, in the moon's last quarter. But we have not the slightest doubt that every member of the Birmingham Medical Society treats kidney disease after the most approved modern methods, and is, in all respects, except this homicidal tendency, a civilized modern man. What does it mean? Nor is this the only case of the kind. We can recall a most desperate medical fight, in the hospital at New Orleans, some years ago, between the resident surgeons and an outside practitioner over a man afflicted with an aneurism of the subclavian artery. The case was a very interesting one, and the hospital surgeons wanted to keep it, but the outside practitioner induced the patient to leave the hospital and come to him (the outsider) for treatment. When the wagon came to remove him, the resident surgeons determined not to surrender him without a struggle, and opened a sharp pistol fire on the interloper, who returned it vigorously, the balls whistling round the aneurism in a way that nearly frightened the poor invalid to death. One if not more of the belligerents was killed, and the horse ran away, frightened by the firing; but the outsider finally, as we remember the affair, got his aneurism. The scene was worthy of Morocco or Zululand, but the combatants were doubtless all well-educated doctors. Why do such men at the South keep murder in their minds as a possible or conceivable mode of settling small quarrels? We do not know of a more interesting sociological inquiry.

Mr. Gladstone's speech before the Liberal Federation at Manchester on December 3 was mainly important as producing the Liberal programme in full for the coming session of Parliament. Home Rule, the disestablishment of the Church in Wales, free education, are the three leading points in it. About Home Rule he did not enter into details, and says he will not do so as long as he is out of power, unless the Tories accept the principle. As long as they declare they will never agree to Home Rule at all, it would be useless, he says, to furnish them with a plan of Home Rule, as they would simply tear it to pieces. In this reticence all the other party leaders support him. John Morley goes beyond all the others in advocating a very large treatment of social questions. English politics during the next year promise to be increasingly lively, owing to the fact that the dissolution of Parliament is getting very near. Usage prescribes it in 1891, and the law will compel it a year later. The probabilities are that the Ministry will not defer it longer than 1891, so that 1890 will be a year of preparation and fearful looking for judgment.

A very curious illustration of the troubles arising out of the connection between Church and State in England has just occurred in the diocese of Rochester. A Mrs. Swayne presented herself for the Communion in the parish of a minister named Benson, who refused to admit her to it, on the ground that she was guilty of schism in having taken a sitting in a Methodist church. Being asked whether he considered schism to be the equivalent of "open and notorious evil living," he said he did. Mrs. Swayne appealed to the Bishop, who followed the legal course of procedure by appointing a commission to report the facts. The commission heard both sides and found there was no dispute about the facts. All attempts at compromise failed, Mrs. Swayne's offence all the while growing more hideous in Mr. Benson's eyes. The case was then sent in due course to the Court of Arches, where he was ordered to admit Mrs. Swayne to the Communion. Still refusing, he was suspended from his parish for one year, and a curate sent to take his place. He locked the church door against the curate and continued his ministrations. He will now go to jail for contumacy. In spite of Mr. Benson's violence, he has, however, a great many apologists among those who think it foul scorn that a civil judge should have power to mandamus a clergyman into administering the Communion. But he is also disobeying his bishop, who likewise ordered him to admit Mrs. Swayne to the Communion, and he has repudiated the bishop.

If Emin Pasha were to die now before leaving African soil, at the termination of his long labors and privations, it would be one of the most tragic incidents in the history of exploration. It would be the more tragic because Stanley's last letter, describing his final start for the coast, intimates with but little reservation that Emin embarrassed him greatly by his vacillation and by his blind confidence in a lot of very rascally followers. They joined him on the Lake Nyanza, with a great quantity of household "rubbish" which his men were nearly worn out with carrying up to the plateau from the steamer, and then began to conspire and mutiny, and had to be cowed into good order by flogging and threats of execution. In dealing with all these troubles, Emin appears to have given Stanley very little support, owing to his difficulty in making up his mind to come away. He was probably a good deal broken by sickness and prolonged anxiety, so that it is for the sake of his own fame, if for no other reason, extremely desirable that he should reach home, and recover his health, and tell his story in his right mind. The expedition by which he has been rescued is perhaps the most extraordinary one of its kind on record, and puts Stanley in the foremost rank of leaders of men—a born commander. It must always be a great feather in the cap of the proprietor of the *Herald* that he should have been the first to recognize the man's qualities and give him the opportunity to show the stuff that was in him. But for him Stanley might have remained a chronicler of "Papal banks" and other blatherskite sensations, which constitute so much of the home "news."

SIGNS OF PROGRESS.

SECRETARY WINDOM makes at the close of his annual report a notable and valuable tribute to the efficacy of the civil-service-reform regulations as applied in the Treasury Department. Having, as he says, been at the head of the Department both before and since the adoption of the Civil-Service Law, he is able to judge by comparison of the two systems, and he leaves no chance for doubt as to his opinion. "I have no hesitation," he says, "in pronouncing the present condition of affairs as preferable in all respects," adding:

"Under the old plan, appointments were usually made to please some one under political or other obligations to the appointee, and the question of fitness was not always the controlling one. The temptation to make removals only to provide places for others was always present and constantly being urged by strong influences, and this restless and feverish condition of departmental life did much to distract and disturb the even current of routine work. Under instrumentalities which are now used to secure selections for clerical places, the Department has some assurance of mental capacity, and also of moral worth: the character of the candidates is ascertained before examination. The manifold duties of the Department require the closest application on the part of the Secretary and his assistants; and the freedom from importunity now enjoyed for appointments to places that are within the classified service, and the saving of valuable time heretofore devoted to the distribution of minor patronage, are of very great advantage, and enable these officers to devote more thought to the important questions of administration constantly arising. The clerks received from the Civil-Service Commission usually adapt themselves readily to the duties they are called upon to perform, and rank among the most efficient in the Department."

Not the least striking part of that testimony is the direct statement, near the close, that it is through the "saving of valuable time heretofore devoted to the distribution of minor patronage" that the Civil-Service Law "enables the Secretary and his assistants to devote more thought to the important questions of administration which are constantly arising." In other words, were it not for the law, the officers of the most important branch of the Government would be able to devote only a part of their time and thought to the public business. In the same manner the Secretary's testimony to the superior moral and clerical capacities of appointees under the civil-service rules over those secured through political influence, is confession that the routine business of the Department could be carried on only in a most unsatisfactory manner were the old condition of affairs to be restored. Why should it be necessary to point out in an official report, and to call attention to them as noteworthy, such obvious facts as these? Simply because professional politicians whose position in politics depends entirely upon the number of offices whose distribution they are able to control, go about constantly deriding the Civil-Service Law as a humbug, and declaring on every occasion that its examinations are, in the language of Senator Farwell, confined to questions about "geometry, the history of ancient Rome, and the principles of evolution." Mr. Windom's testimony is of incalculable value in refuting these tiresome falsehoods, especially when it is addressed to Congress and is printed in all the newspapers of the country, including those which have for years been uttering the stale inventions of the Farwell style of statesmen.

It is an instructive and encouraging fact that many of the most earnest advocates of civil-service reform to-day are converts who have been convinced of its efficacy by being called upon to administer offices in one way or another under its jurisdiction. A notable convert of this kind was Gen. Sickles, appointed by Gov. Hill to the Chairmanship of the Civil-Service Commission of this State. A very short acquaintance with the details of the law which he was called upon to execute, convinced him of both its wisdom and desirability, and, within a few months after his entrance upon office, we were treated to the extremely edifying spectacle of seeing him threatening to hit over the head with his crutch a mayor of one of our smaller interior cities, who in the General's presence denounced the law as a humbug, and expressed his determination to evade it in all possible ways.

A scarcely less notable convert has been made in Milwaukee within the past few weeks. Mr. Newell, who had served in the campaign of last year as Secretary of the Wisconsin Republican State Committee, was appointed Postmaster as a reward for his political services. Soon after entering upon his duties, he was asked to appoint a certain man to one of the unclassified positions in the Post-office. The applicant was endorsed by several prominent Republicans, and strong party pressure was exerted in his favor. When Mr. Newell looked into the man's record, he found, to quote his own words, that "he had been hanging about town for a number of years doing nothing, and had even spent some of his time in the penitentiary." He went to the applicant's Republican backers and asked them why they did not employ the man in their private business. Their indignation at this was unbounded, and no wonder. They had been used to that kind of question from reformers and Mugwumps, and had laughed at it as "theoretical," and as of no importance save as a revelation that its propounders had no knowledge of "practical politics"; but when it came to them from the Secretary of their own Campaign Committee, that was quite another matter, especially as it could not be answered in any except the most unsatisfactory manner. As for the Postmaster, this and other similar incidents made him a civil-service reformer on the spot, and he caused public announcement of the fact to be made as follows:

"I am getting tired of hearing people talk to me about political influence in order to induce me to retain an employee or to have some one else appointed. The Government has seen fit to appoint me Postmaster, and in return the Government is justified in expecting from me the very best service. For this purpose I expect and intend to have only the very best quality of help. Capability and fitness, nothing else, are to determine the tenure and the appointment of every employee as long as I am here. All other considerations are out of place. This or that person may be needy or may have the backing of public men. I shall not be guided by any consideration of that kind."

This is certain to be the result in every case in which an intelligent and conscientious man is put into an administrative office. Even if he have the double conscience necessary to enable him to apply one kind of morality to his private business and another kind to his public office, his comfort as a business man, his desire for the orderly and intelligent conduct of the service under his control, will lead him to revolt against the old system of appointment by "influence" and "pulls." Sentiment in this direction is growing all the time, and growing much more rapidly than most observers suspect. Even Senator Farwell shows signs of being conscious of this fact, for his determination to take the field against the Civil-Service Law is weakened. He remarked with much humor recently that he had not read the annual report of the Civil-Service Commission, but expected to "have a good time" when he did read it, for really "this civil-service system is a fraud of the worst kind, a cheat, a delusion, a humbug; in fact, you cannot say anything too mean of it." And then as evidence that so far as he was personally concerned there was nothing to be done against it which was too mean for him to undertake, Mr. Farwell said that he did not know that he should introduce a bill to repeal the law, as he had at first proposed, because "we can do just as well by refusing to appropriate the funds on which it depends. It was beaten that way before, and we are going to do our best to beat it that way once more again." It was done that way once in Gen. Grant's time, but it did not kill the reform. We venture to predict that the experiment will not be repeated this year, and that the only result of Mr. Farwell's crusade will be the revelation which he has made of his preference for sneaking over open methods of warfare. He has shown that there is sentiment enough in favor of the law to make an open attempt to repeal it futile.

DEPOSITS OF PUBLIC MONEY IN BANKS.

THE statute under which the Treasury makes deposits in national banks received such curious treatment in last week's official documents that it is worth while to reprint the text of the law. It is to be found in section 45 of the National Currency Act, approved June 3, 1864, (section 5133, U. S. Revised Statutes), and reads as follows:

"All associations under this act, when designated for that purpose by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be depositaries of public money, except receipts from customs, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary; and they may also be employed as financial agents of the Government; and they shall perform all such reasonable duties, as depositaries of public moneys and financial agents of the Government, as may be required of them.

"And the Secretary of the Treasury shall require of the associations thus designated satisfactory security, by the deposit of United States bonds and otherwise, for the safe-keeping and prompt payment of the public money deposited with them, and for the faithful performance of their duties as financial agents of the Government."

Here are plain powers given to the Secretary, and for twenty-five years these powers have been used, sometimes less and sometimes more freely, but always on the judg-

ment and responsibility of the Secretary of the day. It is of deposits of public money made under this law that President Harrison says: "The loaning of public funds to the banks without interest, upon the security of Government bonds, I regard as an unauthorized and dangerous expedient." In what sense can these deposits, or, as the President calls them, loans, be said to be unauthorized, since the law has for twenty-five years expressly permitted them, and has not been a dead letter? As for their being dangerous, we believe there has never been any loss caused by them. From the first until now, while some people may have felt or expressed fears about them, there has been no danger.

The remarks of the President may perhaps be passed over lightly, as the business belongs more particularly to the Secretary of the Treasury. What Mr. Windom says on the subject must be taken very strictly; it is his business to be both right and accurate. His utterances, so far as their reflections upon his predecessor in office are concerned, have already received our attention; but they also merit notice for the manner in which they treat the law. The statute expressly authorizes the Secretary to deposit public money, except receipts from customs, in national banks; and the Secretary is left to decide for himself how large such deposits shall be. What is the sense of saying, as Mr. Windom does, that the policy of making deposits larger than he approves is "contrary to the spirit of the act of August 6, 1846, which contemplates a Sub-Treasury independent of the banks"? A criticism of this kind ignores the act of June 3, 1864, ignores the financial history of twenty-five years, and recalls the sleep of Rip Van Winkle. From a man who has been United States Senator, and is now Secretary of the Treasury for the second time, it is simply astonishing.

Further, Mr. Windom finds that the law (for it is the law which must bear his criticisms) "involves temptation to favoritism of the most objectionable character." All power involves temptation; power conferred by statute involves temptation to wrong-doing in the field covered by the statute. But this is familiar to every one, and yet under our system the powers of an office are conferred by statute, and those powers must be pretty large in the case of a Secretary of the Treasury. If Mr. Windom were now as severe with himself as he is with the Congress of 1864, or if he were as scrupulous about the collection of public money, from customs let us say, as he professes to be about its custody, his strictures would have greater weight; he might even make us forget the exaggeration and violence of tone which characterize them.

Mr. Windom further blames the law for giving the "free use" of the Government's money to people who already draw interest on Government bonds. But the law leaves the Secretary to decide whether he shall or shall not exact interest on his deposits in national banks; the deposits are to be made "under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary." It has always been open to Mr. Windom to demand interest on Treasury deposits, but he has not seen fit to do so, though he has been nine months in office. Surely such a policy must have been suggested to him, if it did not occur to his own mind; it was so obvious a step for him to take, particularly as he was buying bonds for cancellation, and wished to buy in larger amounts. Moreover, the great ease of money which lasted until the middle of August, gave him ample and appropriate opportunity to demand interest.

The statute which so strangely excites Mr. Windom is likely, we imagine, to remain in force. It has been the means of saving the business of the country from absolute confusion, and will, very likely, be called upon to perform the same function again, if not in Mr. Windom's time, then in the time of some future Secretary of the Treasury. The deposits made under the statute are, of course, only an expedient; at the present moment, Mr. Windom's policy of calling them in by small instalments on ample notice is bringing large amounts of bonds to him for sale, and we rejoice that this success follows his recent circular, because, when he has a surplus to dispose of, it is better to buy bonds with it than to keep it on deposit with or without interest. But this is not the whole of the matter. Mr. Windom, we will suppose, wished a week ago to reduce his bank deposits from $47,000,000, at which they then stood, by easy stages to the amount which he considers really useful in the conduct of public business. For convenience we will call this amount $20,000,000. If, therefore, instead of $3,407,000 of bonds sold to him this past week by banks holding Treasury deposits, the whole mass of what he considers redundant deposits, say $27,000,000, had been settled by sale to him of the bonds deposited as security, his circular would have met with unexampled success, and he would now once more be called upon to face the standing difficulty of our financial system, the hoarding of lawful money by the Treasury of the United States. And to meet this difficulty, he will find no certain resource but this law of 1864 which so exasperates him.

MR. WANAMAKER ON SUBSIDIES.

On October 21, 1884, Mr. John Wanamaker, merchant, of Philadelphia, appeared before the Commission appointed to promote trade with South America, and testified: "My business is not such as would make me intelligent on this subject." That part of the annual report of the Hon. John Wanamaker, Postmaster-General of the United States, which deals with "this subject" shows that the Philadelphia merchant told the truth. It is full of misstatements, and, while aiming to set forth the views of the subsidy-seekers, is not "intelligent" enough to do even that without muddling.

"There exists," says the Postmaster-General, "a widespread demand for prompt, regular, efficient, and speedy mail service . . . especially to our Central American, Mexican, and South American neighbors, and to the trans-Pacific countries." Where does it exist, and what is the evidence that it exists at all? Mr. Wanamaker does not say, because he cannot; he has taken the word of the subsidy-men for it. He has not read the testimony of the merchants engaged in the South American trade; they ask for lower freights, in some cases, but are satisfied with the mail facilities. For example, Mr. M. L. Bandel of Baltimore, a South American shipper, told the Commission that "the means for mail communication were ample, and communication was now established by telegraph. They could cable by way of Galveston or Europe." The view of this merchant was strikingly confirmed within a year. The steamship lines tried to boycott Postmaster-General Vilas into submission, the next summer, by refusing to take the mails on the Government's terms. He was able to get the work done by tramp steamers and sailing vessels, with, as he reported, very slight delays. Then the steamer-owners were glad to eat humble pie and take the mails again. If Mr. Wanamaker maintains that more frequent mails are a necessity, there are steamers in plenty engaged in the South American trade that would gladly take mails, and at less rates than the complaining American lines. What he really means is, of course, that there is a "widespread demand" for a subsidy.

The Postmaster-General speaks enthusiastically of "the tremendous increase of trade with foreign nations that follows the establishment of American steamship lines between this and other countries." The only fact he refers to in support of this statement is not a fact: there is no contract, as he supposes, between Australia and an American steamship line. Of course, he, in common with all the other short-memoried subsidy advocates, knows nothing about past experiments. He never heard of the $4,583,333 paid by the United States into the treasury of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company between 1867 and 1877. Who ever heard of any "tremendous increase of trade" resulting from that—except the trade of lobbyists and dishonest Congressmen? He knows nothing of the Garrison subsidy of $150,000 a year for ten years, on the Brazil line, and the positive injury to trade caused by that monopoly. Mr. E. A. Hopkins of Buenos Ayres, himself a believer in subsidies, says about this line: "It was a monopoly. . . . The prices of freight and passage were almost prohibitory to outsiders, and the whole management was an outrage on the public." Of the Roach subsidized line Mr. Eugene Levering, the prominent coffee-merchant of Baltimore, said, "It was a failure. Subsidy led to extravagance. . . . Subsidized steamers would not care whether they obtained freight or not." Mr. Wanamaker and the subsidy-men forget all these facts. Neither they nor any honest man will dare to defend the past of subsidies in this country; it is always the coming subsidy that is going to be pure and of good report.

When the Postmaster-General comes to name actual amounts for subsidies, he blunders badly, so the subsidy-hunters will say. The idea of thinking it may be "advisable" to have the subsidies "limited at least to the profits accruing" from the foreign mails! Those profits, according to the report, even

when a point is stretched and "no allowance for inland carriage" is made, would not be enough to double the present rates of pay to our wronged ship-owners. Did you not understand, Mr. Wanamaker, that they want ten or twenty times the present rates? One of them once presented "certain figures," as he called them, to Congress, calling for "not over $2,500,000 a year for ten years." The only doubt was about the period of time: "We differed upon that point, and the period was variously fixed at ten, fifteen, and twenty years." And now comes this Philadelphia shop-keeper, with his retail-trade ideas, and talks about limiting the subsidies to "the profits"!

LAW VERSUS MORAL SUASION.

THREE States of the Union have attempted to eradicate drunkenness by passing laws prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquor, and have tried the experiment in such a way as to challenge the attention of the whole country—Maine, Kansas, and Iowa. Each of the three States confesses the failure of the experiment, and admits that in the chief centres of population liquor is sold and drunkenness is as prevalent as ever.

Maine was the first commonwealth to make the trial, having had a prohibitory law for a generation. Neal Dow, "the father of prohibition," a resident of Portland, the chief city of the State, recently confessed that "the grog-shops keep on pretty much as they did twenty years ago." In Bangor, another of the large cities, it is admitted by the *Whig*, a newspaper which believes in prohibition, that "the saloon runs right along in bold defiance of the laws of the State." The shocking prevalence of drunkenness in these Maine cities is shown by the following account in the Portland *Advertiser* of a recent Fourth of July: "Enough liquor was on sale to make several hundred men drunk. In some parts of the city the scenes were disgraceful. Drunken men were laid up on the sidewalks and doorsteps in all directions. In Deering's Oaks many of the benches were occupied by sleeping sots. Around the Custom-house it is estimated that fifty men were seen drunk during the night and day. It was even worse about Gorham's Corner and the adjacent parts of the city. The police made arrests until the station was full and could accommodate no more."

Kansas adopted a prohibition amendment to the Constitution in 1880. Cassius G. Foster settled in Kansas thirty years ago as a young lawyer, and for fifteen years past has been United States District Judge for the State, holding a commission signed by President Grant. He has recently written an open letter declaring himself in favor of a resubmission to the people of the amendment, for the reason that it has been a failure as a temperance measure. For awhile, he says, the open saloon disappeared, giving way to the "joint" and the "restaurant." But "of late, the law falling into disrepute, the disguise has grown thinner and thinner. In many places the saloons are permitted to run on payment of a monthly stipend, denominated fines or forfeiture." As for the claim that crime has been diminished, Judge Foster declares that "the criminal courts and jails are still open and full of business, and there is no decrease in the demand for police service." He institutes a comparison between Kansas with prohibition and Nebraska with high license, which shows that the proportion of criminals to population is far less in the latter State, and that the disparity is increasing.

Iowa gave a large majority for a constitutional amendment in 1882, and, upon the annulment of that action by the Supreme Court on technical grounds, elected in 1884 a Legislature which enacted a prohibitory law. For five years, therefore, Iowa has had prohibition on the statute-book, and yet "for five years," confesses the *State Register*, the leading newspaper of the commonwealth, "prohibition has proved a failure in a dozen or more counties of Iowa," these dozen or more counties being those which contain the chief cities, where temperance measures are most needed. The Burlington *Hawkeye*, published in one of these cities, recently declared that "Burlington has its one hundred or more saloons running in defiance of the law." Davenport, another of these cities, has three breweries, three malt-houses, several wholesale liquor-stores, and a host of saloons. Of course, in all of these cities there is a great amount of drunkenness.

Why is it that drunkenness is so prevalent in States which have laws forbidding the sale of liquors? It is largely because the foes of intemperance have depended upon law to cure the evil, and have abandoned efforts to prevent men from becoming drunkards by moral suasion. Valuable testimony upon this point is furnished by a recent address of Capt. I. H. McDonald, President of the Portland Temperance Reform Club. He began by confessing the failure of the attempt to abolish drunkenness by law. "For more than thirty years," he said, "we have heard the booming of guns of every calibre in the war against the rum traffic, and to what purpose? It still exists and thrives in a State where it is prohibited. Why?" he asked, and thus answered his own question: "Simply because law is not a reformatory method to be used in a work of moral reform." In the same line he said:

> "We wish that the state of things as to the temperance cause in our city and State was different, that it could be said of our city that drunkenness was a thing of the past, and that the banner of temperance could be seen floating from every mansion and from every cot. But before such a state of things exists (if it ever does) there must be a mighty revolution in the minds of men, even in this prohibitory State. I believe that every good citizen today condemns drunkenness, but every good citizen does not make an effort to use his influence against this great evil to which so many of our people are addicted. The people of Maine have relied too much upon 'law' to do this great work of reform, which it will never accomplish, and the sooner they come to that conclusion, and turn their minds and their efforts in the right direction, the sooner the great work will be accomplished. It would seem that after more than thirty years of experience most men must be convinced that law neither reforms the drunkard, restrains intemperance, nor diminishes the rum traffic to any great extent in our cities."

A similar confession comes from Iowa. "It is idle to deny," says the *Register*, "that a great many boys are learning to drink, that a great many men are drinking who would be far better off, and their families would be far happier, if they would let liquor entirely alone. These are facts and stubborn ones, too. It will not do to ignore them, for they have a very disagreeable and painful way of forcing attention to themselves." Why is there such a state of things in a State where the law says that there shall be no opportunity for a man to drink? The reason, according to the *Register*, is that "our good friends, the preachers, have looked to the law to make and keep men sober, and have expected that would do the work which to a greater or less extent must be done in every community by personal effort." It proceeds to show how the work of moral suasion has been almost entirely neglected:

> "When was there a temperance meeting held in Des Moines to plead with men to sign the pledge and leave their drinking ways? When have our honored clergy held Gospel temperance meetings, to bring all the power of Christian influences to bear upon the drink habit? When did a blue-ribbon club or any other organization start out its members to find the old soaks and induce them to sign the pledge and become men again? Was any such personal work done in the last year or the year before that? All of these good people, headed by the ministers, have been relying upon the law to do the work which the law never can do. They have preached sermons and held public meetings to demand that the law be enforced, but all this time there were poor fellows sinking lower and lower, and there were young men fastening the chains of appetite about their necks, and hardly a word of public protest or private entreaty has been heard."

Francis Murphy, who comes as near as anybody to being the John B. Gough of his generation, and who has a great contempt for the idea of legislating soberness into men, once happily said that it has looked of late years as though the people of Iowa were trying to change the Lord's Prayer so as to make it read, "Our Father which art in the Legislature." The people of Maine and Kansas have shared the same delusion that omnipotence rested with a body of law-makers, and that, after the human race had suffered from intemperance for thousands of years, the evil could be cured summarily by a majority vote in the State capitol. Experience was the only schoolmaster who could convince them of their error. Happily there are now abundant signs that the lesson has been pretty generally mastered, and that, in Judge Foster's words, "morality by act of the Legislature, backed up by a Draconian code, will not be accepted by a free people as the sincere, pure article." We may now hope to see moral suasion regain its proper authority as an agency of temperance reform.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

MR. JEFFERSON DAVIS'S death may properly be said to close the epoch of the Civil War. Not that there are no other prominent survivors of the Confederacy, for they are found everywhere, in public and in private stations. But these have put themselves more or less completely in harmony with the new order of things. They have applied for and received the benefit of the amnesty laws, have renewed their allegiance to the national Government, and are conspicuous in its Legislature and Administration. They see and frankly recognize the fact that the New South is richer, more vigorous, more hopeful, than the Old South ever could have been. They have a regenerated national patriotism, and, in their

growing satisfaction in the almost unrivalled power of the United States among the nations of the earth, their feeling towards the Confederacy has passed into a sentiment, like the lost illusions of immature youth, poetic and tinged with regret, but which their ripened judgment pronounces well exchanged for an actual result full of present dignity and of future hope, abreast with all that marks the true progress of Christendom and of civilization.

Mr. Davis, partly from the peculiarity of his official station, and partly from his personal traits of character, could not share these changes with his old associates. The subtle tendency of the human mind to personify a cause, and to carry vicarious rewards and punishments to an extreme, forced upon him a representative position quite apart from that of any other civil or military officer of the Confederacy. In this view they were its prominent advocates or supporters; he, in a sense, was the Lost Cause itself. He could not turn from the past and find active occupation in the newly developed energies of the present. The preëminent position he had held condemned him to an inaction in which there was room only for brooding over the past, and which separated him from the influences of an active environment that insensibly moulded other men into new forms of thought and energy. Thus chained to a dead past, the separation between him and his own time grew wider and wider. His antagonism to the victorious cause grew more intense, if possible, because personal failure and the ruin of all his hopes and aspirations were inseparably connected with the overthrow of the Confederacy. His pride made him think it a sacred duty to maintain an inflexible assertion of the righteousness of the Rebellion and of the unjustifiable tyranny of suppressing it. He could not ask for amnesty, he could not accept a pardon, he could not acknowledge the lawfulness of the national Government.

In the nature of the case much of this was the logical outcome of his representative position, and will account for the more unhappy parts of his later experience. What can be more wretched to an active and able mind than to be condemned to remain, like a stranded vessel, a mark only of the height to which the mad surges of the storm had swept, and of the distance to which the peaceful tide has retreated from the hopeless wreck? Yet Mr. Davis's bitterness and irreconcilability were in part the result of temperament and education. His surroundings had, from his youth, tended to develop the self-confidence and dictatorial disposition which were natural to him. His elegant and finely cut features bespoke a highly nervous organization, and when an acknowledged intellectual leadership had fully developed his habit of command, it became a great hardship for him to brook opposition or to yield his will. His faith in his own mental processes was supreme, and it was almost impossible for him to see either reason or good moral purpose in those who opposed him. His cherished ideas became a sort of cult to him when the defeat of the Rebellion had removed them from the sphere of practical action; and in his enforced idleness he lived in retrospect, revolving his theories over and over, demonstrating to his own bitter satisfaction that the world had all gone wrong and illogically in the events which had followed the Confederate surrender.

His domicile was Mississippi, for his family had migrated from Kentucky early in the Southwestward movement of population which followed the Louisiana purchase, and when he was a mere infant. After a fair academic preparation he was appointed to a West Point cadetship, and was graduated from the Military Academy in 1828 at the age of twenty. He served seven years in the army; long enough to fix his habits and character, and to give a tinge of military peremptoriness to his whole career. He constantly recurred with pride to the fact that he was educated as a soldier, and was not unwilling to have it understood that he cherished military habits of thought and kept himself abreast with the progress of military theories.

About the time of his marriage to a daughter of Zachary Taylor, he left the army to assume the mixed career of cotton-planter and public man, which his tastes and his connections opened to him. In 1845 he entered Congress and soon acquired a national reputation. He threw himself ardently into the advocacy of the extremest views of the slaveholding class. He saw that slavery was doomed from the moment its spread was forbidden, and earnestly advocated the annexation of Texas as a means of obtaining room for its growth. The Mexican war, which resulted, called him to arms, for his education as a soldier and his actual eminence as an advocate of annexation made this the only consistent or logical course for him. As Colonel of the First Mississippi Volunteers he served with credit at Monterey and Buena Vista, and the wound which he received in the latter engagement quickened the attachment of the Southern people to him, and made easy his advance to political leadership in his own State. The radical character of the theories of State rights he had already adopted was shown by his refusal of President Polk's promotion to the rank of Brigadier-General of Volunteers, on the avowed ground that the States alone had the right to give such honors to the volunteers in the national service. It needs no argument to prove that this apparent self-sacrifice to a principle would endear him to Southern radicals, and pave the way to higher civic honors.

From his return from Mexico to the outbreak of the civil war he was in the Senate of the United States except during the Administration of Franklin Pierce (1853-1857), when he was Secretary of War. For this position he was well fitted, and his administration of the office was signalized by important improvements in the regulations, the discipline, the drill, and the organization of the army. But it was also signalized by so marked a policy of favoritism towards Southern officers that what at the time was regarded as his personal friendships and prejudices must now be interpreted as a deliberate purpose to make a Southern sectional devotion predominant in the army over devotion to the national flag. He undoubtedly meant that the army should be an honor to the country so long as Southern statesmen controlled the country's destinies, but that the dominant sentiment in its posts and mess-rooms should be such that it would be useless if called upon to put down nullification or secession. His policy was continued by Buchanan's Administration, and the immediate result was seen in 1861, when Gen. Twiggs's surrender of the troops in Texas was followed in quick succession by the transfer of the forts, arsenals, and posts in the Southern States to the Confederate civil authorities, and the commissioning of the officers in charge in the Confederate Army. That Sumter was not surrendered in like manner was not for lack of a Southern officer in command, but because the loyalty of Maj. Anderson was of a different temper from that of the rest, and postponed the Southern occupation till the cannon of Beauregard's attacking batteries had awakened a resistless outburst of Northern patriotism.

It is not necessary to assume that the Southern Democrats of whom Mr. Davis became the leader, had no attachment to the Union. Our increasing knowledge of their motives and purposes points to a different conclusion. Their temperament and mental habits made them, even more than Northern men, susceptible to the glory of a great and mighty nation and to the pride of taking high rank among the Powers of the earth. Their theories of States' rights had never stood in the way of national aggrandizement when it did not threaten Southern supremacy at home. The Florida annexation, the Louisiana purchase, and the absorption of Texas and part of Mexico are proof enough of this. We believe the truth to be that the truckling of Northern politicians had blinded them to the depth of national feeling in the Northern States, and had produced a settled conviction that with a manufacturing and trading people pecuniary profit and loss would outweigh all patriotic sentiment. They had schooled themselves to believe that a palpable and imminent danger of disunion would secure constitutional guarantees for the unrestricted spread of slavery. They had convinced themselves of the logical soundness of the Democratic platforms of 1856 and 1860, and thought the force of their arguments would surely be admitted by the North when the alternative would seem to be a quick dissolution of the Union. The very use of such arguments must have weakened the patriotism of those who used them; but it is not necessary to assume that they had destroyed it. The programme was a revolutionary demonstration to force constitutional changes, and they underestimated the danger that, like a military demonstration, it might end in a general engagement. It is now notorious that the leaders of the secession movement succeeded in forcing the passage of secession ordinances only by the most passionate asseverations of their faith that quick submission of the North and reconstruction on the basis of the constitutional guarantees for slavery would promptly follow united action in the South. To the suggestions that it might fail, their hot answer was the old one:

> "But screw your courage to the sticking place,
> And we'll not fail."

The plan was shrewdly arranged. The army officers in important commands were Southern men. The little navy was mostly at the other side of the globe. President Buchanan had committed himself to their doctrine that he had no right to attempt the coercion of a State. Secession was to be in form accomplished, and every Southern fort and arsenal was to be in the hands of the insurrectionists before Mr. Lincoln could be inaugurated. Northern Democratic conventions had adopted strong resolutions about resisting attempts at coercion. By every possible mode of reckoning but one, the game was in their own hands and their bloodless revolution assured. The one thing not taken into account was the passionate uprising of a whole Northern people, scorning their doughface leaders, trampling commercial theories under foot, and throwing lives and fortunes enthusiastically into their country's cause. It was the one unexpected thing that happened, and the bloodless revolutionary reconstruction of a slaveholding nation failed.

It would be going too far to say that in all this preparatory work Mr. Davis had been the guiding spirit. It is, however, quite within bounds to say that he was one of a small knot of men who controlled the policy of the Southern Democrats. Some of more sanguine temperament may have had fewer doubts of a peaceful success of the plot; but there is no room for question that he was heartily in the scheme, and was gradually coming more and more to the front as a leader likely to be intrusted with the execution of the plan when the time should come. He was the man who was summoned to Washington from a distance when the Southern members of Buchanan's Cabinet saw symptoms of failing nerve in the President. He was the man to whom Buchanan submitted the draft of his message, and whose approval was treated as the official endorsement of the revolutionists. He was the Chairman of the Committee of the Southern Senators who sat as a provisional junto in Washington, dictating the steps successively taken by the seceding States.

It has been supposed to be entirely inconsistent with this for him to assert, as he has done, that he retained a love for the Union. We think the view we have taken reconciles such a claim with his sincerity. The success of the plan seemed so assured by the expected help of the President and of the organized power of the Democratic party North, that he looked beyond the insurrectionary demonstration to the resulting amendment of the Constitution as to slavery. Thinking he could ignore the risk of war which seemed to be sufficiently provided against, the rest had a certain resemblance to a Revolution of the Palace, which would not disturb the unity or the general progress of the nation. He put away the thought of real or permanent division as unnecessary, and the show of it which was so dramatically made was only a device of party politics, serious enough to call forth the expected Union-saving panic at the North, but which would leave the whole country united at last under a slaveholding régime that would

make it more than ever glorious in the eyes of the cotton-planting class.

His first very troublesome doubts seem to have been born when he found Buchanan faltering in the rôle appointed for him. Then, when such Democrats as Black, Holt, and Stanton entered the Cabinet, he saw in their spirit the reflection of a different purpose in the Northern Democracy from that which he had expected. But it was too late to go back, and, with the other revolutionists, he thought it necessary to take a higher tone and affect a courage and a confidence which might still carry their purpose. It was at this time that he began to warn Southern men that they might have a real and fearful struggle on their hands. It is the misfortune and the fate of revolutionary leaders that the passions of their followers outrun them. To smaller intellects the vision of independence was made to appear an unmixed good, and the disunionism which had been preached as a means to a more satisfactory union, became a good in itself to the mobs of thoughtless enthusiasts who tossed their hats and shouted for secession.

We find it impossible to believe that the secession leaders in Congress would have continued their intrigue at Washington during that winter of 1860–'61, had it not seemed to them within the limits of party manipulation which was not to result in actual rebellion and war. They were in confidential relations with the Administration; they did not disguise from the President their plans; even the Republican leaders were so uncertain of popular support that they did not venture to unmask the whole nature of what was passing under their eyes. A President not in sympathy with their ultimate purpose would have arrested and placed accusations of treason against every man of them; but when the rebellion was to be Pickwickian, and the result the embodiment of the Democratic platform in the Constitution, Buchanan and Davis drifted together till the former found that it was "shooting Niagara," when he left the Southern leader to the torrent which no longer could be breasted.

We have no doubt that the discovery by the secession leaders that the Democratic party would not perform its appointed part in the drama was an unwelcome surprise to Davis and his associates, and marked the period when first they seriously faced the question of real rebellion with all its terrible consequences. But they were courageous men, and the die was cast. Their anger at Buchanan's pusillanimity, as they viewed it, helped to reconcile them to desperate measures. The Confederacy was organized, Davis was made its President, war became necessary to consolidate the elements of Southern society, and the bombardment of Sumter was ordered for the purpose of precipitating the conflict. In this final act, Davis's intellect made him hesitate, for he saw now more clearly than most about him the appalling results which must follow. But the revolution was begun, and he must either lead it or let it roll over him.

His administration of the Confederate Government was vigorous, and it is more than doubtful if any of his Southern critics could have done so well with the means at command. There was an outward unanimity in the Southern people, but the fact remained that it was only a minority that had been real secessionists, and an undercurrent of dissatisfaction soon became manifest. No one dared to advocate submission. The pride even of the original Union men shrank from this humiliation. But the hatred of those who had been the authors of the unspeakable evils the country was suffering found other forms of expression, and from first to last the Davis Administration found itself crippled by opposition which professed to keep within constitutional lines.

At the beginning it is probable that Mr. Davis meant to make the office of Commander-in-Chief something more than the nominal one. Had he reached the field of Manassas a few hours earlier, it is likely that he would have assumed the authority of General. He saw no reason why a President of a republic, any more than a Napoleon or a William of Orange, should not unite the active military functions with the executive. But the irritation which immediately followed from his visit to that field showed him the imprudence of a step which he did not repeat. Sidney Johnston never said anything more flattering to his friend than when, after the loss of Fort Donelson, he declared his desire to serve under the President of the Confederacy commanding in person in the field.

The strain upon Mr. Davis's nerves, and the character of the opposition to his Government which developed itself, intensified his less amiable personal traits. He grew more arrogant, made more of his personal likes and dislikes, regarded personal attachment to himself as a stronger reason for appointments, both civil and military. The necessity for using the whole power of the South as a unit hastened the progress towards centralization. The States'-rights doctrine was the most available weapon to fight the anti-slavery movement with, and was used accordingly. But when the success of their arms demanded it and it promised the dazzling glory of success, Southern men were willing to make as firm a consolidation as the circumstances required. The inconsistency of the acts of the Administration with the original doctrines of secession was strongly used against Mr. Davis by such opponents as Gov. Brown of Georgia; but the convenience of the weapon, in this case as in the former, accounts for its use without assuming any belief in its essential truth.

To Mr. Davis must be given the credit for a high, invincible courage that never faltered after he had chosen his part. Even when the resources of the Confederacy were exhausted and its armies destroyed, he would have sought some remote region where the struggle might still be carried on. His responsibilities as a ruler were no more criminal than those of the people he represented, though the world has always recognized the propriety of representation in punishment as in honor. It was as the political leader in the Senate of the United States that his deplorable work was done, far more than in the Executive Mansion at Richmond after the convulsion had begun. In the first, he was educating his people to do what must prove ruinous to a whole generation; in the second, he was executing their will when they were involved in a common catastrophe. This has been instinctively recognized by them, and it is rather an honor to them that they have refused to make him their scapegoat.

It is beyond the scope of a notice such as this to discuss the details of his policy as a ruler. Indeed, the world hardly has the means of doing so, even yet, though time is gradually accumulating the material for it. His conduct, when final ruin came, was not undignified. The history of the world gave him no encouragement to hope that his life would be spared, and that he would become the most signal example of the lenity of popular governments. His natural expectation was that the failure of his cause must involve his execution if captured. Yet every one must admit that his self-command and courage did not fail him. His imprisonment at Fortress Monroe had some irritating incidents—the result more of the ignorant zeal of guards than of the intention of the Government. He showed at times a disposition to exaggerate these things to excite the world's sympathy, but his physical exhaustion was such that fair men will regard those complaints as the results of illness rather than of a petty spirit. As Americans we may all be glad that the magnanimity of the people sanctioned his full release, and that he was himself no discreditable example of American manhood in both the extremes of fortune.

Could he have put the past as completely behind him as the soldiers and statesmen of the Confederacy generally did, and could he have engaged in the physical regeneration of the South as they have done, his advancing age would have been happier, and he would not have been likely to make some of those unlucky utterances which have occasionally renewed the anger of our people. But we are bound to remember that his position was peculiar, and that for reasons we have already given he could not follow the lines other men could easily mark out for themselves. It is matter for satisfaction that the devotion of personal friends secured for him a quiet retreat at Beauvoir in the congenial climate of the Gulf shore, and that in his old age and declining strength no physical want oppressed a mind sufficiently burdened with the consciousness of having been the chief figure in an epoch which proved so tragic to his followers.

THE NEW HARVARD GATEWAY.

CAMBRIDGE, December 5, 1889.

WHEN the procession of alumni and invited guests at the 250th anniversary of Harvard College, one of the greatest gatherings of American notables of modern years, entered the yard, it saw on either side of the road a small post of Quincy granite terminating the plain rail fence which surrounds the yard, and an insignificant cast-iron gate swung back out of the way. This was the western entrance to Harvard College, through which for years the Commencement Day processions, headed by the Boston Lancers, had passed, and it was but little more distinguished than the first rail fence that marked the early clearing in which stood Harvard and Massachusetts Halls. Regret for the poverty of such an approach to the first of American universities may often have been felt by alumni; but no one is known to have remarked upon it till, on the day in question, Mr. Samuel Johnston, of the Class of 1855, was overheard to express himself very emphatically on this point. The event proved that a resolution was taken then and there, for when Mr. Johnston died, a few months later, his will was found to contain a bequest of $10,000 for the erection of a gateway to Harvard College.

It is perfectly safe to say that the news of this bequest was a source of pain rather than pleasure to nearly every Harvard man who heard of it. The University's modern architecture was so largely bad, so out of keeping with the quiet character and good proportion of the Colonial Halls, that the erection of another monstrosity seemed worse than a waste of $10,000, which might have gone towards lighting the Library or some other practical need, especially when the site dedicated to the new structure lay between the two best of the Provincial buildings, with a vista of old church and graveyard beyond, dear to every Harvard memory. The idea of a marble Arc de Triomphe—of bronze lions—of Gothic buttresses—insulting the repose of that spot, seemed very like desecration.

The success of the experiment, which is now so near completion as to make a description of it possible, seems nearly triumphant, in view of the not inconsiderable difficulties confronting the designers; for, leaving out of the question what might have been, the new gateway is a great artistic addition to the College, and a permanent one. That it is so is due to the sound æsthetic judgment of the architects, Messrs. McKim, Mead & White, who looked for their inspiration to the adjoining elder buildings, and aimed from the first to erect a monument which should emphasize their ancient beauty, and not assert its own individuality.

The result can best be described by the passing traveller's impressions. As he comes down North Avenue, he sees opposite the old Unitarian Church two great brick gate-posts, the centre of the design, rising solidly to the dignified height of some twenty feet, and connected by a heavy crossbar of iron, with graceful, curving lines, surmounted by a delicate wrought-iron canopy, adding much to the loftiness of effect. Beneath this crossbar are swung open the great gates of the new era. The gate-posts are about five feet square. Ris-

ing from a course of warm Conway granite, they are made up of brick carefully selected for the purpose from various Boston brickyards, laid in a symmetrical, though apparently unstudied, pattern, and varying from the over-baked black to the under-baked buff brick; the courses being the alternate "headers" and "stretchers" of the Flemish bond used in the older buildings. The bricks are a trifle irregular in shape; and their blended color, the slight irregularity of their surfaces, and the broad mortar setting give an effect of freedom and distinction quite remarkable. A sunk panel of brick relieves the lower half of the post from stiffness, while the upper half takes a different color from a corresponding panel of Yorkshire sandstone set upon the post, and separated from the lower panel by several courses of brick and a plain piece of sandstone to mark the change in the color-motive. There are four of these panels, and carved upon them are the shields of the State, College, City, and an emblem to the donor and the nation. Of these, the first and the last are the best, the fine old Indian of the Massachusetts shield and the national eagle being carved with great vigor. I pass over the appropriate inscriptions, which are cut in bold Roman capitals. The gate-posts, in which some have detected a resemblance to the famous ones at St. Augustine, are surmounted with caps of Yorkshire stone, terminating each in an acorn-shaped finial, which gives a surprising effect of lightness to such weighty erections.

The gates themselves are magnificent pieces of iron work, probably the finest ever made in this country. They are seven feet broad each, and sixteen feet high, making a most imposing appearance whether open or closed. They are made of hand-forged iron, which, like their brick setting, has a freedom of outline which machine-wrought material would lack; and their slender vertical bars, lifting the eye to the crowning point above them, are relieved from monotony by two central panels of more elaborate work, two converging horizontal panels above, and two massive locks with handles of heavy wrought iron, which are firmly screwed on at about three feet from the ground. All the iron work is painted black, save the gilded dates 1636 and 1889 in the canopy. The initials (A. A. M.), barely discernible, are said to stand for a munificent anonymous donor to the gate fund.

The gate-posts are set back some twenty-five feet from the main street, the entrance to the yard curving gently in between granite curbs, and leaving a large space on the sidewalk. At each side of the gate-posts a brick wall, about ten feet in height, and capped with Yorkshire stone, runs some fifteen feet north and south, terminating in a smaller brick post, three feet square and twelve feet in height, surmounted by a square cap and a huge sphere of the soft yellow stone; the abruptness of the wall's departure being taken away by a scroll-shaped *console* springing from the larger posts. From these smaller posts two other walls project at right angles some fifteen feet westward towards the street, ending in two more of the smaller posts, panelled in relief with brick, like the larger ones. This brings the design out to the old fence-line; the central part of the scheme forming three sides of a rectangle, some fifteen feet by fifty. On the street side of the first wall, close against the string-course of Conway granite, is a low, heavy bench of the same stone, resting on two carved claws; at the opposite side of the way a great elm rises from the corner to droop its limbs over the whole, and furnishes a natural relief to the severity of the wall. The space about it and in front of the seat is to be well turfed. On the rear of the two walls are two niches, sunk in the brick, surmounted by a shell cut in stone. One has a shallow basin of the sandstone, beneath which is a larger basin of granite; into this a small bronze mask will soon emit a fine jet of water. The other niche will have no fountain, but in front of it, set at a little distance from the wall, is another granite bench like the first, making a beautiful resting-place in the summer.

The walls on the left and right as one enters the gates are unbroken, except for two large panels of sandstone, on which are inscribed the first history of the College, number one containing the succinct votes of the old Colonial Court: "By the General Court of Massachusetts Bay: 28 October, 1636, agreed to give 400£ towards a schoale or colledge, whearof 200£ to bee paid the next yeare, & 200£ when the worke is finished, & the next Court to appoint wheare & w^t^ building: 15 November, 1637, The Colledg is ordered to bee at Newetowne: 2 May, 1638, It is ordered, that Newetowne shall henceforward be called Cambrige: 13 March, 1638-9, It is ordered, that the Colledge agreed upon formerly to bee built at Cambridg shalbee called Harvard Colledge." All those early years of endeavor and self-sacrifice are thus summarized in the quaint memoranda of the fathers; but the purpose of the first "schoale" is more clearly gathered from the delightful little quotation from 'New England's First Fruits' on the opposite panel: "After God had carried us safe to New-England, and wee had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our liveli-hood, rear'd convenient places for God's worship, and setled the Civill Government: One of the next things we longed for, and looked after, was to advance Learning and perpetuate it to Posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate Ministery to the Churches, when our present Ministers shall lie in the Dust."

The rest of the design is of the same refinement and simplicity. Two smaller iron gates flank the main one, and lead to paths within; they too are crowned with elaborate canopies and with arabesque glass lanterns. Continuing north or south from these gates, and rising from the string-course of Conway granite, is an iron fence, of the same beautiful detail as the other iron-work, and having its centre strengthened by a very heavy filigreed panel, much higher than the rest. From the end posts on the street there is a return of iron work, terminating in a post, which leaves an open space between it and the opposite hall. These gaps will probably ultimately be filled. The whole construction is now thrown into perspective by six granite posts (or fenders, in the Italian fashion), set across the sidewalk, one opposite each of the smaller brick posts.

This is the new gate of Harvard College. From the day its first bricks were laid it seemed a fitting part of the place—so much so that one barbarian remarked mournfully, "Now, I suppose, we shall never have any decent buildings to take the place of these old ones"; and several Freshmen were convinced that an old building was coming down, not a new one going up. In remarks like these the architects must have found a reward for their striving.

THE EXPEDITION TO AFRICA.

U. S. S. "Pensacola," Nov. 1, 1889.

"All of which I saw, and part of which I was"—a small part, that is, a very small part. For, while the public prints have been very generous in giving me largely the credit of the expedition, it really belongs elsewhere. In the first place, such an expedition would never have been possible but for the enlightened policy of our navy, in particular of Admiral Walker and Commander Dewey. The latter was charged by the Secretary with the management of all official matters pertaining to the organization and welfare of the expedition, and such success as may be attained must be his. It is thus peculiarly a naval affair, and even the few days so far passed at sea have sufficed to show that the officers of the *Pensacola* are not only glad to interest themselves in the work of the expedition, but also are able, by their willing exertion, to add very materially to its chances of success. Her Commander, Capt. Yates, and his Executive Officer, Commander Hanford, are pure gold, and the expedition is not looking for any traces of base metal in her junior officers.

Thank Heaven, we got off without ostentation. By sailing at an early hour (which we did on the 16th of October), the customary ceremonies attending the departure of a man-of-war were escaped, and our navy saved some expenditure of powder. The little party of scientists aboard, bound for the distant and (to all of the members but one) the untried coast of West Africa, have primarily in view, as is already well known, the observation of the total eclipse of the sun occurring on the 22d of December next. The time of the year was unfavorable for the organization of the expedition in all respects just to my notion; but if there are hostile critics, I have only to remind them that it may be prudent to delay all attacks until the expedition has had the opportunity to do its work. The present organization of the expedition is as follows: In terrestrial physics, Mr. Preston of the Coast and Geodetic Survey; in meteorology, Professor Abbe of the Army Signal Office; in anthropology, Mr. Orr of Clark University; in languages, Mr Chatelain, who already knows Loanda pretty thoroughly from a three years' residence there; in natural history, Mr. Harvey Brown and Mr. Arthur Brown of the U. S. National Museum; in photography, Mr. Carbutt and Mr. Wright; in astronomy, Mr. Davis of Princeton, Mr. Jacoby of Columbia, and Mr. Loomis and Professor Bigelow of the Nautical Almanac Office. The instrumental equipment I may write about later, after it has had an opportunity to accomplish something; enough for now if I say that it is in the main photographic; that all important partial phases of the eclipse are to be registered on large-scale plates, and that I hope to have the opportunity of collecting, in the brief duration of the total eclipse, a great amount of material for the pictorial, spectroscopic, photometric, and polariscopic study of the solar corona.

A northeast gale had been blowing for several days, and even in the harbor of New York a quite respectable sea was running, but it grew much more respectable—and grew to be much more respected—as we got further out. In a few hours the coast faded into a pale, cloud-like horizon line, and then disappeared. Our next sight of mother earth bids fair to be some coaling isle off the sunny coasts of northwest Africa.

Life on board a man-of-war is nothing if not systematic. Every hour has its duty, and that duty is done in its allotted time. This is very advantageous generally; and now and then results in great economy to the navy appropriations, for the routine which must be gone through to obtain any article from the ship's stores consumes so much time that the need for it has not infrequently disappeared long before the thing itself is forthcoming. Among the 450 souls constituting at present the sole population of our world, and which is perhaps

the most numerous company ever sent out on an American man-of-war, rumors and little excitements spread as rapidly as they do on land, and are even more welcome. One evening, an hour or two after dark, a sudden alarm penetrated the ward-room, "Man overboard!" By the time we reached the deck the startling order from the officer on the bridge, "Man the life-boat!" confirmed the rumor. Rushing to the lee side, I saw a dark body, like the overturned hull of some great craft, rising and falling on the long swell. As the boat lowered, the creaking of the falls was the only audible sound, save the low rush of the black water, as the slow waves lifted the great hull of the *Pensacola*, and fell back in a soft rush of phosphorescent foam. Will the life-boat *never* get ready? The man will drown a dozen times before the little crew can reach him. At last, after what seemed a small eternity, the boat, manned and lighted, dropped into the black, merciless water. No cry had been heard; if the man was drowning, he was silent, he did not call upon his fellows for help. Perhaps in the ship's company some one out of whose life all the sweetness had gone, intentionally dropped overboard to end an existence he valued no longer. Hurry up that boat! Why does not the cockswain shout "Way enough"—he has surely reached the spot where the man went down? Why does he slowly steer his craft around that dark mass? Perhaps the man, too exhausted to shout, is yet clinging to its keel. But the life-boat is returning. The lantern it carries lights up the oarsmen and the whole interior, but no insensible form is seen extended on the thwarts. Silently the boat is brought under the davits and hoisted to its place, and to the question of the officer of the deck, "What is it?" comes the answer, "Weed, sir!" Alas! all of this sympathy has been wasted on a lenticular patch of Gulf-weed, magnified by the dim light into a capsized boat with a man clinging to the keel. "Most lame and impotent conclusion" to a most promising and exciting rumor. We who "go down to the sea in ships and do business on the mighty waters," see things strange and wonderful—not always pathetic.

Perhaps the most industrious member of our party thus far is Prof. Abbe, who began his meteorological observations on board the *Pensacola* promptly at six P. M., October 15, twelve hours before we set sail. A comparison of his instruments with those of the ship's officers has shown a close agreement of the latter with the Signal-Service standards. On the morning of October 22, after a short period of southeasterly winds, with frequent showers and squalls, it was our good fortune to be favored with a remarkable and perhaps unique display of waterspouts. There were low scudding clouds moving towards the northwest, and the waterspouts seemed to form and develop in these clouds. In the morning, from about half-past nine and onward for nearly an hour, there was a succession of well-developed waterspouts forming and reforming to the southwest of us. No less than seven were simultaneously visible, while the total number throughout the entire display was probably between twenty and thirty. At one time, it looked as if our good ship might be overwhelmed by the rapid approach of these angry monsters of the air, the first ones forming at a distance of about four miles from the ship, and coming nearer and nearer until within less than half that distance. Fine drawings of these remarkable air columns are among the records of the expedition, but attempts to photograph them were in the main unsuccessful, owing to the lack of sufficient contrast.

In his report to the Director of the Expedition, on this wonderful display of waterspouts, Prof. Abbe says:

"It has frequently been supposed that the discharge of a cannon will break up a waterspout. On the present occasion it so happened that a six-pounder was ordered to be discharged, so as to clean it out, and this took place in the midst of the display of waterspouts, which were then three or four miles distant. The discharge of the cannon was followed within a few seconds by the breaking up of one of the spouts, but several others remained and others were again formed a few minutes afterwards, so that the breaking up of the one can only be considered as an accidental coincidence; nor is there, to my mind, any conceivable reason why the discharge of a cannon at a long distance from a spout, or even the firing of a cannon ball into a spout, should be considered as likely to have any appreciable influence on the great mass of revolving air. The general discussion of the mechanism of waterspouts has been so well given by Ferrel in his newest work, 'A Popular Treatise on the Winds,' that I need only say that everything observed by us from the deck of the *Pensacola*, on the 22d of October, fully confirmed the views set forth by him."

Prof. Abbe's report, although a provisional one, contains many points, of great and absorbing interest to the student of marine meteorology, upon which I may touch in a subsequent letter. They relate chiefly to the determination of the movements of the air with greater accuracy than is usually attempted at sea, to the anemometer observations taken with great regularity by three instruments of this sort, one of which is lashed to the mizzen royal mast-head, some feet above its lightning-rod, and to his work with a new form of reflecting nephoscope, in performing all of which Prof. Abbe is most indefatigable.

The expedition is just nearing Fayal in the Azores, where we shall be at anchor for a day or two in the little harbor of Horta for coal, after which the course will lie direct towards the Cape de Verdes. St. Paul de Loanda will be reached by the 1st–5th December, in abundant season for the total eclipse on the 22d. DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

JEFFERSON ON SINECURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was recently shown a letter from Thomas Jefferson, written when he was President, that gave such a curious insight into his conception of public office that I asked permission to copy and publish it. The letter needs little comment to add to its interest, nor does it require any extended comparison with modern methods of filling public appointments to show how little or how much public opinion has crowded out the practice of "looking after one's friends"—and relations.

TO JOHN PAGE, ESQ.

WASHINGTON, 3 July, 1806.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

By a letter from Mr. Walker to Mr. Madison I learn that he had visited you lately at Rosewell, and thought that some occupation in the public concerns would not be refused by you. I wish there was anything to offer which might give you amusement, profit and little labor; but our's you know is not a government of any great choice of office. We have reason to consider as very near at hand a vacancy in an office, which indeed could offer you no amusement, little emolument, but also no labor. The death of the present worthy loan officer (Mr. Jones) is considered as inevitably close at hand. This opinion I have from the best medical judge, and the proposing it to you occurs from the information of Mr. Walker's letter. The salary is 1500 D a year, and 150 or 200 D more as commission on paiment of pensions. Stationery is allowed, but neither office hire nor fuel. 1000 D additional are permitted to be divided between two clerks as the principal pleases. Mr. Gallatin says that a residence so near to Richmond as that you could ride there once or twice a week, would be sufficient, and that the office books being deposited with the Richmond bank a little before quarter day, they would make all the paiments without charge, considering as a sufficient emolument the deposit of the public money with them, which would at the same time save you from trouble and risk. The business can be done by one clerk, but there must still be two. However, nearly all the salary is given to the efficient clerk, and a minimum to the one who is merely nominal, or at least, this may be the arrangement, if it is not so at present. There is probably a clerk in the office well skilled in the business, and whom it might be necessary to keep some time. In the meanwhile if one of your sons could come in as secondary, in proportion as he advances in his knolege of the business, he might divide in the salary more and more largely, and finally take the principal place and salary, to the Commissioner of loans himself. The office is a perfect sinecure.

The introduction of one of your sons into the office, besides adding the benefit of the additional thousand dollars to the family, would, by placing him as it were in possession of the office, secure his succeeding to it in that event which you and I ought now to consider as not very remote. I pray that this letter may be considered as strictly confidential to Mrs. Page and yourself, and as soon as you have made up your mind, to be so good as to apprise me of it, because, to the solicitations already received, a flood of others will be added on the death of the incumbent. I confess I look to your decision with the more hope, as it would once more place you within reach of Monticello. I understand from Mr. Gallatin that the circumstance which renders necessary the residence of the officer in the vicinity of Richmond is the occasional transfer of stock, to which his signature is indispensable, and that these transfers being suspended some time before and after quarter day, admits an absence of 3 or 4 weeks at each of these periods. . . .

TH. JEFFERSON.

Having taken the office, Page enjoyed his sinecure undisturbed until June, 1807, when, the Postmaster at Richmond being about to die and the loan-office to be abolished on the payment of the public debt, Jefferson, looking round for something "equally as good" for Page, informed him of the "moribund" situation of the Postmaster and offered him the probable vacancy, in an "entirely confidential letter." On looking into the emoluments of the place, Jefferson found they were "not so much as I had expected, and possibly is not as good as the place you now hold." Whether Page accepted this legacy also, history saith not; but imagine a President consulting the family physician of an office-holder on the prospect of a "perfect sinecure" becoming vacant on the death of the incumbent! This buzzard-like eagerness need not be practised today: the office-holder is kicked out. What an advance in methods!

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BROOKLYN, December 2, 1889.

POPE AND PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have not seen any special notice taken of the facts that at the banquet on occasion of opening the Roman Catholic University at Washington, the President of the United States sat on the *left* of Cardinal Gibbons (who presided), and Cardinal Taschereau on his *right;* and that the health of Leo XIII. was the *first* toast given, and the Government and President of the United States the *second*.

Why the President and the Secretary of State allowed themselves and the Government to be placed in this position is a matter for them to settle. Why their hosts so placed them is another question. If it was through ignorance or inadvertence, it exhibits a great lack of

savoir faire. If it was done intentionally, it can only mean, first the Papacy and then the country. NATUS.

THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE PROFESSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of November 28 you suggest the propriety of allowing a student to take his degree whenever he can pass the needed examination. It is certainly time that all good colleges should adopt some method to protect genuine students against the loss which they now suffer from idle classmates. The evil is, perhaps, greater in academies than in colleges, but it is too great to be calmly endured in both. A rigid division of classes on the basis of merit would enable the brighter and more studious to accomplish the work of an ordinary college course in from one to two years' less time, without any injurious strain whatever. If it should not be deemed advisable to grant degrees for less than four years of college work, then the time gained by such students could be devoted to more work in the branches now pursued, or to the anticipation of professional work.

There are, of course, many preparatory schools where such a division of classes is now made, but there are many more where the best student in the class has no opportunity to cover any more ground than the poorest. The writer has under his care a preparatory class in Greek, which cannot be divided for lack of time. It is his firm belief that about one-third of the class, if taken by themselves from the end of the first month, could accomplish at least one-half more work than the class as a whole will be able to do. It is easy to see that the impetus thus gained would be of immense advantage throughout the college course.

There would be one great disadvantage in allowing the student to shorten the time required for taking his degree. It would furnish a great temptation to do the work superficially in order to gain time; and the brighter the student, the greater would the temptation become. This might be counteracted in a measure by requiring a very high standard of work as a condition of shortening the time.

Whatever it may be, some way should be devised to place an adequate premium upon the qualities which should characterize a real student. Of course it is impossible that the college should adapt itself *perfectly* to the needs of each student as an individual, but the tendency should be in that direction. TEACHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article entitled "The Universities and the Professions," which appeared in the last number of the *Nation*, seems to me faulty in this, that it infers that the earlier a boy enters upon his business career, the more likely he is to succeed; or, in other words, that the college graduate is a poor competitor in the race for making money with the man who started in business when he entered college.

As the article referred to seems to discuss the matter from a purely business standpoint, we should put aside comparisons with strictly professional men, such as physicians, lawyers, and clergymen, who are obliged to devote three or four years to the study of their profession in addition to the usual college course, and confine ourselves to men who take the ordinary college course of four years; and in this event it is respectfully contended that it is only a question of time when the alumnus shall outstrip the man who has not gone to college. That is to say, given two boys, eighteen years old and of equal ability, put one at business and send the other to college, and when those boys become men, of say twenty-seven years, the college graduate will be earning more than the other.

When a boy of eighteen enters business, his duties for the first two years of his career consist of running errands, indexing books, and copying letters, after which he may be intrusted with more important matters, and, by the time he has reached the age of twenty-two, he may be earning from nine to twelve hundred dollars a year. The college graduate, starting in business at the age of twenty-two, will master in a year what it has taken the other man four to learn, not only because he is older and determined to work now that his days of pleasure are ended, but also because his mind is trained to study and observation; and hence he can arrive, by short cuts, at conclusions which his less fortunate rival can obtain only by much labor of time and thought. True, the college graduate's salary may not yet be equal to the salary of his competitor, but if this last statement be true, will it be many years before his income will be equal to, and finally greater, than the other's, having, as he has, an intimate knowledge of men and their ways gained in the class-room, a wide circle of friends, and, more important than all, a knowledge of finance, of political economy, of government, of languages, of electricity, and the numerous other sciences which are taught, and well taught, in our great universities of to-day?

Of course there are men who go through college without learning much of anything, but, these being indifferent to any sort of work, would make no better headway at business. Looking back over the list of my acquaintances, and comparing those who went into business directly after leaving school with those who first took a college course, I fail to find a single case in which, other things being equal, the college graduate is not in as good a financial condition to day as the man who went from the school-room to the counting-house.

Yours respectfully,

CHAS. FRANCIS GUMMEY, JR.

PHILADELPHIA, December 3, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last week's editorial, under the above title, you speak of the "perturbation in the collegiate world over the decline in the number of students, in proportion to population," and attribute this decline chiefly to "the great delay imposed by a university education on a young man's entrance on life." The "wild race for the dollar"—which, according to Heinrich von Treitschke, is the chief feature of American life—is so hotly contested that great numbers of our young men had rather give up the intellectual culture and the warm friendships of college life than run the least risk of lagging behind in the mad chase. The colleges, you say, have been debating of late the best mode of meeting this demand for an early entrance upon the money-getting arena; and you suggest, as one device for partly solving the difficulty, "letting every man take his degree whenever he could pass the needed examination."

My object in writing this note is to point out to your readers the fact that exactly this plan has always been a marked, perhaps the most marked, feature of the University of Virginia. In fact, the great bulk of the academic students here never take any degree at all, but study for one, two, three, four, or more years just what subjects in just what order they prefer. There being no prescribed curriculum, a student who, for instance, is poorly prepared in Greek, well prepared in mathematics, and excellently prepared in Latin, may enter the junior class in Greek, the intermediate in mathematics, and the senior in Latin. If so minded, a student may even combine academic studies with professional, taking simultaneously, for example, history and medicine, or chemistry and law. Degrees, both professional and academic, may be obtained at the end of any year, whether it be the first or the tenth of the student's course, in which the necessary examinations are passed; and, as mentioned above, many students never attempt to take a degree, but are satisfied with the diplomas of graduation in any particular subjects on which they pass the examinations.

Now, while objections may doubtless be raised to this system, it has the immense merit of flexibility and adaptability both to the various mental capacity and preparation of various individuals, and to the equally various contents of their pocket-books. The University of Virginia, alone among the leading institutions of learning in America, holds out great inducements to that large class of young men who, being unable or unwilling, for pecuniary or other reasons, to go through with the ordinary prescribed curriculum of four years, would nevertheless be delighted at the opportunity of spending a year or two at college in the prosecution of a few favorite branches of study. The importance of even one year of college life to a young man can hardly be estimated. Not only does he have the opportunity to pursue his favorite studies for that period, but he has the immense advantage of coming into contact and forming friendships with more of those young men who are destined to be leading lawyers, physicians, preachers, teachers, and statesmen in the future than he could meet with in any other way.

R. H. DABNEY.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, December 1, 1889.

PEDAGOGY IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter in the last *Nation*, headed "Pedagogy in the Universities," meets a most sympathetic response in my heart. I know something from personal experience of the methods both of larger and smaller American colleges, and although my connection with them has been on the whole beneficial, it has not by any means been what it would if some of the professors in these same institutions had known how to teach.

In college, as in the university, the only question which seems to be asked in regard to the fitness of any person for a particular chair is, Does he know his subject? not, Does he know men and how to make them interested in his subject? If he stands in the first rank as a scholar, no further questions seem to be asked. Note the way that high-stand men in all our colleges are asked to come back and accept tutorships, sometimes immediately after graduation, sometimes after additional preparation, but always with the understanding that their qualification is knowledge of their subject, never a knowledge of the ways and means of imparting it. And the average tutor's conception of his position is one which will correspond with this principle of selection. He is not called a teacher, but a tutor—as if any word could possibly describe so anomalous a position. He sits before the class, hears them recite, flunks them, or lets them through easy—it makes no difference to him; makes a record of his judgment of their excellence, and then

lets them out to give place to another class who are to be similarly treated. A patent, automatic, self-registering marking machine would be just as good, and better; it would not pretend to be a man.

This same vice runs through higher university grades, but it is not so widespread; not because there is any test of teaching ability required, but because a man who is old enough and knows enough to become a professor in theology, law, or medicine, generally (but not always) knows more about the human mind and its operations than the mathematical genius just graduated from college. But here scholarship is the one and only test. The ability to teach, or even the character of the man as indicating his ability to teach, seems wholly overlooked; and the man regards himself, like his more humble comrade, not as a teacher, but as a lecturer or professor. He sits before the class, rolls out information over the desk, rapidly or slowly, in ounce packages or at wholesale, just as it may suit his individual convenience or his own processes of thought. He creates an atmosphere which everybody in the room can feel, and which no one can be in doubt about, and which gives just as plain an impression as so many words: "This is *my* lecture-room. I shall do here just as I please. I am going to talk about such and such a subject. Whether you are interested or not, it makes no difference. Whether you are able to get into your brains any conception of it, is wholly a matter of indifference; and, as for asking a question for repetition or explanation, that is a hideous offence against my rights in my domain which I cannot tolerate an instant."

It is a matter of great wonder to large classes of students how persons who are known around the world for scholarship can be such poor teachers, and why educational institutions should ever ask such persons, without requiring the teaching gift, to take the time and provoke the patience of persons who are offering their time and money in the desire of being taught. Very respectfully,

A Student.

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The foot-ball season has closed. The dignified faculties may now cease making affidavits that they have not falsified their college records for the sake of strengthening "the team"; the broken bones may heal, the blackened eyes may bleach, and the undergraduates may now spend their time in watching the development of the candidates for the base-ball 'team" as they train in the gymnasium.

Are these intercollegiate contests wise? Do they promote the real, legitimate purposes of a college, so pungently expressed in your editorial on "Colleges Without Temptation" in the *Nation* of September 19, 1889? It hardly seems so to me.

What advantages result from these contests between the colleges? (1.) Provincialism is perhaps prevented by association thus brought about between the representatives of the different colleges; a little more unity (not harmony) is created in the college world. (2.) College patriotism is increased: none of us like to see our college beaten; all of us feel a pride in victory. As to whether this "patriotism" is of a lofty or even desirable order, I do not now inquire. I am unable to state other advantages. Now, what are the evils connected with and resultant from these contests?

(1.) Gambling. The amount of betting on the results of these games is something enormous. The gambling spirit becomes so strong and so widespread that he is a rare undergraduate who believes, and lives up to the belief, that obtaining money from another without rendering an equivalent, is but a form of robbery. When one observes the results of this gambling spirit, in the numerous defalcations of cashiers and trustees, caused by stock speculation; in the cases of "nervous prostration" among business men, caused more often by illegitimate side-shows in the stock market than by legitimate business; and in the wrecked fortunes and homes of the victims of some successful "deal"—the cultivation of this spirit among the young men who should occupy places of leadership in the business and professional world is not to be considered lightly.

(2.) Drinking. The pride the young alumnus feels in learning that his Alma Mater has defeated some rival college on the campus is somewhat alloyed when he also learns that the victors celebrated by looting all convenient bar-rooms, smashed car windows, and terrified the populace at all the stations along the route home, and that several of the young heroes were carted to their rooms helplessly drunk. Yet this is no overdrawn picture. From personal observation, I know that the habit of intemperate drinking has been greatly increased in at least one college by these mob visits to other institutions. It is considered "the thing" to drink then, if at no other time.

(3.) A spirit of brutality and unfairness is produced, the brutality more especially by foot-ball. The desire to win becomes so rampant that *any* means—"slugging," even maiming, tricks of all kinds—are resorted to. I remember that one stalwart but verdant Freshman became so thoroughly imbued with foot-ball spirit that he apologized to his captain, after the game, because his opponent in the rush-line had been able to endure his attack for fifteen minutes, when the Freshman had been strictly charged to "knock him out in five minutes." The newspaper reports for the past few weeks are sufficient evidence that no spirit of courteous fairness characterizes these contests.

(4.) The expense. The average expenses of a student in a New England college are now just about double the average yearly wages of a workingman. This great disproportion is a striking illustration of the fact that the gulf between the rich and the poor is constantly widening in America. If the present tendency continues, it soon will be impossible for the poor man's son to gain a college education in any other character than that of a "subsidized embryo preacher." It is much more difficult for a high-spirited young man to refuse to share in a college interest than it is for him to wear cheap clothes or occupy a poorly furnished room.

(5.) These intercollegiate contests *prevent* a general physical culture among the students. The moment there is a "'varsity team" in training, the whole athletic interest centres in it; the time that should be given to vigorous exercise is given to a hump-backed watching of the practising team from the fence or stand. There is actually less ball-playing in college when a nine is put in training than before; the tennis-courts are less frequented; the college populace takes its exercise like the Roman populace—by proxy. This is no small evil—this making a *concentrated extract of athlete*; it is bad for the extract and bad for the residuum.

(6.) These contests and their results attract a class of fellows to college that have no proper place there. The consequences are that a bad tone, morally and intellectually, is given to the college, interest in scholarly pursuits is decreased, degrees are given to many without the slightest real claim. In your editorial above referred to, you say: "The next great step in collegiate education in this country will, we believe, be the resolute shutting of the doors on all boys who are not eager to learn, and who are not willing, while at college, to lead scholastic lives." Yet the plea is made that these contests advertise the colleges, and make them attractive to rich men's sons who do not care for such stupid pursuits as science and literature. The inducements held out to men of not the slightest taste or capacity for scholarship to enter certain colleges, are a disgrace to American education. The degree of A.B. is just as likely to mean that a young man is a good ball-player as that he has a trained mind. Instead of an atmosphere of scholarship, the tendency is towards an atmosphere of professional sporting. The professors find little responsiveness in their class-rooms, become disgusted, and do not give out the best that is in them. The best teacher in the world will not long teach well unless his students show some appreciation of his work.

American college graduates are no longer boys: the average age is now very nearly twenty-three. If non-professional studies are to be pursued to this age, the college degree ought to mean a broad and thorough culture; but this can be acquired only by earnest labor in serious and manly pursuits. I submit that these intercollegiate contests are an evil to be abolished. G. W. A.

Boston, December 2, 1889.

SOMETHING NEW IN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An interesting bit of development in constitutional law is going on just now in Colorado. It may be remembered that the Constitution of Colorado, admitted as a State in 1876—the latest State, until our recent four—was a pronounced specimen of what seems to some of us, not to say it disrespectfully, that degraded modern form of constitution in which the Legislature is restrained by many detailed prohibitions. It was this instrument, probably, to which Mr. Bryce alluded ('American Commonwealth,' i, 427) when he said, in describing the kind: "We even find the method prescribed in which stationery and coals for the use of the Legislature shall be contracted for." Constitution of Colorado, art. v, sec. 29.

After eight or nine years' experience with this instrument, the people of Colorado, in 1886, adopted an amendment to it which at first sight looks merely like what several other constitutions have—a provision for enabling the Legislature and the Executive to get an advisory opinion from the judges. It was this:

"The Supreme Court shall give its opinion upon important questions upon solemn occasions, when required by the Governor, the Senate, or the House of Representatives; and all such opinions shall be published in connection with the reported decisions of the Court."

It is well known that a clause very similar to this has long existed in four New England constitutions, and that it was afterwards introduced into the Constitution of Missouri (and subsequently left out) and into that of Florida. So, also, is it lately introduced into that of our new State of South Dakota.

But Colorado has a peculiarity. Everywhere else, the provision calls for the opinion of "the justices" of the court, and the construction given to it (with a single exception) is, that the

opinions are merely advisory. This construction seems clearly right: these clauses simply introduce a piece of English constitutional procedure, and nothing is more certain than that such opinions in England are only advisory. The exception above referred to is found in an opinion in 70 Maine at p. 583. But that opinion has various marks of being ill-considered; among others is the circumstance that it omits to recognize that the contrary doctrine had been repeatedly laid down by judges in Maine, and that it was established elsewhere, wherever the question had been raised. Now, in Colorado, the Supreme Court, in an opinion of last spring, lately printed, in 21 Pacif. Rep. 478, takes notice of this distinction, and, after declaring that "it is the court and not the justices that must answer," goes on to say that "our responses must be reported as are other opinions, and *they have all the force and effect of judicial precedents.*" This is a very remarkable result, that of giving to such informal answers a judicial quality, the quality of authority and precedent; and one may well doubt whether the Court is not over-emphasizing the effect of using the word "court" instead of "justices of the court." For the history of this sort of thing must be remembered, and its interpretation elsewhere. The reporting of these answers is common everywhere. And it seems worthy of remark that the Colorado amendment seems to contrast these "opinions" with the "decisions of the Court."

But I am postponing too long the main point of my letter. It lies in the following interesting passage from the opinion of Helm, C. J., speaking for "the court," in the case above named:

"The history of this constitutional amendment may be consulted with advantage in the endeavor to discover its purpose. The successive legislatures meeting after the admission of Colorado to Statehood *encountered great difficulty in the enactment of laws*, on account of numerous wise but troublesome limitations contained in the Constitution. Perplexity and confusion arose in consequence of legislation which this court was ultimately compelled to hold invalid. It was deemed expedient that each house should have the privilege of submitting questions, so that the injurious consequences arising from unconstitutional legislation might be avoided by having the validity of proposed legislative acts thus determined in advance. . . . All the questions propounded by the General Assembly of 1887, which was the first to meet after the adoption of the amendment [the Court gave seventeen of these opinions that term], . . . rested upon legislative doubts as to the constitutionality of certain proposed acts or parts of acts."

The Court draws the conclusion that "executive questions must be purely *juris publici*, and that legislative questions must be connected with pending legislation, and relate either to the constitutionality thereof or to matters connected therewith of purely public right."

Here, then (if we assume the Court's construction to be sound), we have a State getting into trouble by tying up its Legislature with many petty restrictions, and then trying to get out of its trouble by giving its judges the portentous power of settling by an authoritative manifesto, unaided by argument, the question of whether the Legislature has conformed to these requirements. And the consequences of this construction are so serious that the Court restricts the natural meaning of the language of the new amendment so as to limit it to particular classes of questions.

It would be interesting to know whether the Court has stated the full strength of the arguments for saying that these opinions in Colorado should "have all the force and effect of judicial precedents." If it has, the question may, perhaps, be regarded as not yet finally settled. JAMES B. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 7, 1889.

SYSTEMS OF TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am very much obliged to "G. W. A." for his recognition of my efforts in behalf of executive leadership in our legislatures. My attention has of late been diverted from the importance of this in the national legislatures to the still greater and more pressing need in the States—greater because our State governments are still more demoralized and chaotic than at Washington. Taxation is one, and perhaps the most important, branch of administration, and if our Governor had some real and positive power, and had, together with a staff of leading officials of his own choosing, a seat in the Legislature, the unjust, impolitic, and wholly abominable system of taxation which prevails in Massachusetts would not remain long without vigorous attack.

Though regarding it as a side issue, I will try to meet "G. W. A.'s" fair and candid argument. In the first place, it is not proposed to tax one kind of property at the expense of another, but simply to collect the tax from quick capital *through* the land and buildings. Thus, if I own land with a building on it, it would make no difference to me if the tax was doubled, provided my tenant would increase his rent by the same amount. A farmer would be perfectly willing to double the tax on his farm, provided he could make up the difference in the price of his produce. The fact is, quick capital will still pay its share of taxes, only it will do what men like so much better—pay indirectly instead of directly.

Mr. George's single-tax theory, if I understand it, is that land alone shall be taxed; so that a lot of land which is not occupied and has no income, shall pay the same tax as land immediately adjoining which is covered with buildings and gets a large income. Mr. George, in fact, regards private ownership in land as the source of all human woe, and desires to tax it out of existence. I respectfully protest against being connected with any such doctrine.

Of course the great difficulty in transferring all taxes to land and buildings would be the transition, as at first the change would doubtless bear heavily on real estate. I think, however, that even this might be overcome by an expedient which it would take too much space to state here; but the condition of Vermont and New Hampshire is so desperate as to call for desperate remedies.

"G. W. A." says that the presence of quick capital on land is owing to the nature of the soil, or its suitableness for the purposes of men. No doubt; but what I maintain is, that taxation can greatly increase this attractiveness, or cancel it altogether. There is a buiding going up on State Street ten stories high, and covering an acre of land, to be used for offices. The owners of that building would gladly pay three times, perhaps five times, as much in taxes as any equal amount of land and buildings if they could secure the condition that their tenants should be free from personal taxation, while all other citizens were forced to make returns of all their personal property for taxation. If the case were reversed, the owners could not pay any taxes at all, as they could not let a room. What is true of this building is just as true of the whole city or State.

"G. W. A." says that my plan is like taxing agricultural industries and favoring manufacturing. Not at all. The farmer loses more by the increased tax on his quick capital, as "G. W. A." shows later on, than he gains from the factory, especially as he is thus still more overweighted as against Western produce. The other plan merely changes the incidence of taxation, placing it on all land and buildings alike, leaving quick capital to do what and go where it likes.

"G. W. A." says that the farms near the cities have declined more than those more remote. That only proves that the farmer near the cities finds out quicker what is killing him. Moreover, I think it could be shown that the cities and towns themselves, in those States, have lost ground quite as much as the farms, *relatively* to the rest of the country. I doubt if there are many cities in the country with less manufacturing, in proportion to size, than Boston. The system of taxation destroys, or seriously hampers, all kinds of industry and enterprise. As to the tariff on clothing and iron, that is no special disadvantage to New England, and affects equally the whole country.

There is some special cause in New England, and I believe the one assigned is more potent than all others put together. Few persons have any idea of the tremendous power of taxation in affecting social conditions. Somebody has said, "Give me the imposition of taxes, and I can make grass grow on Broadway in New York." The statement is not in the least exaggerated, and he could hardly employ a better instrument than the present tax law of Vermont.

I return to the original point: We have no machinery for reforming the tax system or anything else. The Legislatures and their committees are in a condition of perfect chaos—without guidance, without coherence, and without policy. Executive leadership is the one imperative need. The Cabinet should have seats in Congress, the State officials in the Legislatures, and the city heads of departments in the Councils. The only way to keep executive and legislative powers separate is to bring the two branches into contact, and let each fight for its own rights. G. B.

BOSTON, November 30, 1889.

SPEECH SURVIVALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In regard to the vocable "Vat" written of by your correspondent, "W. I. R.," I would say that, in my childhood fifty years ago in Georgia, I have heard old people, speaking of the staple of Georgia before cotton, viz., indigo, which was prepared in a *vat*, invariably pronouncing it *fat*. Among these were two old lawyers, who, as was then not uncommon, had graduated at Oxford—and one had read law in the Temple. I remember it because the anomalous pronunciation puzzled me.

Your correspondent, Mr. Morgan, neglected to mention that there was a *Latin* word for bribery in "blocks," not an equivalent of δεκάζεσθαι, videlicet, *decuriare*. There is no question but the *thing* was in existence long before Col. Dudley, and there is a lack of information as to the method. It could not have been more familiar than with us.

Your obedient servant,
KENNON, A.M.

SILVER CITY, NEW MEXICO, November 29, 1889.

THE KENTUCKIAN AND HIS HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A serious difficulty in accounting for Kentucky feuds on the ground that the Ken-

tuckian regards his honor as more precious than his life, lies in the fact that commonly the man with wounded honor is found seeking the life of somebody else instead of committing *hara-kiri*. In one Kentucky town recently, a man who thought he had been falsely accused went dramatically into the principal street, declared the charge unfounded, and then and there cut his own throat in proof of his innocence and honor. Instead of making a hero of him, the neighbors generally voted him weak-minded.

Is there not something the matter with an honor that must be constantly guarded with pistol and knife? A robust honor should take care of itself without such defences.

Yours respectfully, W. E. C. WRIGHT.

BEREA, KY., December 3, 1889.

NATIONAL IGNORANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What about *national* ignorance? Some fifty Americans were asked quite recently to name the year of Washington's birth and the year of his death. Two only were able to answer.

To the question of how many States and Territories there are at present in the Union, no answer could be given.

How many Americans can answer either of the above questions without reference to books? X.

NOVEMBER 30, 1889.

THE HEREDITARY PRINCIPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the closing paragraph of an article on "The Hereditary Principle" in the *Nation* of November 28, surprise is expressed that "popular faith in 'blood' should . . . be as strong as it is, in view of the extreme rarity with which parents transmit either great mental or moral qualities to their offspring." Now, the fact is that popular faith, if it really exist, is probably well founded, as the investigations of Francis Galton, published under the title 'Hereditary Genius,' go a long way towards proving. To every one will occur, on reflection, cases of families in which peculiar gifts of mind and character have been transmitted from parent to child, for generations. The well-known hereditary nature of the tendency to insanity, as well as the existence of "criminal families," in which the tendency to wards criminality is inherited, are evidence in the same direction.

It must be borne in mind that the influence of the nature of both parents in the hereditary character of the offspring is about equal; hence, where only one of the parents is markedly above the average, the tendency would be for the influence of the other to weaken that of the gifted parent; and, furthermore, as Galton seems to have proved in his last work, 'Natural Inheritance,' the influence of both parents together on the character of the child is about equal to that of the long line of previous ancestors.—Your obedient servant, A. M.

NEW YORK, November 30, 1889.

A HIMYARITIC COLLECTION IN THE MARKET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to call the attention of scholars and others to the fact that the collection of monuments and squeezes of Himyaritic inscriptions which Edward Glaser brought with him from his last trip to Arabia is now for sale. The Himyaritic stones number thirty-six, some of them containing inscriptions of unusual length, while the squeezes taken by Glaser run up to so high a figure as seven hundred, among them inscriptions numbering several hundred lines. The price demanded for the collection is 70,000 marks, or about $17,500, which seems very high, but is not exorbitant when we have the assurance of Glaser himself that his trip alone cost him 40,000 marks. The inscriptions, it must further be borne in mind, represent unpublished material; and from the glimpses which Glaser shows us in his recent pamphlet, it is evident that their contents are of vast importance, furnishing us with the names of new rulers in southern Arabia, throwing unhoped-for light upon the beginnings of the powers that once flourished in Yemen, and otherwise adding directly to our stock of knowledge.

Mr. Glaser, in a letter recently received by me, states that he would be particularly pleased to have his collection go to the United States. The opportunity is now offered us to secure for some one of our museums or universities one of the rarest prizes that have been put on the market in this age of great archæological discoveries. If we let the opportunity slip by, the European museums will be grateful to us; if we desire to arouse their envy, let some wealthy individual who believes in the encouragement of scholarship in this country step forward and guarantee the sum. If our country is ever to be as productive in original research as European countries are, it can only be through filling our museums and providing our universities with *original* material. What a great step in advance the acquisition of the Glaser collection would be! And what a sad thing it would be if we allowed other museums to obtain what is now as a first choice offered to us.

Mr. Glaser awaits a reply from this country, but he will not wait very long. I shall be glad to answer any questions with regard to the collection that may be put to me, and also to put prospective buyers into direct connection with the distinguished traveller.

Very respectfully, MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, Dec. 2, 1889.

Notes.

THE J. G. Cupples Publishing Co., Boston, have in press 'Vigilante Days and Ways; or, The Pioneers of the Rockies,' being side-lights on the makers and making of Montana, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming, by Nathaniel Pitt Langford. It will be in two volumes, elaborately illustrated.

Two volumes will also be given to the lectures on Systematic Theology delivered by Prof. Buel at the General Theological Seminary, of which Thomas Whittaker will be the publisher.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, have in press or in preparation 'The North Shore Watch,' a volume of verse by Mr. George E. Woodberry; a Life of Charles G. Finney, the once-famous revivalist, by Prof. G. Frederick Wright of Oberlin; a Life of Bryant, by Mr. John Bigelow; and 'Conversations in a Studio,' by W. W. Story.

Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly publish 'Said in Fun,' a collection of the wittiest sayings of the late Philip H. Welch, with much unpublished matter and numerous full-page drawings by our humorous artists.

Under the probable title of 'National Needs and Remedies,' the Baker & Taylor Co. will soon have ready the Proceedings of the Boston Conference of the Evangelical Alliance.

A correspondent admonishes us that we fell into a trap laid for us by the editors of the "Library of American Literature" in their latest (ninth) volume. Commenting on this, we noticed, what appeared to be the fact, that no littérateur born between 1829 and 1831, inclusive, was admitted to the collection. The eighth volume proves the contrary; but the reason for our not turning back to it was our faith in the chronological strictness of the arrangement, whereas Theodore Winthrop (first in vol. ix, born in 1828) was out of place, and was followed immediately by the men of 1832. Our correspondent further remarks an error on p. 471 of vol. ix, in the date of John Esten Cooke's death, which did not take place in 1863, but on September 27, 1886.

The "Bedford Edition" of Shakspere's Works, in the Chandos Classics series (Frederick Warne & Co.), consists of twelve pocket volumes neatly bound in a dull-red cloth, each page surrounded with a red border, and the typography very clear and sufficiently large. The sonnets and other poems are relegated to the last volume, together with the glossary—the text being devoid of footnotes. The editing is original, but we cannot examine it critically. This little library in its jewel-box is sold at a remarkably low price, and makes one of the most welcome of gifts.

The story of Mr. Fields's Boston edition of De Quincey's complete works, anticipating one by this author himself, and a very welcome aid towards the preparation of the latter, is told by Prof. David Masson in his general preface to a new fourteen-volume edition of 'The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). This preface, most agreeably written, ushers in the first volume, which begins with the autobiography; and it promises the kind of editing which one could wish to see. Logical arrangement and exact chronology, careful references to the sources (as in the worked-over matter), with a completeness as to contents not heretofore attained, and an "index to the whole edition," leave nothing to be desired in the way of programme, while Prof. Masson's competence is not to be disputed. The typographic conception of the work is admirable—the size duodecimo; the largest, surely, which should ever be thought of for De Quincey. Letter and press-work have the Scotch excellence, and the binding is a scarlet cloth. The initial volume has portraits and views of De Quincey's homes and lodgings. The enterprise will go forward at the rate of one issue monthly till the series is finished. We commend it to all admirers of the "Opium Eater."

Mr. Frank Stockton's story for children, 'What Might Have Been Expected,' is some fifteen years old, but there is plenty of life in it, and the publishers (Dodd, Mead & Co.) make, and need to make, no apology for reviving it. The theme is one which we can imagine being treated by the author of 'Daddy Jake,' though Mr. Stockton habitually develops his stories more at length than Mr. Harris.

Mrs. Valentine has collected, from Mme. d'Aulnoy, Charles Perrault, and others, 'The Old Old Fairy Tales,' and gently edited in the interest of refinement the versions found ready to hand. The volume is a thick one, of more than 500 pages (F. Warne & Co.), and may well find a place beside many briefer and less stilted renderings. The woodcuts in the text are of great variety and of various degrees of pertinence, yet harmonize among themselves; but the full colored plates are garish and out of key.

William Harwar Parker's 'Familiar Talks

on Astronomy' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) are so easy and pleasant that they may well attract readers who would be repelled by a volume of greater pretensions and more formal style. Even the little mathematical explanations on which he now and then enters become quite readable under his facile pen. It is, however, rather surprising that a naval officer who must have had easy access to good authorities, should have entertained so many exploded or unverified ideas, historic and scientific, as we find in his book. He seems to think the work of Thales as well known as that of Ptolemy, and Lockyer is his great modern authority.

Mr. C. A. M. Taber, an experienced sea captain, now resident at Wakefield, Mass., has sent us a pamphlet on 'Winds, Ocean Currents, and Ice Periods,' in the study of which he has found entertainment during his leisure for some ten years past. His citations show familiarity with a good number of well-known writers, but original sources are seldom referred to, and his work therefore necessarily loses much of freshness and strength. He seeks to explain great climatic changes by alternate blocking of the northern and southern oceans by ice barriers, whereby the winds and currents are seriously modified. It might be admitted that his consequences would follow if his postulates were accepted, but the acceptance of the latter is, unfortunately, quite out of the question.

Doty's 'Prompt Aid to the Injured' (Appleton) devotes considerable space to anatomy and hygiene, unwisely, as we think, in view of the character of the book. The illustrations in the chapters on bandages, the control of hæmorrhage, and resuscitation from drowning, are good, but the text contains too many words for the ideas. As it stands, it is insufficient to replace professional skill, and is scarcely dogmatic enough for the arbitrary direction of untrained men. The chapter on military transportation of wounded will probably have to be rewritten for the next edition, to bring it in accord with that of the regular army, which is now in a provisional state.

Pathology, as one of the foundations of practical medicine, daily grows in importance as it does in accuracy. 'A Text-Book of Pathology,' by Prof. Hamilton of Aberdeen, the first volume of which has just appeared (Macmillan), is the latest systematic contribution to this subject, and is an admirable example of what such a book should be for the working student, whether pupil or master. It not only describes the morbid conditions as found, but how to find them, beginning with detailed directions for making an autopsy, and including the technique of bacteriology and histology, with clear descriptions of the normal and diseased states, and with comments upon the causes of disease. The special qualities of this work are its completeness, its simplicity of style, its copiousness and beauty of illustration, and its bibliography. Although written for the medical student, the student of histology in our collegiate scientific departments would find much of it valuable for reference.

Dr. Postgate has given us, in the words of the poet himself, a *lepidum novum libellum* in his critical edition of Catullus (London: G. Bell & Sons). The dainty little volume might almost be *pumice expolitus*, so spotless and fresh-looking is its dress. Within, the editor has collected the emendations which he has offered the learned world at various times in German and English periodicals. They are always thoughtful, and often supply useful suggestions, even when one may not be disposed to accept entirely the editor's conclusions. In the MS. readings he follows Schwabe's collation, but has taken especial care to restore the contemporary spelling, and, rightly we think, departs in many instances from even the best manuscripts. We recommend the book to all lovers of the poet.

The long-established idea that women's minds are made of some soft and flabby material, totally unlike the tough masculine fibre, must apparently be definitively given up, for even the women of Texas are beginning to feel the irksomeness of a mollusc-like state of existence. Prof. Halsted, in his report to the President of the Board of Regents of the University of Texas, says: "Several young ladies have shown *marked ability* in the acquirement of the newer and more abstruse developments of the science, for example, quaternions."

From Utica, N. Y., there reaches us the first number of *College and School*, "a monthly magazine for teachers, students, and parents," and edited in the spirit of its motto—from Pope:

"—— half our knowledge we must snatch, not take."

It offers several brief original papers on educational topics, literary notes and reviews, and college news—this last in desperately fine type.

Mr. G. R. Carpenter contributes to the last two numbers of the *Harvard Monthly* a translation (through the German) of Ibsen's "Lady of the Sea," in five acts. A four-act play, "Rosmersholm," by the same masterful dramatist, is also appearing in English in the new Boston eclectic, the *Transatlantic*. This very handsomely printed journal, by the way, "a mirror of European life and letters," succeeds well in carrying out a novel design. A portrait of some celebrity, by photographic process, adorns the cover of each issue—Ibsen's leading off in No. 1, if our memory serves us. The adoption of a French face for its letterpress does not approve itself to our judgment.

The November number of *Sun and Shade* (New York: The Photogravure Co.) consists of eight plates of the usual variety and good quality; a bit from Meissonier's "Friedland" at the fore. There is a view of the noble archway of the Cemetery of Columbus at Havana, and several interesting nature studies.

The half-century of photographic achievement since Daguerre was lately commemorated in Berlin by the Deutsche Gesellschaft der Photographie, and some interesting examples drawn from this exhibition are given by Prof. H. W. Vogel in connection with an article in *Vom Fels zum Meer* in its third issue for 1889-'90 (New York: F. W. Christern). Instantaneous dry-plate performances are mingled with numerous portraits of the imperial family, Berlin artists, etc. Some American scenic and character views are included.

The annual and occasional publications of the Arundel Society for the current year are all executed by W. Greve, Berlin. We have received from the American agents, E. & J. B. Young & Co., the "Christ Bound to the Column," from the fresco by Bazzi now in the Accademia of Siena, after a water-color drawing by Herr Kaiser. It is an admirable reproduction, well adapted for framing by the symmetry of the design, the near column dividing a distant arch through which sky and lake are visible. The picture is pleasing also from its good drawing of the figure of Christ, and from the absence of the extreme painfulness of the crucifixion.

A compilation from the joint State and United States survey of Massachusetts during the years 1884-'87 has just been issued by the U. S. Geological Survey at Washington. It shows the whole of the State in four sheets, on a scale of four miles to the inch, with a delineation of the contours at intervals of a hundred feet. The main object of this beautiful map is so far topographical that the insertion of town names is almost arbitrary; thus, to take a well-known instance, the town of Old Hadley is not set down.

The American Folk-Lore Society held its first annual meeting in Philadelphia, November 29 and 30. Officers were elected as follows: President, Dr. D. G. Brinton of Philadelphia; Secretary, Mr. W. W. Newell of Cambridge, Mass.; Treasurer, Mr. Henry Phillips, jr., of Philadelphia; and a council composed of fourteen members. Provision was made for life-membership. It was brought to the attention of the Society that no adequate means existed for printing investigations in American mythology and folk-lore. Authority was accordingly given to the Council to print monographs, in addition to the journal of the Society (the *Journal of American Folk-Lore*), so far as the funds at their disposal should prove to permit. Among papers read was one by Mr. James Mooney of the Bureau of Ethnology, giving an account of the recent discovery by him of manuscripts of the Cherokee medicine-men, containing their medicinal formulas and spells, and revealing in detail their theory of the cause and cure of disease. About eighty members have recently been added to the Society in Philadelphia, where, as well as in Boston, it is proposed to form a local branch.

—We record with the deepest regret the death, at Cannes, on December 5, of Gen. Francis Winthrop Palfrey of Boston, son of the late John G. Palfrey, one of the noblest and purest of the political abolitionists, and the standard historian of early New England. Gen. Palfrey was a graduate of Harvard College and its Law School (classes of 1851 and 1853). Like so many of his fellow-alumni, he threw himself with all his soul into the war of the rebellion, where, as an officer in the Twentieth Massachusetts, he won great distinction for gallantry, and, though wounded, served from beginning to end. Resuming the practice of the law, he married a daughter of the late Sidney Bartlett. He continued to be a student of the war, wrote an admirable memoir of his eminent companion in arms, Gen. W. F. Bartlett, a no less praiseworthy account of Antietam and Fredericksburg for the "Campaigns of the Civil War," was a contributor to the Military Papers of the Historical Society of Massachusetts, and, down to the year 1882, a frequent reviewer of military works for the *Nation*. By that date, perhaps conscious of the disease which has caused his death in his fifty-ninth year, he resolved, as he wrote us on May 12, "to decline all literary labor outside of completing my father's history." General Palfrey was a man of singular sweetness, justness, and probity of character, and as fine an example of patriot and Puritan stock as this generation has seen. He will be greatly missed.

— A still earlier contributor to the *Nation*, and perhaps the most constant if not the most voluminous in the quarter century of this journal's existence, passed away very suddenly at Madison, Wis., on Monday morning, December 9. Prof. William Francis Allen began writing for the *Nation* with its fourth issue, and it might be said with more truth than exaggeration that hardly a number had since appeared without something from his pen. His first essays were political, connected with his recent visit, in 1865, to South Carolina, and the prospects of reconstruction at the South; and it is characteristic of his versatile talent that on that journey he noted down the songs

(words and music) of the late bondmen, which presently, in 1867, led to the publication of the 'Slave Songs of the United States,' the first and the best work of its kind. To this invaluable collection Prof. Allen, as senior editor, furnished also the Introduction, on the negro dialect, which had already been treated by him in No. 24 of the *Nation*. His interest in the betterment of our political system and customs ever remained very strong, and he wrote much for these columns on minority, personal, or proportional representation; on civil-service reform; on city government, etc. His occasional letters to the editor on these and some other topics were uniformly signed "Marcel." His range as a reviewer was very wide, embracing ornithology, political economy, history (ancient and modern, European, Oriental, and American), English literature, and the classical languages and literature. His scholarship was extremely solid, and his accuracy remarkable in a high degree. His first chair (in Greek and Latin) was at Antioch College, from which he passed in 1867 to the University of Wisconsin, becoming Professor of Ancient Languages, and afterwards of the Latin Language and Literature, and latterly of History, for which he had, by direct inheritance from his father, the Rev. Joseph Allen, the strongest inclination. In this domain he never had the leisure to produce a work commensurate with his knowledge and powers, and this will always be cause for regret, though it is typical of the necessity under which American professors labor. We trust, however, that the text-book on the history of Rome on which he had been engaged was left in a shape fit for publication, if it be not already passing through the press. He had made a special study, since 1871, of the subject of village communities. Prof. Allen was born in Northborough, Mass., September 5, 1830, of a family distinguished in the educational annals of New England and in the Unitarian denomination. He was a classmate at Harvard of General Palfrey, Prof. W. W. Goodwin, Prof. Langdell, Prof. Dunbar, and other eminent men. His singleness and elevation of mind, his modesty, conscientiousness, and amiable and disinterested traits endeared him to all who knew him. The *Nation* in particular feels that in his departure it has lost a part of itself.

—Kent's edition of 'Elene' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) will be serviceable to our teachers and students of Anglo-Saxon. It is based in the main upon the editorial labors of Wülker and Zupitza. We regret the use of the circumflex to mark vowel-length, especially of diphthongs. The printing of the Latin 'Vita Quiriaci' under the Anglo-Saxon text is a happy idea. Less happy are some of the editor's views and statements. The description of the Vercelli MS. will have to be modified according to Napier's paper (*Zeitschrift für deutsches Altertum*, xxxiii, 67), published, it is true, after the editor had written his introduction. The discussion of the metrical features of the poem errs both in what it gives and what it withholds. It gives a quasi-tabulation of the so-called rhymes in 'Elene.' To our mind, or rather to our ear, these are in most instances no rhymes at all. We are not prepared to accept as rhyme a mere coincidence of sound in *unstressed* syllables. On the other hand, the editor has not said a word about Sievers's metrical system, one of the most important discoveries since the formulation of Verner's law. In general we suspect that Kent has given insufficient heed to Sievers, else he would scarcely have ventured to assert, p. 4, that "there is no linguistic testimony to a Northumbrian origin." Not a few of the notes would be better placed, we judge, in the glossary, under the respective words that they explain. What warrant there is for asserting, note to v. 766, that the Saxon conception of hell was of a huge monster whose mouth was the entrance, we fail to discover. To swell the list of corrigenda would serve no purpose, and would do the editor injustice. His work is in the main thoroughly scholarly and practical, and worthy of its place in the series.

—Mention of Kent's edition of 'Elene' leads us naturally to speak of Garnett's translation (Ginn & Co). Together with the 'Elene,' Garnett has rendered in this volume 'Judith,' the 'Fight at Brunanburh,' and the 'Fight at Maldon.' Bearing in mind his previous translation of 'Beowulf,' we are led to hope that Prof. Garnett will in time give us Grein's entire 'Corpus' in modern verse. Those who wish to indulge in comparisons will examine Garnett's metrical rendering of the 'Elene' with Weymouth's prose. His rendering of 'Judith' may also be examined with that in Cook's edition. Without venturing to enter into the minutiæ of single passages, we wish to say a general word or two concerning what seems to us the proper vehicle for rendering Anglo-Saxon verse. Ever since the promulgation of Sievers's theory, with its *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*-feet, two points are clear: first, that previous conceptions, or misconceptions, will have to be discarded; second, that the Anglo-Saxon (or rather primitive Teutonic) system cannot be made to fit into any other system, classic or modern. We must content ourselves with an approximation, and it seems to us that the modern translator of Anglo-Saxon verse can scarcely do better than adopt the easy-going rhythmical four-beat measure common in popular poetry of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and sanctioned even by Spenser in the 'Shepherd's Calendar.' "These wisards welter in welth's waves" (*July*, 197) may serve as a model. We should have a line with a strongly marked cæsura, two strongly marked syllables in each hemistich, and at least one alliterative syllable in each. We believe that these requirements can be satisfied, and at the same time the sense rendered closely. Garnett's lines do not satisfy our ear. Verse without terminal rhyme should have either an unmistakable metrical flow (like that of blank verse, for instance), or an equally unmistakable alliterative flow. It would be supererogation on our part to discuss Garnett's translation as translation. It is clear and scholarly. We have not the space for details, much less for fault-finding. The book will be a help to teacher and pupil.

—Eleven years ago the gentleman who calls himself "Professor Hoffmann" published 'Modern Magic,' by far the best book then existing in our language on the fascinating mysteries of the conjurer's art; and since then he has translated adroitly, and edited with abundant notes, three invaluable works on the same subject by the late Robert Houdin, the great modern master of the art of magic. In these eleven years more mysteries have been evolved, and these "Professor Hoffmann" now sets forth with his wonted skill in a stout volume which he calls 'More Magic' (George Routledge & Sons). This is really a supplement to the earlier work, with which it is uniform in size and in its illustrations. As in 'Modern Magic,' the author begins at the beginning, with the conjurer's table, the *servante* and the *pochette*, and with the substitutes for these, with his wand and with his dress—all of which may be efficient aids in the performance of one trick or another. Then in turn he considers card-tricks, with and without apparatus; tricks with coins; with watches and rings, with handkerchiefs, and with balls; tricks of divination (including, it may be well to note, a true explanation of "second sight," so called); tricks with hats; tricks with eggs; and, last of all, more elaborate stage tricks (including here the "Vanishing Lady" of M. Buatier de Kolta, one of the foremost of Robert Houdin's followers, and like him in his most artistic neatness of combination). A comparison of 'More Magic' with the books on conjuring written in the first half of this century will reveal at once the constant effort of all conjurers towards the apparent elimination of apparatus. The magician of today uses quite as many mechanical contrivances as his predecessor of fifty years ago, but he seems to use few or none. The tone of Professor Hoffmann's book is manly and pleasant, and his hearty praise for his contemporaries is not to be overlooked.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—I.

History of the United States of America during the First Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

Mr. Adams enters at once upon the historical task set before him in these volumes without a word of formal preface or of formal introduction. Nor was it needful that he should make any such sign, by way either of indicating his historical point of view or of proving his special competency to deal with this period in our political annals. To those who are familiar with his former writings it is enough to say that prefatory hints of the most significant kind as to the author's *manière de voir* may be found in his excellent biography of Albert Gallatin, in his careful edition of Gallatin's works, in his vivid sketch of John Randolph, and in his study of 'New England Federalism.' And he could well dispense with the words of a formal introduction when in six whole chapters, crowded with descriptive facts and illumined with philosophical comment, he has constructed a fitting portal through which the reader may approach the Jeffersonian epoch. In these most suggestive chapters Mr. Adams discusses the physical and the economical conditions of the problem which nature had placed before the founders of our Government at the beginning of the Federal Union; the salient characteristics of the American people in point of their social and moral evolution at the period of Jefferson's accession to the Presidency; the peculiarities of intellect manifested respectively by the inhabitants of New England, of the Middle States, and of the Southern States; and, finally, the ideals (ideals working all the more surely to a predestined end because working without a clear collective consciousness) which even at that early day were forcing their subtile influence through the apparently hard and repulsive elements of a raw social order.

These introductory chapters are so striking and so philosophical that we could have wished for still another chapter, which should have been devoted to a descriptive analysis of the elements of party formation in the United States, that the real nature and the true proportions of the antithesis between the old Federalists who framed the Constitution and the Republicans who effected "the revolution of 1800" might have been set before the reader in a clearer light. Without some such analysis the reader is left to pick his way in the dark

through the nexus of events and logic of ideas which led to the election of Jefferson. The services of the Federalist party were so immense, the roll of its heroes, confessors, and martyrs —Washington, John Adams, Marshall, Jay, Hamilton—is so splendid with great names, and yet its fall from power was so deep, and the popular obloquy which subsequently overwhelmed it was so universal and permanent under the long ascendancy of the Jeffersonian democracy, that some theory of political causation should have been formally propounded in explanation of so startling a result. It would seem to have been a natural prologue to the swelling scenes so dramatically exhibited by Mr. Adams. We venture this suggestion the more confidently because, in another place—in his Life of Gallatin—Mr. Adams has expressed the conviction that the dissidence of opinions and passions between the Federalist and the Republican parties was so wide, at least in the day of their sharp cleavage, that any attempt of the historian "to imagine a possible middle ground" for the conciliation of their acts and motives, as alike patriotic and wise, can only have for its effect to "make both parties ridiculous." Especially would it seem that the stirring epoch of transition between the old political order and the new might have been unfolded to us by lifting the curtain on the political combinations which threatened for a time not only the defeat of Jefferson in the House of Representatives, but the very existence of the Government. The Federalist decadence and the damaging coquetry of the Federalists with Burr—facts which fill so large a place in these pages—might there have been seen in the first hot ferment of a soured and despondent patriotism.

Bidding a truce to all such preliminary discussions, Mr. Adams begins his narrative with the day when Jefferson ascended the steps of the Capitol to take the oath of office as President of the United States. If upon most of the political questions comprised within the first term of Jefferson's Administration, the author, as already intimated, has shown his hand in the works we have named, this fact does not suffice at all to bate the interest which the intelligent reader will take in the present history. The historic point of view differs in scope, in scheme, and in critical method from that of the biographer. And, besides, a great mass of new materials has been put in requisition for the preparation of this treatise. The unpublished archives of the French and English State Departments as well as of our own have been laid under contribution. The springs of many a movement which were before obscure are here brought to sight, and thus the reader is helped to follow the logic of events with an order which has gained lucidity from new discoveries, and, we may add, with a philosophy which has gained new insight from a widened historical perspective.

In his portraiture of Jefferson's character, it is plain that Mr. Adams has tried to practise the strictest impartiality. Indeed, this virtue is sometimes so strenuous, not to say constrained, in its forms of manifestation as to suggest that the writer finds no little difficulty in letting the grace have its perfect work—so intractable and so complicated does he find the character under his hand. It has been pleasantly said of Cousin that he fell desperately in love with Mme. de Longueville by force of long writing and thinking about her, although that yellow-haired and blue-eyed beauty, half a *mondaine* heroine and half a Jansenist saint, had been dead and buried nearly two hundred years. The Tory critics never cease complaining that Macaulay always brings his "rage of advocacy" into the grand assize of history whenever Whig King William is arraigned at the bar of judgment. Motley takes no pains to conceal the glow of fine enthusiasm with which he is inspired by the contemplation of William the Silent. Mr. Adams is determined to keep his mind clear from all such illusions of hero worship, simply because he cannot absolutely make up his mind concerning Jefferson's real character, so mixed and various are the elements which compose it. Conceding that the sage of Monticello, according to all the received standards of greatness, must be pronounced "a great man"; that on his accession to the Presidency he claimed the place of an equal between Pitt and Bonaparte in the sphere of European politics, and in the sphere of home politics made himself such an idol of the people that for eight long years he appeared to be "the Government itself"; that he ruled in Washington with the power of a King while practising, as all typical Virginians did, "the austerity of Cato and the simplicity of Ancus Marcius"; that he was the representative of an "ideal purity" in American politics—conceding all this, Mr. Adams never allows the reader to lose from his view the "seamy side" in Jefferson's mental and moral temperament—at least as that seamy side appeared to hostile critics as candid as John Marshall, and to venomous enemies as rancorous as James Thompson Callender.

An "aristocrat" by birth, and, for the times in which he lived, "excessively refined" in his tastes, yet theoretically the most thorough-paced of democrats; delighting in the intellectual life of science and art, yet "superficial in his knowledge and a martyr to the disease of omniscience"; with a subtile feeling for artistic and literary form betraying itself in his writings ("the sure mark of intellectual sensuousness," whispers Mr. Adams), yet "seldom writing a page without exposing himself to attack"; a man of affairs who ventured boldly on the stormy ocean of politics, and yet so "feminine" in his mental constitution that he "yearned for love and praise," and such a theorist that he was prepared to "risk the fate of mankind on the chances of a reasoning process which was far from certain in its details"; with instincts which led him to "widen the bounds of every intellectual exercise," yet narrowing the theoretical scope of the Federal Government in which he was the chief actor; unswervingly "true to the faith of his life," yet ("if his enemies are to be believed") indulging occasionally in "misstatements of fact," in "exaggerations or equivocations" of speech, and in the "kindly prevarications" of political complaisance; exhibiting a rare "consistency in his career," yet making that consistency the more remarkable because of the "inconsistencies of the moment" with which his career was attended; with a "gentle optimism" in his theory of political conduct, yet liable to "outbursts of temper" in both his official and his private discourse; "pure in both his private and public life," yet called again and again to defend himself against "large numbers of his worthiest fellow-citizens, who . . . despised him as they did the vermin they trod upon"—Thomas Jefferson seems to Mr. Adams a bundle of "contradictions." Yet it is these very "contradictions," he says, which have always made the character of Jefferson "a fascinating study," because "in any other man such contradictions would have argued dishonesty." "Almost every other American statesman," adds the writer, "might be described in a parenthesis. A few broad strokes of the brush would paint the portraits of all the early Presidents, with this exception, and a few more strokes would answer for any member of their many Cabinets; but Jefferson could be painted only touch by touch with a fine pencil, and the perfection of the likeness depends upon the shifting and uncertain flicker of its semi-transparent shadows." Yet this man, whom Mr. Adams finds it so hard to understand, was able in some way to impress his personality on the great mass of the American common people with a power and universality which proved him level to the popular sense. It was under the Administration of Jefferson that the American people became democratic in their habits, beliefs, and ideas. Mr. Adams admits that it was largely through the influence of this enigmatical man that a radical change was made in the national mind and temper. "As a democrat," he says, "Jefferson's social success was sweeping and final."

It seems to us that much useful light may be shed on this mystery if we grope for it in the living elements of party formation at that period, instead of hunting for "contradictions" in Jefferson's character. Talleyrand thought it a supreme proof of Alexander Hamilton's perspicacity in politics that, even from his remote point of view, he had been able to "divine Europe"—that is, to form an intuitive presage of the political forces required for the repression of European democracy, after the example set and the lesson taught by the French Revolution. In like manner it may be said of Jefferson that, more than other statesmen of his time, he "divined America"—that is, formed an intuitive presage of those evolutionary forces in the American mind which soon left the position of the old Federalists completely out of sight, like "a half-way house between the European past and the American future," to use the striking phrase of Mr. Adams. Mr. Adams chronicles the fact that Jefferson—"this most active-minded and sanguine of Virginians"—was the inventor of the first scientific plough in the United States, and we know that he loved to disport with scientific discussions, as if he had already some dim forecast of the truth, so impressively expounded by Mr. Adams, that the future of the United States was bound up with the achievements of science and invention. Certain it is that he had a clear forecast of the democratic tendencies which were destined to unfold themselves among us in larger and larger measures of trust in the capacity of the people for self-government.

Mr. Adams explains to us that as modern science developed more and more the capacity of man to control the forces of nature, the old-fashioned conservatism of the Federalist epoch vanished from American society, and if it still reappeared occasionally in a few venerable men who wore black coats, silk stockings, silver buckles, and powdered hair, it was, he says, only as the "stripes which sometimes reappear in the mule," to show the antiquity of its animal type. "Every foreigner and Federalist," says Mr. Adams, "agreed that Jefferson was a man of illusions, dangerous to society, and unbounded in power of evil," but, as he suggestively adds, "if this view of his character was right, it only proved that there was a vein of idealism in the national character of the American people; for it is very certain that Jefferson's opinions, in one form or another, were shared by a majority of the American people." Recognized in his day as the chosen representative of what Mr. Adams calls "the elusive spirit of American democracy," and incurring on this ground much severe opprobrium from the clergy of New England, he was so full of

this spirit, and so greatly dreaded his own reputation as a "visionary," that he seldom or never, says the author, "uttered his whole thought." He had, more than anybody, the democratic spirit of everybody who cherished high hopes and large aspirations for the elevation of humanity. While the Federalists were hard to shock by excesses of Government, but were easily shocked by excesses of the people, Jefferson was hard to shock by excesses of the people, but was easily shocked by excesses of Government. His faith in the people was simple. It is true there was much shrewd political worldliness in all this simplicity of doctrine, and it is true, as Mr. Adams says, that all of Jefferson's hopes for the political future of man were based on the processes of a natural evolution; but this only shows that his intuitive presage of the coming age was even more "scientific" than he knew.

Mr. Adams cites again and again the saying of Hamilton, in a moment of political petulance, "Your *people*, sir—your *people* is a great beast!" What Hamilton said in his haste, men like Fisher Ames, and George Cabot, and John Adams were saying at their leisure. "Democracy cannot last," cried Ames. "I hold democracy in its natural operation to be the government of the worst," cried Cabot. "I doubt whether the love of liberty in the soul of man is much more rational, generous, or social, than it is in the soul of a wolf," exclaimed John Adams, "except in so far as it is enlightened in man by the experience, reflection, education, and civil and social institutions which are at first produced, and constantly supported and improved, by a few—that is, *by the nobility.*" Such atrabilious expressions as these prove nothing against the patriotism of the Federalist leaders, except that their patriotism had soured on their stomachs. The leaders of the Federalist party seemed to themselves like so many Catos *in Romuli fœce*, to use the phrase of Cicero in one of his letters, or, as Gouverneur Morris expressed it with his characteristic humor, the Federalist of the later period "was in the awkward position of a man who continues sober after all the company are under the table." The Federalist leaders who blurted out harsh commonplaces against "democracy" were only showing how sober they kept in the revelry of the democratic debauch.

But such expressions as these, accompanied as they often were with the theoretical defence of "monarchy," seemed to Jefferson quite sufficient to justify his statement that "the political revolution of 1800 was as real a revolution in the principles of our Government as that of 1776 was in its forms." Mr. Adams seeks to minimize this pretension, and argues acutely, in the light of Jefferson's administrative measures, that it is "hard to see how any President could have been more Federalist than Jefferson himself"; that he reached out his hand to grasp the Executive powers he had once denounced; that by the Louisiana treaty he gave a fatal wound to "strict construction," and converted the Constitution into a piece of "blank paper"; that by subsequent proceedings under that act he identified himself with "the despotic acts of consolidated European governments"; and, finally, that "he who nearly dissolved the bonds of society rather than allow his predecessor to order a dangerous alien out of the country in a time of threatened war, made himself monarch of the new [Louisiana] territory, and wielded over it, against its protests, the powers of its old kings." But even after Mr. Adams has sped all these sharp arrows at his quarry, he will still find it difficult to argue against the truth of his own saying, that, "as a democrat, Jefferson's social success was sweeping and final." Whatever may have been the direct or the indirect effect of any of Jefferson's administrative measures in *federalizing* the Government, we believe it will be impossible to point to any measure which was originated by him *for the purpose* of giving "energy" to the Government against the States or the people. A policy like that, for instance, of the Federalist Oliver Wolcott, when, as Auditor of the Treasury under Alexander Hamilton, he argued in favor of taxing the people simply to make the people feel the power of the Government, even if the money raised by such taxation had to be buried, is inconceivable under the Administration of Jefferson; and a simple fact like this measures the wide interval there was between the old Federalist régime, even before it had run to seed, and the nascent Republicanism which opened its new era in our annals. Whatever else may be said in just praise or dispraise of the latter, the American people were certainly *republicanized* under Jefferson. It has been common to complain that he did his work under this head only too well.

Mr. Adams, however, complains that the energy of Jefferson's reforming zeal was soon exhausted, and that in the ever-increasing momentum impressed on the machine of government by the drift and pressure of events, the point of his departure was soon lost from sight. And one event there was which, above all others, operated, the writer thinks, a change in the character of the Government by killing the doctrine of "strict construction" in the house of its friends, and by changing the old-established balances of the Constitution. We refer to the purchase of Louisiana.

The history of the Louisiana purchase is told in these volumes for the first time with a fulness of detail which supplies missing links in that great transaction. Mr. Adams takes us behind the scenes in his explorations. The figures who here act the foremost part—Napoleon and Talleyrand, Jefferson and Madison, Chancellor Livingston and Monroe, Don Carlos IV. of Spain and Toussaint L'Ouverture of St. Domingo, Queen Doña Maria Luisa and Godoy, Pichon and Bernadotte, Leclerc and Rochambeau, Edward Stevens and Tobias Lear, Morales and Laussat—are put on the stage with all the vividness of personal character and with all the involutions which belong to this dramatic episode in our annals; and not in our annals alone, but also in those of Europe as well.

The rumor that Spain had retroceded Louisiana to France was bruited in Europe in the early part of the year 1801. The motives which inclined Napoleon to extort this transfer are to be found in certain colonizing schemes which, as devised by Talleyrand, had become "a darling object" in the mind of the First Consul. It was supposed that he saw in Louisiana "a new Egypt," a vast colonial dependency which would serve as a counterpoise to British India, a theatre for fresh military adventures, a new world for the modern Alexander to conquer, a place of exile for intractable revolutionists, and a Botany Bay for state criminals. With the prestige of Spain behind him in the New World, and with the mines of Mexico at his command, Louisiana offered him a coigne of vantage for the expansion of French power up the valley of the Mississippi, where, by cultivating alliances with warlike Indian tribes, he might hold the balance of power between the "Anglican" and the "Gallican" politics of the United States, and might even threaten the British possessions in Canada. The disastrous essay of Maximilian under Napoleon III. finds its prelude in this great project of Napoleon I. It was easy enough for Great Britain, as well as the United States, to see the embroilments to which the French occupation of Louisiana would inevitably lead. It virtually nullified the results of the Seven Years' War as ended by the Treaty of 1763. The Western States trembled for the safety of their commerce if a strong Power like France were entrenched at New Orleans. The Southern States trembled for the safety of their slave property, already put in danger by French propagandism in the West Indies. New England was disturbed because, with her Federalist proclivities, she hated the vision of "infidel France" at our doors.

Readers familiar with the state papers of that time are aware that St. Domingo was the pivot of the whole Napoleonic movement for the occupation of Louisiana. "St. Domingo was the only centre," says Mr. Adams, "from which the measures needed for rebuilding the French colonial system could radiate." Hence it came to pass that Toussaint L'Ouverture had to be crushed before Bonaparte could reach Louisiana. Mr. Adams tells the tragic story of Toussaint with a pathos inspired by the fact that, for a time, "he exercised on our history an influence as decisive as that of any European ruler." The reader is here indebted to the learned historian for much new research—a statement which we make with only the more cordiality because there are a few points, in the subsequent stages of the narrative, where we find it difficult to accept Mr. Adams's point of view. For instance, he tells us that the instructions of Madison to Livingston on the subject of the rumored retrocession of Louisiana to France "are remarkable for their mildness." We are aware that Madison has generally been commended for the "mild wisdom" which Horace praises in the Roman statesman Lælius, but we should not look to Madison's despatch on this topic for a typical specimen of that characteristic quality. On September 28, 1801, in a despatch which seems tame to Mr. Adams, Madison writes to Livingston that, in view of the rumored transfer, such a change of neighbors in Louisiana was a matter of "momentous concern," which had engaged "the most serious attention of the Executive"; that if the transfer had really been made, it was liable to lead to "collisions" which would jeopard the "harmony and confidence" then existing between the United States and France; that in case of war between France and England the Western States would come in danger of being "embroiled by military expeditions between Louisiana and Canada," while "inquietudes would be excited in the Southern States, whose numerous slaves had been taught to regard the French as the patrons of their cause"; and, finally, that a French neighborhood in Louisiana, by the "jealousies and apprehensions" it tended to inspire, might turn the thoughts of the American people towards "a closer connection" with England, and produce a "crisis" in which a very valuable part of the French dominions would be "exposed to the joint occupation of a naval and territorial Power"—that is, of England and the United States combined against France. It seems to us that a despatch of this kind is not wanting in either pith or purpose, even if it does end with a recommendation that nothing should be said or done "unnecessarily to irritate our future neighbors," and that if France could be induced to concede the free navigation of the Mississippi, and to cede the Floridas to the United States, it might "contribute to reconcile the United States to an arrangement in itself much disrelished by them." We find in

this despatch the germ of every argument used by the United States in the subsequent stages of the negotiation, even to the extreme menace of a British alliance.

The treaty of cession was signed on the 30th of April, 1803, and covered the whole of Louisiana as Spain had possessed it. Mr. Adams thinks it difficult to penetrate the motives of Napoleon in making the great surrender of what had been "a darling object." It is, indeed, difficult to pronounce on the secret motives of an arbitrary ruler. Livingston tells us that there never was a government with which less could be done by negotiation than with France at this epoch, because "one man was everything." He adds that the "sense of every reflecting man in Paris was against the First Consul's colonizing schemes, though nobody had the courage to tell him so." But it was for this very reason that Livingston believed the drift of events, in case of war between England and France, would prove too strong for Bonaparte. Months before the cession was made, he wrote to Madison that, but for the uneasiness the matter excited at home, it would give him none, because he was persuaded that the whole business would end in the relinquishment of the country to the United States. When the outbreak of war between France and England was imminent, Lord Whitworth, the British Ambassador at Paris, wrote that the United States were likely to reap "the first fruits" of England's disagreement with Napoleon. Mr. Addington had told Rufus King that one of the first steps of the British Government, on the outbreak of war with France, would be to seize Louisiana —a well-known eventuality, which kindled the eagerness of the United States to buy and of France to sell. It would seem, therefore, as if the overpowering pressure of political events had dominated the whole situation, and that we are dispensed from the necessity of groping for an explanation in the secret recesses of Bonaparte's mind. This fact explains, too, why Bonaparte felt compelled to sell the whole of Louisiana, instead of ceding only New Orleans and the Floridas, for which Livingston had been chaffering.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

THERE is a novelty in a story of our civil war told from a Confederate standpoint which of itself lends a peculiar interest to Mr. G. A. Henty's 'With Lee in Virginia' (Scribner & Welford). The author has succeeded fairly well, not merely in making an entertaining tale full of exciting incident, but also in giving some local color to it. As his hero only takes part in the battles in which the Confederates were victors, as Bull Run, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, we fear that his English readers will be at some loss to know why the Confederacy did not succeed in the end. His account of slavery, also, is far too favorable, ignoring, for example, the fact of the breeding of slaves for sale, the greatest dishonor which slavery brought upon Virginia in those days. Mistakes are comparatively few, the most important being the statements that the Constitution was formed in 1778, that Kansas seceded and joined the South, and that the *Monitor* had two turrets. Northern boys, moreover, would dispute the assertion that the *Monitor* withdrew first from the contest with the *Merrimac*, and they would indignantly deny the truth of the allegation that by Sherman's troops "the town of Columbia was occupied, sacked, and burned, the white men and women and even the negroes being horribly ill treated."

Mr. Willis J. Abbot's 'Battle-Fields of '61' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is the first volume of a history of the army operations during the civil war. The title is somewhat misleading, as all the important events of the first half of 1862 are narrated, the book ending with the close of McClellan's Peninsular campaign. It is well written and entirely free from any partisan spirit. The author is at his best in his descriptions of the battles, just enough detail being given to make them thoroughly interesting, and occasionally exciting, but not so much as to confuse the reader. We have noticed several slight errors; for instance, the troops on the *Star of the West* are given as 2,000 instead of 250, and the Confederate force on Roanoke Island was 2,500, not 25,000. It was Gen. Parke (not Parker) who commanded one of the brigades on this expedition, while Gen. T. L. Crittenden played such a valiant part at the battle of Shiloh that it is a pity he is disguised under the name Cullenden. The book is handsomely got up, with some twenty-eight full-page illustrations and a few maps, but we regret the lack of an index.

Few callings excel that of our deep-sea fishermen in its varied dangers and hardships. These are most graphically described in Mr. Kirk Munroe's 'Dorymates' (Harper & Bros.). "Breeze" McCloud, a very winning lad, courageous and unselfish, is picked up at sea by a Gloucester fishing schooner when an infant, and adopted by the captain. As soon as he is old enough, he ships for a cruise for early mackerel off Cape Hatteras. During the next few months one adventure follows another in rapid succession, bringing in almost all the misfortunes which could befall a fisherman. Several times he goes adrift in a dory, is lost in the fog, caught by the ice, imprisoned in an iceberg, seized by an octopus, as well as kidnapped and shipwrecked.

For one thing we can heartily commend Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's new story, 'The Adventures of David Vane and David Crane' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), namely, its warm advocacy of the pleasures and advantages of a country life. At this day, when the set of the current is all towards the town, it is refreshing to read of a city boy who prefers work on a farm to being a clerk in a store. The story is interesting and, at times, amusing, the two Davids being mistaken for each other with a resulting "comedy of errors." The little country girl Huldah is an original and very attractive character, as is also David Vane, who, we are glad to say, makes a great success as a farmer.

'Lotus Bay: A Summer on Cape Cod,' by Laura D. Nichols (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), is a pleasant book for young people, which reminds us of those culinary combinations of custard, jelly, cake, and almonds, ingredients which seem to have no necessary relation to one another, yet which in mingling do not suggest incongruity. There is no climax or plot, no story properly speaking, but an agreeable mixture of bits of life by the seashore, useful information, moral teaching by example rather than precept, and occasional quaint or pretty poetical quotations. The author's style is good, the book shows unvarying good taste, and is embellished by attractive if not always new illustrations.

'The Achievements of Youth' (T. Nelson & Sons), by Rev. Robert Steel, D.D., is one of those well-meaning books which, as a Christmas present, do *not* waken any very profound feelings of gratitude in the ordinary boy. The author's design is excellent, and if he had taken more pains in carrying it out, he would have made a useful and stimulating work. He has chosen, however, simply to throw together a large mass of biographical notes with very little attempt at any order or arrangement beyond that of the professions, prefacing and closing the chapters with a few conventional comments or quotations. It is difficult to see why some of these notes have found their way into his pages, as this, for instance: "Turenne (1611–1675) studied the art of war under Prince Maurice, who was his uncle, and rose rapidly to high command, and got a marshal's baton in the camp for the achievements of his youth." His omissions are quite as remarkable. He says nothing, for example, of that precocious genius Baratière, who at the age of five could speak French, Latin, and Dutch with ease and read Greek fluently, and, when about eleven, translated from the Hebrew Tudela's 'Itinerarium.' On the other hand, we have read with much interest his account of Mr. Whitelaw Reid, who appears in the chapter headed "Young Prose Writers." Among other things Dr. Steel says: "At twenty-three he was acknowledged to be the ablest advocate of the claims of Lincoln to the Presidency." Mr. Greeley's life-work is briefly summed up as stamping "the character of the *Tribune;* but Mr. Reid, who succeeded him at the age of thirty, improved the paper beyond the dream of its founder." As we should here read thirty-five for thirty, we find the statement too rhetorical that "the organization of the complete corps in and out of the office was the work of Mr. Reid while yet the dew of youth lay on his brow."

Girls will greatly enjoy 'Queen Hildegarde,' a story addressed to them by Laura E. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). It is sweet and wholesome, with a distinct purpose, yet without the appearance of "preaching." Hildegardis Graham, the petted only daughter of wealthy parents, finds to her dismay that they are for the first time to leave her behind when they take a journey. Her sensible mamma, fearing that Hilda is getting frivolous and shallow in her artificial city life, decides to leave her in the country for three months with her own old nurse, now the wife of a well-to-do farmer. The girl, called the queen of her fastidious set at home, goes to the farm, and finds all her high breeding severely strained not to express openly her disdain at her homely surroundings. Preparing herself to be thoroughly wretched, she overhears a conversation between the farmer and his wife, in which Dame Lucy tries to explain the dear mother's plan; and the girl's wish to be some time what her mother wishes, grows into a resolve. The change comes almost too suddenly to be artistic, but it is very welcome, and the book goes on with interesting accounts of her life and occupations at the farm. An agreeable humor pervades the book without in the least jarring upon the sense of fitness. The finding of the buried jewels is perhaps a trifle improbable.

'Swanhilde, and Other Fairy Tales,' adapted from the German by Carrie N. Horwitz (D. Lothrop Co.), is somewhat in the vein of the 'Arabian Nights,' minus the objectionable features. They are all full of interest, and the English is particularly good: it has not the appearance of being a stiff and foreign imitation of our mother tongue which more literal translations from the German are too apt to have. The little illustrations, marginal and otherwise, scattered throughout, are very expressive and often exceedingly humorous.

It would be hard to say whether 'Lil' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) is more ill adapted to children or to grown people. The opening chapters are by far the best, and these, if any, are what the children will care for. But too

soon comes the "Five Years After" chapter, when everybody is grown up and the complications begin. If this book appeared in a paper cover at twenty cents, it would be quite what was to be expected. It is merely a mild repetition of dozens of English stories, in which the supposably rightful heir is shown to be not such, since an unknown daughter of an elder son duly appears from India, that convenient habitation for mysteries. After falling properly in love with her and refusing to acknowledge it through fear of being called a fortune-hunter, the hero discovers at last that she is after all not the heiress, because she was substituted in infancy for the real cousin, who died. Thereupon he joyfully marries her, resolving never to let her know the facts. The language, if bright, is loose and careless to a degree.

Amy Walton's 'White Lilac' (Scribner & Welford) is a rather unusually pretty story of humble English life. There is a touch of real pathos where the poor, gentle little girl's mother dies suddenly in her chair, just as the child is being crowned May Queen, and is expecting to see her mother's face every moment at the merry-making as the particular delight of that exciting day. Her quiet, helpful life afterwards with her relatives at Orchards Farm shows a Cinderella-like unselfishness. Many of the characters are good, Mrs. Wishing especially, with her helpless, hopeless "but *I* dunno," as a final modification of her limp remarks. As a whole, the story is entertaining and helpful.

English children may be contented with so tame a story as Mrs. Molesworth's 'The Rectory Children' (Macmillan). It is certainly inoffensive and unexceptionably moral, but is utterly lacking in sparkling attractiveness. It opens prettily and somewhat tenderly with a lonely little girl waiting in a small back parlor behind the shop for her mother to be through the business and come in to see her and her two little new dolls; but it is prosy throughout.

Miss Jewett's 'Betty Leicester' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) contains no more incident than the foregoing volume—indeed, it is without even so exciting an adventure as the narrow escape from drowning which, while forming the only relief from the otherwise dead level of Mrs. Molesworth's story, accents Biddy's wilfulness in the most approved fashion; yet it possesses the vital touch without which no incident can impress itself; with which the simplest details are imbued with a real life of their own. The descriptions of country life and scenes are exquisite. There are good suggestions to those whose lives have become so fixed in a narrow and unchanging routine that even the simplest form of entertaining seems momentous and overpowering. "Wherever you may put two persons, one is always hostess and the other always guest," says Betty's cosmopolitan friend Mrs. Duncan. Everything is invested with a simple and healthful but constant interest, from the beginning, where Betty starts alone, with some misgiving, for Tideshead, to the very last page, when she and her father are leaving the quaint little village with real regret, albeit to take up their wider life once more.

Winters in Algeria. Written and illustrated by Frederick Arthur Bridgman. Harper & Bros. 1890. Pp. viii-262. Sq. 8vo.

'AN Artist's Impressions of Algeria' would better describe this attractive book than the title which Mr. Bridgman has chosen for it. Everything in it has some connection with his art, generally growing out of his excursions in search of subjects for pictures, or of his more extended sketching-tours. These latter are narrated much after the fashion of an ordinary book of travels, but all that part relating to the city of Algiers consists of a series of detached descriptions, principally of street scenes and the life of the humbler classes of the natives. These are very well done, and, with the aid of the numerous excellent illustrations, enable the reader to form a clear idea of certain phases of Algerian life and character. We regret, however, that the author, the first of whose winter visits to the province was paid in 1872, and who is evidently a close and interested observer, has not attempted, at least, to show what influence French rule has had, during the time which he has known the country, upon its resources, the habits of the people, their modes of thought, and the way in which they regard foreigners. It is somewhat remarkable that, considering his numerous opportunities, he has thrown so little light upon these interesting points.

The majority of the people, it is evident, still object strongly to being painted, and have an especial hatred, mixed with fear, of the photographer, though they are not displeased if their neighbors' faces appear upon the canvas, or even they themselves, provided it is done without their knowledge. The curious way in which a Moslem will satisfy his conscience in matters of religion is well illustrated by an Arab artist's method of evading the command of the Koran not to make an image of anything that has life. One of the mosques in Algiers has a "lovely little minaret covered with ancient tiles, many of which represent birds flying." The birds are full of life, but the artist has traced a line around the neck of each. "Their throats are cut, therefore they must be dead! Thus his conscience is saved." Mr. Bridgman established very friendly relations with many of the Algerians, and was admitted freely to their houses. But these were apparently all of the poorer class, and we are left in ignorance as to whether the houses of the rich were equally open to the visits of Christians. The poor, however, were not necessarily of a low rank in life. "Descendants of the best blood, in fact, are often found among merchants in a small way, who sell a few yards of calico, eggs and butter, orange-flower water, and, for one sou apiece, strings of orange-blossoms, with an occasional red geranium attached."

The author's sketching tours, made at different visits, carried him as far as Tunis in the east and Tlemçen (not far from the frontier of Morocco) in the west. But the most interesting of these tours was to Biskra, in an oasis on the confines of the Sahara. The starting point was the wonderfully picturesque town of Constantine, perched on the summit of a rock which rises perpendicularly nearly a thousand feet above the level of the plain. Its curious houses and streets, which made the place attractive to the artist, are fast disappearing before "the encroaching French buildings, which threaten soon to replace the picturesque element and wipe it out for ever by new broad boulevards and squares, gravel-walks, trees, and hideous barracks." Biskra is a twenty-four hours' ride by diligence from Constantine, and to one who imagines Algeria to be a land of perpetual summer, it will be a somewhat disagreeable surprise to read of snow and ice by the roadside, and of the traveller's joy at finding a blazing fire at an inn where a stop was made for coffee. For hours the road lay amid "black bushes, among gray rocks, pine-trees and cedars," a veritable Norway landscape and swept by an icy wind. Then, within a short distance of Biskra, there was "a sudden turn at the bottom of the hill," and Mr. Bridgman was "in a paradise of warmth and beauty," surrounded by groves of almond, orange, and lime trees, and a perfect forest of date-palms. The principal point of attraction in this place was the great café, whose "ceiling and walls were entirely hidden by immense hand-woven blankets ornamented with every conceivable combination of stripe, lozenge, and square, and by other draperies used by the women as part of their costume. The palm-trunk pillars, surrounded by a circular bench and supporting the roof, were wound round and festooned with printed calicoes; and colored-paper lanterns gave a charming soft light over the assembly."

Excursions were made from this point into the desert, during one of which the author was overtaken by a sand-storm, which he describes in a very vivid manner. He is at his best, however, in his descriptions of interiors, and we will close our notice of his very entertaining volume with this account of a house in a desert village:

"They sat in a circle, young and old, grandfather, grandmother, father, wife, and several children, all dipping into the wooden dish which stood on its own pedestal in their midst. Kids and young dogs were also poking their noses under the children's arms, looking with longing eyes of expectancy. Their horse, a fine gray Arab, was eating his grass near them, his feet fettered to the ground, close by the black hole, just big enough to accommodate him, which was on one side of the humble dwelling, and in which he could be kept by a rope across the entrance. Streaks of sunlight, making solid beams of the blue smoke, fell on a multitude of utensils of all sorts. There was a handmill made of two flat and round granite stones, the top stone turning on a pivot by a handle on one side, and placed on a sheepskin, which caught the yellow flour."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, M. The Continuous Creation: An Application of the Evolutionary Philosophy to the Christian Religion. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
An Appeal to Pharaoh: The Negro Problem and its Radical Solution. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Babyhood. Vol. V. Babyhood Publishing Co.
Balmaseda, F. J. Enfermedades de las Aves: Ensayos sobre Patornitologia, y Consideraciones sobre Higiene Pública en la Isla de Cuba. Havana: E. F. Casona.
Bancroft, H. H. History of Utah. San Francisco: The History Publishing Co.; New York: J. C. Derby.
Bentzon, Th. Expiation. Willard Fracker Co.
Besant, W. The Bell of St. Paul's. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Bibliothèque de l'Ecole des Hautes Etudes. Sciences Religieuses. 1er Vol. Etudes de Critique et d'Histoire. Paris: E. Leroux.
Blackmore, R. D. Kit and Kitty. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Chapin, F. H. Mountaineering in Colorado. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
Clark, A. Register of the University of Oxford. Part IV. Indexes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Cooley, W. F. Emmanuel: The Story of the Messiah. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Coombs, Anne S. The Garden of Armida. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Daudet, A. Jack. Geo. Routledge & Sons.
Dobson, Austin. Poems. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.
Donisthorpe, W. Individualism: A System of Politics. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Eschstruth, Baroness von. Polish Blood. John B. Alden. $1.
Fausset, Rev. W. Y. The Student's Cicero. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Fawcett, Mrs. H. Some Eminent Women of Our Times. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Folk-Lore and Legends. 4 vols. Oriental, Germany, Scotland, Ireland. White & Allen.
Frothingham, W., and Tower, C. Our Book. G. W. Dillingham.
Gates, W. F. Musical Mosaics. Philadelphia: Theo. Presser. $1.50.
Good Form: Cards—Their Significance and Proper Uses. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. 75 cents.
Hallward, R. F. Flowers of Paradise. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Hannover, E. Antoine Watteau. Berlin: Robert Oppenheimer.
Harben, W. N. White Marie. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Hawaiian Reports. Vol. VI. Honolulu.
Heimburg, W. Magdalen's Fortunes. Worthington Co.
Kimball, Harriet McE. Poems. Completed ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Kingsford, Mrs. Anna B. Dreams and Dream Stories. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Kingsley, C. Hypatia. Macmillan & Co.
Larcom, Lucy. A New England Girlhood, Outlined from Memory. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Lawton, W. C. Three Dramas of Euripides. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Leonowens, Mrs. A. H. Our Asiatic Cousins. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Le Plongeon, Alice D. Here and There in Yucatan. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.

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MR. ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON will continue to contribute to the Magazine during 1890. The names of other important contributors will appear in more specific announcements; and several important projects, of which the beginning at least will fall within the next twelve months, are purposely reserved for description when the arrangements in progress for them shall be further advanced.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 19, 1889.

The Week.

MR. CLEVELAND'S speech at Boston on Thursday was remarkable mainly for the uncompromising support which he gave to ballot reform and civil-service reform, or, in other words, to the two things for which the bad element in his party has the liveliest hatred. No one has ever stigmatized the enemies of ballot reform in stronger language. The followers of Hill can clearly expect no "concessions" in that quarter on this subject. Nothing could be better calculated than such utterances to strengthen Mr. Cleveland's hold on the new generation of voters and on men of all parties, who believe the time has at last come to provide proper bottles for the new wine. His popularity has been steadily growing ever since he left the Presidency, owing not less to the dignity and simplicity of his life in a situation of considerable difficulty and delicacy, than to the manly force and soundness of everything he says on public questions. Two little incidents of recent occurrence illustrate remarkably the growth of his popularity among classes which have long been alienated from his party, and which viewed his election in 1884 with more or less alarm. At the Chamber of Commerce dinner last month, in a gathering made up mainly of Republicans and protectionists, no one met with such enthusiastic applause as he did. More recently, at the breakfast given to Comte de Kératry by the American Copyright League, an audience of 250 literary men, or men engaged in intellectual pursuits, Mr. Cleveland's name was greeted with such prolonged and vigorous cheering that it seemed almost to put a slight by contrast on the guest and on the orators of the day. It was a tribute, in fact, such as perhaps no other American could count on from such an audience. We might go on to say that some of this growth of popular attachment Mr. Cleveland undoubtedly owes to the industry and political economy of his successor.

Gov. Hill's Albany organ, the *Argus*, makes an amusing attempt to assume that Mr. Cleveland's approval of ballot reform is not a rebuke to the Governor, but is in fact a concurrence with the latter's view. Says the *Argus:*

"Mr. Cleveland is as earnest an advocate of this great reform as is Gov. Hill. It is to be hoped that the next Legislature will not exhibit the same hostility to the reform as its predecessor. Mr. Cleveland's thoughtful, patriotic remarks should be read by every citizen who has the interests of good government at heart."

Mr. Cleveland's words have been read by thousands of such citizens, and we beg to assure the *Argus* that not one of them has failed to see that they constitute one of the most crushing rebukes to Gov. Hill which that shifty politician has ever received. It leaves him, in fact, almost entirely alone in the Democratic party in his fight against ballot reform, his only sympathizers being Tammany Hall and the forlorn ex-Butler organ in this city.

The brief speech which Mr. Cleveland made to an assemblage of Democrats at the Bay State Club in Boston, on the day following the merchants' banquet, was in its way as significant as the more formal one of the previous evening. As he was speaking to Democrats only, his words have additional weight as showing the position which he holds in his party, and the view which that party will have to adopt in following his leadership. He said:

"I want to say one word to you as Democrats about the questions of reform which are now agitating the public mind, and I don't propose to make a speech. I beg of you as Democrats not to be accused of lagging in the rear on any of those topics. The tariff reform, of course, is ours, and we don't propose to be robbed of it under any pretence whatever. All things good come to those who wait, and we are willing to wait. Let me tell you, gentlemen, that other reforms are as important, and let me tell you they should be kept abreast, and let me beg of you, so far as in you lies (although I don't believe the admonition is necessary), to see to it that the Democratic party will not be behind in any of them. We are the party of the people, and they cannot get that away from us. Let us, then, keep in mind the benefits of the people, their advantages, and their interests, and wherever we see them let us follow those, and we shall surely be right."

If the friends of Gov. Hill had any doubts about what Mr. Cleveland's preceding speech meant, so far as it applied to ballot reform, they could have none after reading this admonition to the Democratic party not to be "lagging in the rear" on any of the great reforms of the day. The party would be in the front on ballot reform, and New York would have been the first State to put such a law in practice, but for Gov. Hill.

Capt. Boutelle of the Bangor *Whig* has made a discovery about the Australian ballot system which outweighs as an objection anything that Gov. Hill has been able to invent. He says, in his own forcible and eloquent style:

"The attempt to build up some new, intricate, complicated, and but partially tested system, *invented for use among the exiled convicts of a penal colony of Great Britain*, as the absolute perfection of human wisdom, and to denounce every one who is not ready to abolish the simple, old-fashioned New England town-meeting methods, upon which our republican form of Government has stood unshaken for one hundred years of marvellous national development and prosperity, seems to us hardly less than absurd."

It is small wonder that, after bringing this charge against the system, the bold Captain should announce that "we shall decline to continue what seems a profitless discussion." It would obviously be "profitless" for a publicist of his calibre to learn that the Australian system was invented in 1858, and that the shipment of convicts to Australia ceased in 1839; that it was first put in use in South Australia, which never was a penal colony; that it was gradually extended to other divisions of Australia during the following twenty years, and that the number of convicts who have ever voted under its provisions in the whole of Australia in all probability does not equal the number who voted in Boutelle's ward in Bangor at the last election there.

It is obviously the Captain's belief that Australia is a small country, whose population consists mainly of exiled convicts and their descendants. If he will turn to an encyclopædia, he will learn that this is a mistake. He will discover that, while an island, Australia is in fact a continent, having an area nearly twenty-five times that of Great Britain and Ireland; that it is divided into five colonies, the smallest of which has an area of about 88,000 square miles, or nearly double that of the State of New York, and that the area of the other four ranges from 309,000 to 975,000 square miles each; that the total population in 1885 was nearly 3,000,000; that its revenues in that year were nearly $100,000,000, its imports $270,000,000, and its exports $217,000,000; that it had over 6,000 miles of railways and 31,000 miles of telegraph; that it had under cultivation over 6,000,000 acres of ground; that it raised 30,000,000 bushels of wheat, 5,000,000 bushels of oats, and 9,000,000 bushels of barley, maize, and other cereals; that it has six large cities—Melbourne, with nearly 300,000 population, Sydney, with 225,000, Adelaide with 70,000, and Victoria, Sandhurst, and Brisbane each with about 40,000; that there are universities in the three first-named cities, and well-equipped astronomical observatories; that all the colonies have a combined system of free and endowed schools, with a form of compulsory education which carries and enforces elementary instruction among all classes. This and much other valuable rudimentary instruction the Captain will find by consulting any competent authority.

The *American Wool Reporter*, at the request of leading merchants of Boston, has taken a census of the wool-manufacturers on the subject of free wool and ad-valorem duties, by sending to all manufacturers in the country two petitions, requesting them to sign the one which expresses their views and return it, so that it may be presented to Congress after the holiday recess. The result is somewhat surprising, 524 having signed the free-wool petition, and 196 the ad-valorem petition. "The astonishing features," says the *Wool Reporter*, "of this great list of names in favor of reduced duties on wool, lie not only in the number, but in the character of the signers. It has been many times asserted that the only manufacturers in favor of free wool were a few officers of large corporations, the number of whom did not exceed ten. Our list of signatures shows that the rank and file of smaller manufacturers are as willing to express their opinions in regard to wool duties as are the great leaders of the trade."

Subsidies for sorghum have been almost as popular in some parts of the country as subsidies for ships. New Jersey gave them a pretty thorough trial, but abandoned the effort a year or two ago. Kansas has been paying a subsidy of one cent per pound for sugar produced from sorghum, and the local communities have been "bonding" themselves in aid of individuals and corporations who have offered to erect sugar-factories there. The eagerness to vote their own and other people's money away in this fashion has even surmounted the barriers raised by the Supreme Court against such practices, for whereas the Court decided, a long time ago, that such bonds were absolutely void, and that no tax could be levied to pay either principal or interest thereon, the device was hit upon of issuing scrip instead of bonds and then refunding the scrip into bonds—all for sorghum. As this was an underhand scheme to circumvent the law, it was natural that rogues should come forward to rake in the proceeds. It was only necessary to show a process for making a superior article of sugar out of sorghum at a low cost in order to promote the issuing of scrip, which would naturally be turned over to the sugar-makers and sold by them for what it would bring. The various methods of treating sorghum were tried, but the favorite process was roasting. Some people called it the "mush" process. You take a given quantity of sorghum stalks and reduce them to mush, then add a barrel of real sugar to the mush, mix well, and turn out a barrel and a half of sugar of a better quality than was ever produced from sorghum before. Then pocket your subsidy and go to the next county. The mush process had a remarkable run, almost as remarkable as the electric-refining process here in New York. But it could not last for ever, because eventually the swindled communities would try to make sugar for themselves, and, neglecting to add any real sugar to the mush, the output would be disappointing. From Topeka the report comes that the State Board of Agriculture has discovered the trick and has gone in pursuit of the swindlers. Is not the State Board itself to blame for encouraging the sorghum subsidies in the beginning?

The problem of the utilization of the waste lands of our arid region is one that is attracting great attention at the present time. It has been assumed that these lands can be redeemed only by means of irrigation, and immense sums have already been spent in constructing irrigation works, and many hundreds of thousands of acres of land have thus been brought under cultivation. The matter is of so great importance that it has been brought to the attention of Congress, which has recently made large appropriations for the Geological Survey for the purpose of investigating the subject. It seems that the Agricultural Department, not to be behindhand in this important matter, has also been investigating and experimenting during the past season, and, according to the newspaper statements, has already settled it out of hand. The Agricultural Department accepts no conclusions of others, but tests everything itself. So in this matter, instead of accepting the verdict of the settlers in the far West, that, as a rule, crops cannot be raised there without irrigation, it set about testing whether this verdict is true. A spot near Garden City, Kansas, having been selected as a type of the arid region, the ground was broken and pulverized, and sown in various crops. A part of this land was mulched with straw, the rest being left naked. At harvest time it was seen that the mulched land produced a good crop, while upon the unmulched land nothing matured. Hence we are informed that, throughout the length and breadth of the arid region, it is only necessary, in order to insure abundant crops, to pulverize the soil thoroughly and mulch it with straw.

It is strange that among the many thousands of settlers no one has thought of this simple expedient, an expedient so often used in the East for a similar purpose. It is, however, possible that there may be some flaw in the experimentation or the reasoning of the Department in this matter. Indeed, some person envious of this signal success might say that Garden City, which has an annual rainfall of over twenty inches, and during the last season a rainfall 50 per cent. greater than the average, can scarcely be said to be a *type* of the arid region, where the rainfall ranges from 5 to 15 inches in average seasons, and that the results have no bearing on the question. There is, however, a serious side to this business. The frontier upon the plains of Kansas and Nebraska has for the past twenty years been the scene of constant conflict between man and the forces of nature, a conflict in which man is continually and hopelessly worsted. Every wet season upon the frontier has tempted thousands to settle in this border land, whence they have been driven back by the fear of starvation in the first year of normal rainfall. For the hardships and losses of these poor would-be settlers the railroads, with their exaggerated prospectuses, are largely responsible. This is a sufficiently grave matter, but it becomes even more grave when the Department of Agriculture, which is supposed to speak with authority, advises settlement upon these desert lands, and their cultivation without irrigation. If this advice is given under official sanction, thousands of families, accepting it, will seek homes in the desert perhaps only to suffer hardship and loss, and be finally driven out by starvation.

The case of Silcott, which touches the House of Representatives on a sensitive point, and pinches so many members of that body, ought to fix the attention of Congress, and of all our executive, legislative, and judicial authorities, on the inadequate extradition arrangements which we now have with other governments, and especially with Canada. Silcott is believed to have absconded to Canada, and to be in hiding there; but even if there and discovered, can he be extradited? Under the present plan of extradition by treaty, and enumeration therein of extraditable offences, he can be obtained from Canada only in case his offence is enumerated in the treaty. If he has committed forgery, he can be extradited, but he cannot be obtained under the treaty if his offence is embezzlement or other breach of trust. Nor, under the Supreme Court decision in Rauscher's case, can he be tried for embezzlement if extradited for forgery and, on trial for that offence, the proof is insufficient to convict. Great Britain, by a learned report made in 1878, and made by a Royal Commission which included such eminent publicists, judges, diplomatists, and bankers as Chief-Justice Cockburn, the Earl of Selborne (Roundell Palmer), Judge Blackburn, Recorder Russell Gurney, Judge Baggallay, Judge Brett, Sir John Rose, Judge J. Fitzjames Stephen, and Sir William Harcourt, has distinctly said that she is weary of such technicalities. The Commission reported that it is "the common interest of mankind" that criminals, having committed offences against the general well-being of society, shall not remain at large in a foreign State into which they have fled. Even without reciprocity, England should, said the Commission, surrender such criminals to a demanding Government. The Commission also stamped out, in so far as it could, the fussy technicality that a criminal extradited for one extradition offence should not be tried by the country recovering him for another offence, not political. The whole tenor of this learned report is that, with reciprocity, Great Britain will be glad to rid herself of all malefactors and criminals who have fled to her dominions after violating our laws, and the tendency is to show that she will consent to do it even without reciprocity, and on some such plan as is the basis of the recent Canadian legislation known as the "Weldon Act." Why use treaties at all, and why not, by concerted legislation, authorize the arrest and surrender of every escaping criminal (excepting a political offender), as is now done by and between the States of our Union?

Senator Sherman has reintroduced his Federal Election Bill, in substantially the same form as a year ago. Briefly summarized, it takes the control of the election of Congressmen entirely away from the people of a State, and turns it over to canvassing and electoral boards appointed for life by the President. Of course the Northern States will not submit to such treatment. Why, then, is it proposed? Apparently for no other reason than to make it the text for bloody-shirt speeches. But this is as short-sighted from the politician's point of view as from the statesman's. So far as the South is concerned, the agitation of such propositions insures its continued solidity for the Democrats, while, instead of making the North solid for the Republicans, the readiness of Republican leaders to support such schemes renders independent voters more and more suspicious of the party. In short, it is clearly a losing game all around.

We learn from a Republican organ that "the returns of the election of Congressmen in Indiana at the last Congressional election

show that 264,365 votes cast for Republican candidates for Congress elected only three Representatives, while 259,897 votes cast for Democratic candidates elected ten Representatives. This result," the editor says with truth, "is brought about by a most iniquitous apportionment of Congressional districts in that State by a Democratic Legislature," and he adds: "The Democratic journals in Ohio are urging the imitation of this iniquity in that State by the next Legislature." If the editor of the *Independent* had taken the trouble to consult his copy of the *Tribune Almanac*, he would have found that the apportionment of Congressional districts in Ohio by a Republican Legislature was such that, at the last Congressional election, 395,639 votes cast for Democratic candidates for Congress elected only five Representatives, while 416,520 cast for Republican candidates elected sixteen Representatives. If, therefore, the Democrats of Ohio should reapportion the State so as to elect three times as many Congressmen as the Republicans with about the same number of votes, they would only be imitating the "iniquity" of the Republicans. The *Independent* cannot denounce too severely such "iniquity," when committed by either party, but it should spare us the hypocrisy of pretending that either party is superior to the other in this matter.

The rumor has reached the hungry Republican politicians of Brooklyn for about the hundredth time that the President has decided to remove the Postmaster of that city and put a good Republican in his place. They are cheered by a similar rumor in regard to the United States Marshalship of that district. These changes would have been made long ago, in spite of the fact that in order to accomplish the first it will be necessary to remove before his term has expired the best Postmaster that the city has ever had, if the Republican politicians could have agreed upon a successor. The President is not at all troubled by his civil-service-reform pledges, but simply by a fear that he may make an appointment which will "divide the party" in Brooklyn. There are two leading candidates for the place, each of whom has strong party backing. There have been visits to Washington and conferences without limit in the hope of bringing about "harmony," and the President has devoted so much time and thought to the matter that it is small wonder he was able to give "only a hasty examination" to Mr. Windom's silver recommendations. It is a sad reflection upon the loyalty of Brooklyn Republicans that, in spite of all these Presidential exertions, they still refuse to unite upon a candidate.

The suicide of Mr. Franklin B. Gowen is one of the most shocking and unaccountable events of the year now drawing to its close. Ability, courage, and purity are great qualities in a man of affairs, and the late Mr. Gowen had them all, with the addition of a personal charm that found supporters for his largest schemes. But all this was more than neutralized by one single error of judgment. Not content to develop the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad as an instrument of transportation, not content to stake its fortunes upon its proper business under his own almost absolute management, he fell into the mistake of thinking it good policy for the railroad to own the sources of its most important branch of traffic. Adopting this idea, he persuaded his stockholders to put it into execution, and so created the mountain of debt which broke down the company, and, in spite of a successful reorganization, keeps it impoverished to this day. Other combined railroad and coal properties there were already, the railroad being generally a development of the coal interest, whatever may be thought of the wisdom of this development. But it was Mr. Gowen who conceived that it was a good thing for a railroad to buy the coal lands which should furnish it with freight. If his company could have paid for the coal lands in stock, there would have been less to say against his scheme financially; but, as bonds were the only means available for the purchase, the wildness of the scheme was pretty generally recognized. No one saw this more clearly than the owners of the lands which Mr. Gowen sought to buy; they sold at good prices, and promptly turned the bonds into cash. The example of Mr. Gowen did, however, find some imitators, though on a comparatively humble scale. The end is not yet, nor for the Reading Company alone.

The St. Paul *Pioneer-Press* thinks that whatever may be said of other countries, France has damaged her commerce by subsidies. She went into the subsidy business in 1881 on a grand scale, paying bounties for shipbuilding and also for navigation. During the nine years that the system has been in operation, the foreign trade of France has declined $202,000,000 in value, and the tonnage carried has also declined. The number of ships has, of course, increased, because building was stimulated by the bounties, but the foreign shipping in French waters has increased in an equal ratio, showing that the bounties were sheer waste. On the other hand, the French shipping that existed before the bounty law went into operation has suffered severe losses by the unnatural competition forced upon it. There is no country in which the practice of taxing the many for the benefit of a few, and calling it *la gloire nationale*, is so popular as it is in France. There is none in which the results have been so disappointing.

The number of strikes which have taken place in London since the dockmen's strike, is opening the eyes of a great many people to the inconvenience of treating all strikes as justifiable and even meritorious, provided the employer be a corporation. This was substantially the ground taken by a large part of the public in London, under the leadership of Cardinal Manning, in regard to the dockmen's strike. Nobody pretended that the dock companies could afford to pay higher wages to "casuals" than they were paying, or that they were not, all but one, on the verge of insolvency. What was said was, that it was a shame that the casual's livelihood should be so precarious, and that, as he sometimes got work from the dock companies, on them must fall the burden of improving his lot, and not on the sympathizing public. Why the stockholders, many of them very poor, should have to shoulder this responsibility, nobody ever explained. Cardinal Manning intimated that there was something unchristian in their reluctance to surrender, and the clergy of other denominations backed him up. When the strikers refrained from rioting, it was held that the case against the dock-owners was complete, and that they were morally bound to give such peaceable casuals regular employment on their own terms. The companies did accordingly compromise in such a way as to give the strikers the air of having triumphed. They have never had a quiet hour since. Their stock has depreciated $5,000,000. Repeated strikes have been ever since occurring, sometimes for one reason, sometimes for another, but always with the view of showing the power of the strikers over the employers. The same spirit has spread through the other employees of corporations in England. Doubtless they all have grievances, but the point to be noticed is, that when a strike of this kind succeeds under the leadership of a labor agitator who is not a fellow-workman of the strikers, and has no common interest with them, it is sure to be followed by a protracted attempt, or series of attempts, to take the management of the business out of the hands of the owners, and subject it to the rules and regulations of some trades-union.

At the time of the imposition of tariff taxes on agricultural products in Germany, the protectionists of that country maintained, with the usual fierce logic of their kind, that the consumer would not suffer, as there would be no enhancement of the price of the necessaries of life. In the light of those assertions the statistics given by the Munich correspondent of the *Evening Post* are of interest: "In January of this year 224 pounds of beef cost in Berlin 86.50 marks. In September it had risen to 103.40, an increase of 15 per cent. Pork had risen from 95 to 124.80, or 31.4 per cent. Veal had risen from 96.50 to 102.40, or 6.1 per cent., and mutton from 88 to 92.50, or 5.5 per cent. Compared with September, 1888, beef, pork, and veal had risen 7.7, 30, and 17.7 per cent. Mutton, owing to temporary causes, had fallen 3.3 per cent." A table recently published in the *Freisinnige Zeitung*, based upon official documents, sets forth the following list of increased prices since 1887: Wheat increased 17 per cent., barley 22 per cent., oats 43. The price of potatoes has decreased in the same period; but, unhappily for the protectionist argument, there is no tax on potatoes. Doubtless that omission will soon be made good, and potatoes be added to the number of agricultural products for which the landowners can get a higher price, but for which, in the mysterious way common to the working of protection, the consumer will have to pay no more than before.

WHY NOT PICTURES?

In President Harrison's message occurs the following passage: "The free-list can very safely be extended by placing thereon articles that do not offer injurious competition to such domestic products as our home labor can supply." The President makes no special mention of the tariff on works of art, but this passage seems to us to cover the ground.

The fact that, in the opinion of the interested parties, works of art "do not offer injurious competition" to our "domestic products" has been demonstrated time and again. The present duty of 30 per cent. on works of art was imposed in the face of a largely signed petition of American artists for the removal of the then existing 10 per cent. duty. Later, the Union League Club circulated among the artists and art institutions of the country a petition for the abolition of the present tariff on works of art. Among two thousand answers received to their circular, *seven* favored the retention of the present duty, while 90 per cent. of the answers received favored the total abolition of the tariff on works of art. The Society of American Artists has again and again recorded its protest against the present tariff, while, more recently, the most conservative of our artistic bodies, the National Academy of Design, has taken the same stand. At the last annual meeting of the Academy the following resolution was passed: "Resolved, That the present advalorem duty on foreign works of art is injurious to the best interests of art in this country, and that it should be replaced by a moderate specific duty or abolished altogether."

The last phase of this singular crusade by a "protected industry" against the law intended for its protection is the forming of the National Free Art League expressly to secure the abolition of the present tariff on works of art. Its membership is steadily growing, and it now has some thousand members in all parts of the country, including many of our most prominent artists—the names of many Academicians, including the President of the Academy, are on its rolls. It is, therefore, very evident that the artists of America think that foreign works of art "do not offer injurious competition" to their own, and they have given their reason for thinking so. The circular of the National Free-Art League says: "The price of a work of art *depends upon the individual reputation of the artist*, and a cause which enhances the price of foreign works of art has no beneficial effect upon domestic production." How right is this contention may be illustrated by the following little story which appeared in the Paris *Temps* on the 22d of last August:

"A few days since, an administrator's sale was held on the second floor of the Hôtel Drouot. It was an unimportant sale, and included a few pictures among which was a little panel, thirteen centimetres wide by ten high, representing a drunken soldier at a tavern door. In the right-hand lower corner of this little picture was an M with a reversed E astride of its first leg.

"The picture was bought for about a hundred francs (*une centaine de francs*), the *commissaire priseur* having announced it simply as 'a picture without a name.' . . . It became the property of a M. S——, who immediately ceded it to a M. F——. A few days later M. F——, wishing to get rid of his acquisition, offered it to an expert in Rue Lafitte, M. Bernheim *jeune*. 'But it is a Meissonier that you have there!' said the expert. Imagine the stupefaction of M. F—— to find himself the owner of an authentic work by the painter of '1814,' knocked down for a hundred francs by a Parisian *commissaire priseur!* We asked M. Bernheim to confide the little picture to us for a few moments, and we carried it to show to the master. No doubt was left! M. Meissonier declared it to be a work by himself."

Could anything more clearly demonstrate the futility of treating art as merchandise? Could anything show more conclusively that "the price of a work of art depends upon the individual reputation of the artist"? Can any one tell what may be the present mercantile value of that Meissonier? But that value depends upon the fact that it is a Meissonier, and as such it competes only with other Meissoniers. As a *picture*, competing with other pictures, its value was—one hundred francs! Pictures, *as pictures*, have no commercial value; Meissoniers have a great commercial value, but putting a tax on a Meissonier can only raise the price of that particular picture or of others by the same hand. If we had any manufacturers of Meissoniers in the country, they might be benefited by a tariff on Meissoniers; our painters of pictures are not helped by a tariff on pictures, and they know it better than any one.

If our Republican Congress agrees with our Republican President that "the free-list can very safely be extended by placing thereon articles that do not offer injurious competition to such domestic products as our home labor can supply"; if, as we believe, Congressmen would like to reduce taxation if they knew where to do so without hurting "American indnstries," why should they not begin by taking off the tariff on works of art?

WHEN DOCTORS DISAGREE.

It is reported that Chairman McKinley has already taken his tariff work in hand and set his Committee on Ways and Means thinking what they had best do. They will have no lack of advisers. To begin with, here are two eminent doctors of the protectionist faith, the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* and the Philadelphia *Manufacturer*, giving contrary opinions respecting the duties on wool. The *Bulletin* of December 7 discusses the subject in its usual learned way, and finds that "the present duty on carpet wool is an absurdity" and ought to be repealed; also, that the duties on certain other fibres ought to be repealed, and that Congress ought to confound the free-traders, and take the wind out of their sails, by passing "a measure which shall remove and reduce the duties which are obviously not only excessive, but unnecessary for the protection of American labor, a direct tax upon the American people as consumers, and of no corresponding advantage to them as producers."

The *Manufacturer*, as if anticipating what the *Bulletin* was about to say, gave its opinion of the free-wool campaign in its issue of December 2. It said first, in italics, that "the manufacturers who want free wool will not get it"—meaning, we suppose, that they will not get it from the present Congress; and in this we think that it is right. The reasons why they will not get it are stated with commendable frankness. It is to be hoped that the *Bulletin* and all the petitioning manufacturers, including the carpet-makers, will lay them to heart. Here are a few sample reasons why they will not get free wool at present:

"Any man who goes before that Congress with a demand that it shall in fact repeal the wool duties, must do so in full knowledge that he is asking the majority to break all its promises, to kick the platform to pieces, and to exhibit to the nation a betrayal of public confidence and a violation of sacred trust more shameful, we believe, than any act of treachery recorded in the history of American legislation. Such an appeal is merely a recommendation to the protectionists to put the last nail in the coffin of the Republican party. It demands not only a sacrifice of honor, but of existence. It is an invitation to suicide.

". . . Removal of the wool duties means free yarns and free cloth. It means more: it means that the whole protectionist structure will come rattling down about the ears of the manufacturers of this country; not only of manufacturers of woollens, but of all kinds of commodities. The wool schedule is the keystone of the arch. Take it out, and the entire fabric will tumble into ruin. The free-trader knows that fact well. It is beyond comprehension that a manufacturer of woollens does not perceive it."

The manufacturer of woollens can perhaps see as far into a millstone as anybody. He has needed to have pretty good eyesight to keep going all these years under the burden of a tariff of 55 to 75 per cent. on his raw materials. If he is now asking for the removal of these duties, and is going to fight for the same, he must have made up his mind to take all the risks and all the consequences. The Boston *Journal of Commerce*, a pretty good authority, estimates that about one-third of all the manufacturers have reached the fighting point. As to the carpet-men, probably they have all reached it, although a few are hesitating for political reasons, not liking to separate from their old friends. If the Senate tariff bill of last year, with its schedule of increased wool duties, is passed by the present Congress, not only will the carpet-men take the war-path, but a majority of all the manufacturers of woollen goods will do likewise. Such, at least, was the note sounded in the Whitman-Delano correspondence of October last.

There may be some manufacturers who would rather be ruined and sent to the poor-house than take any step which might bring harm to the Republican party. If there be any such, they are few in number. On the other hand, there are no wool-growers—at all events, none in the Wool-Growers' Association—who are afflicted with such squeamishness. They would kick the tariff to pieces with no more compunction than they would eat their breakfasts, and if the party went to pieces along with the tariff, they would not shed even a crocodile's tear. They have often said this, and there is no doubt whatever that they mean it. They are entirely frank, and as frankness is always praiseworthy, we shall not withhold our approbation. They have been in the tariff ring long enough to know that it is a sheer game of grab, and that the good of the country is

the last thing ever considered—indeed, is the one thing never considered—by the juntos who frame the schedules of duties on this, that, and the other. "Give us our share, we being the judge of what our share is, or the fat goes into the fire," is what they say. Can they make good their threat? They are few in numbers. They do not control directly five hundred votes in Ohio. They lost votes in that State at the recent election. They lost votes in the same State last year. Yet they have the ear of the non-wool-growing farmers, and it may be that although they cannot bring any votes to the Republican party, or even hold all that they have had heretofore, they could turn away a sufficient number to change the complexion of the next Congress.

A tariff is a question of dollars and cents. It has no moral attributes whatever. These belong to freedom only. The right of each man to possess and enjoy his own earnings and to exchange the products of his labor without Governmental interference is presumptively a God-given right. The burden of proof is on the other side. Let the wool-manufacturers, or those who have made up their minds to brave all the consequences of their demand for free wool, lay this fact to heart. If their demand involves the smashing of the protective tariff, as the *Manufacturer* says, it involves nothing but the tardy restoration of rights which ought never to have been denied. Surely no great harm can come from letting each tub stand on its own bottom.

MR. CHANDLER'S DEVICE AGAINST HOME RULE.

"Bill" Chandler has brought forward his Federal election law scheme, and we observe that the Boston *Journal*, and the *Kennebec Journal*, published at Augusta, Me., endorse it as a simple, just, and effective plan for the protection of the ballot, the latter organ saying that it "cannot see why it should not be a popular measure." Let us see. The bill provides that whenever, in any Congressional district, ten voters from each county, or ten voters from each voting precinct where the Congressional district is one county or less, shall make an affidavit that they believe the election will be unfair if held by the State officers, and shall petition the United States Circuit Judge to have the registration of voters and the election conducted by United States officials, the court shall appoint commissioners—one for each party, recommended by the two candidates for Congress—who shall register the voters, and, through the appointment of inspectors and clerks, recommended by them to the court for appointment, shall control the casting and counting of the votes. In other words, if this bill becomes a law, ten "cranks" in each of the four counties of Hancock, Kennebec, Somerset, and Waldo can require the election of Congressman in the Third District of Maine to be taken out of the hands of officials chosen by the people of Maine, and put in the hands of Le Baron B. Colt of Providence, R. I., Circuit Judge for the circuit which includes Maine. In like manner a few men in the northern peninsula of Michigan could transfer the control of the election of the Congressman for that district from the hands of Michigan men to those of the Circuit Judge for that circuit, Howell E. Jackson of Tennessee, a "wicked Democrat" appointed by Cleveland. It may be that such a system as this will be popular with Northern people who have for generations insisted upon controlling their own elections. We shall see when they come to understand the character of the measure.

As for the idea that any such device as this will cure the election evils at the South, it would be a waste of words to argue the point when so good a Republican organ as the Utica *Herald* has thus clearly exposed the futility of the scheme: "An objection to Senator Chandler's bill can be found easily in the provision that ten voters in every voting precinct of a Congressional district must, in order to secure Federal supervision of an election, make affidavit that they do not feel safe in voting under State regulations, or that they apprehend unfair practices. In Southern districts where voting is most dangerous, it would be as unsafe to make the required affidavits as it would to attempt to vote without Federal care. Congress has the right to insist that the ballot for members shall be free and fair, and if it is going to exercise its right, it should not substitute one danger for another." The truth is, that when the editors of the Utica *Herald*, the Kennebec *Journal*, and the Boston *Journal* have studied this subject as thoroughly as the editor of the Milwaukee *Sentinel* has done, they will have to accept the conclusion of that excellent Republican authority that the enactment of any Federal election law "would prove as ineffectual as the Pope's famous bull against the comet." Valuable testimony to the ineffectiveness of such measures is furnished by Joseph W. Henderson, a young colored man from Texas, who delivered an address at Hartford on Thursday evening, and who, in speaking of Kuklux outrages, declared that "the scoundrels down there drove their ponies at night even when Grant's troops were there." As the *Sentinel* has pointed out, the trouble is due to the prejudice of the whites against the rule of the negroes, and that prejudice "will produce its inevitable effects until it is greatly abated"—an abatement which can only come about through the slow processes of time, and which will be hindered, rather than hastened, by any interference on the part of the "Bill" Chandlers.

How strong is the prejudice even among Republicans in a Northern State against allowing the negro any share in the Government is freshly illustrated by a letter in the New York *Age* from H. C. Smith, editor of the Cleveland *Gazette*, an organ of the colored men in Ohio. There are five Fire Commissioners in Cleveland, four of whom are Republicans. The Fire Department has not a single colored member. Six months ago the Commissioners examined about twenty applicants for places in the Department. One of the twenty was a negro, and he secured the highest average of the whole number in both physical and mental examinations. Nevertheless he was not appointed and has not been appointed yet, while the Republican Commissioners keep on appointing white applicants who stood far below him. There are five Police Commissioners, four of whom are Republicans. About three months ago three colored men entered the examination for places in that Department, and passed with a high standing. Not one of them has been appointed, although forty white men who stood lower than the three negroes have since been given places. The only reason for this unjust discrimination in each case was the color of the skin, and Mr. Smith says that "the same kind of treatment has been given us by every city board controlled by Republicans from which we have asked anything." As long as white Republicans at the North thus openly and unlawfully manifest their prejudice against the few blacks in their States, it requires an uncommon amount of audacity for them to talk about forcing upon white Democrats at the South a rule to which they will not themselves submit.

THE SUPREME COURT.

The suggestion of an increase in the number of judges upon the Supreme bench of the United States is one which Congress may follow with the approval of the public. The nation contained less than four millions of people, nearly all of them along the Atlantic coast, when this court was constituted with six members; and eleven will be none too many for the highest judicial tribunal of a country whose population already reaches sixty-five millions, and is distributed across the continent.

There has been one period in our history when the court contained ten members, and the proposed change will make the number but one larger than it stood between 1863 and 1865, when the area of its authority was largely restricted by the civil war. Beginning with a Chief Justice and five associate justices in 1789, the number of associates was increased to six in 1807, to eight in 1837, and to nine in 1863, when Stephen J. Field was appointed by President Lincoln, making, with the Chief Justice, a bench of ten. Although the Republican party was then supreme in the executive and legislative departments of the Federal Government, the majority of the Supreme Court came down from the ante-bellum period of Democratic dominance, for Roger B. Taney, who had been appointed by Jackson in 1836, and for whose long life "Ben" Wade afterwards thought he had prayed perhaps a little too zealously during the closing years of Buchanan's term, still sat as Chief Justice, and beside him were James M. Wayne of Georgia, another appointee of Jackson (in 1835); John Catron of Tennessee, appointed by Van Buren in 1837; Samuel Nelson of New York, appointed by Tyler towards the close of his Administration in 1845; Robert C. Grier of Pennsylvania, commissioned by Polk in 1846; and Nathan Clifford of Maine, Buchanan's contribution to the

court in 1858. Lincoln on his inauguration found two vacancies, through the death, a few months before, of Peter V. Daniel of Virginia and the resignation of John A. Campbell of Alabama on the secession of his State, and a third soon happened from the death of John McLean of Ohio, the earliest of Jackson's appointees, dating from 1829. Noah H. Swayne of Ohio, Samuel F. Miller of Iowa, and David Davis of Illinois had been already appointed by Lincoln when Congress authorized an increase of the number of associate justices, and Mr. Field was named.

The Republicans were unwilling to trust Andrew Johnson with the appointment of any judges to this bench, and so, when Catron died in 1865, the number of associate justices was cut down to eight, and on Wayne's death, two years later, to seven. In 1870 the number of associate justices was raised to eight, but it has never since been carried as high as it was between 1863 and 1865, although the necessity for a bench of at least ten members—or, better, eleven, as is now proposed—has long been far greater than it was a quarter of a century ago.

Happily there is no reason why Democrats and Republicans, North and South, should not regard the proposed increase with composure. There is no longer any great question of constitutional interpretation regarding which there is a Southern and Democratic side, as opposed to a Northern and Republican side. The decisions of the Supreme Court during the past twenty years have settled the question of State rights beyond any possibility of reopening. The annulment of the Civil Rights Act in 1883, on the ground that it was unconstitutional in trenching upon the rights of the States, and the decision of the court in the Virginia debt cases in December, 1887, fully established what Justice Miller has styled "the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs." Of this latter decision a despatch from Richmond, Va., the evening after it was rendered, said: "The decision of the Supreme Court caused great rejoicing here to-day. It is regarded by all classes as a fixed and final triumph of State sovereignty. Men tossed up their hats and cried, 'Hurrah for Virginia! Hurrah for State rights!'"

In view of such a record, it is a matter of little importance whether a new Justice of the Supreme Court is a Republican from the North or a Democrat from the South. The most important work done by the present Republican members has been their rendering of decisions which fully sustained the arguments advanced in Congress by such Democrats as Mr. Thurman against such unconstitutional measures as the Civil-Rights Act, and Mr. Thurman himself could have taken no stronger ground against that measure than did Justice Bradley, who rendered the decision in that case. To those who were familiar with the loose ideas of Mr. Lamar regarding such questions, as illustrated by his support in the Senate of the scheme to allow the Federal Government to interfere with schools in the States—a scheme certainly opposed to the spirit of the Constitution, and which so high Republican authority as ex-Justice Strong considers repugnant to that instrument—there was something absurd about the protests of Republican organs against his appointment, on the ground that he was "a State-rights man." The decisions rendered by the new Northern Republican appointee, Justice Brewer, on the bench of the Circuit Court, indicate that he is a much better State-rights man than his Southern Democratic colleague. Indeed, it is a curious fact that not only is Mr. Lamar a latitudinarian in such matters of construction, but that Justice Field, then the only Democrat on the bench, took the Federal, as opposed to the State, side in the Virginia controversy.

So long as service in the highest court makes Republican justices from the North render decisions which are hailed in the old capital of the Confederacy as the "triumph of State sovereignty," it is a matter of little consequence to the South, in the large view, whether new justices come from one party or the other; and the equanimity with which that section receives Judge Brewer's appointment shows that it recognizes this truth.

At the same time it would be a graceful thing for President Harrison to give the South further representation upon this bench if he is called upon to make more appointments, as is likely to be the case, not only through additions to the number of judges, but through the early withdrawal on pensions of the three judges who are now far past seventy years of age. Practically Mr. Lamar is the only representative of that whole section, Justice Harlan's residence and associations making him almost as much a Northern man as though he had lived in Cincinnati, instead of Louisville, when appointed. Democratic newspapers in Tennessee have mentioned Republican lawyers in that State who are worthy of this honor, and there may be such lawyers in other Southern States. If there are not Republican lawyers of the first rank in the Gulf States, a broad-minded Democrat might well be named. While it is not of importance, as a matter of principle, whether a new judge of the Supreme Court is a Republican or a Democrat, a resident of the North or of the South, it would conduce somewhat to the popular respect for the tribunal if it were not so one-sided in the political affiliations of its members as it will be when Justice Field's withdrawal leaves only Fuller and Lamar to represent a party which numbers fully half the voters of the country, and Lamar the only Southern man among the nine—or perhaps then eleven—members. There was a statesmanlike passage bearing upon this same question in the message sent by Lincoln to Congress on December 3, 1861, which may well be recalled twenty-eight years later:

"There are three vacancies on the bench of the Supreme Court—two by the decease of Justices Daniel and McLean and one by the resignation of Justice Campbell. I have so far forborne making nominations to fill these vacancies for reasons which I will now state. Two of the outgoing judges resided within the States now overrun by revolt; so that if successors were appointed in the same localities, they could not now serve upon their circuits; and many of the most competent men there probably would not take the personal hazard of accepting to serve, even here, upon the Supreme bench. I have been unwilling to throw all the appointments northward, thus disabling myself from doing justice to the South on the return of peace."

THE MARKET PRICE OF SILVER.

THE *Financial Chronicle* has touched the weak spot in Secretary Windom's silver project by asking the question, "What is the market price of silver?" The market price, it goes on to show, is the price at which a given quantity of silver can be sold on a given day. It is determined by the law of supply and demand. If you increase the quantity to be sold at this particular time, or if you lessen the demand, the market value declines. If you lessen the supply, or if the demand increases, the market value rises. Now, what will happen if the United States Treasury offers to take all the silver in the world at its market value at any time and at all times, and give its notes for the same, and then take the notes at par for all Government dues? In order to increase the market value it will only be necessary for the holders and producers to keep their silver off the market and converge it upon the Treasury. By keeping it off the market they cause the price to advance, because a certain amount will be wanted at all times, for manufacturing purposes if not for currency, and the sale of even the smallest quantity fixes the quotation for the day. Thus, although there is a quotation, there is really no market value in the commercial sense, because the law of supply and demand has ceased to operate. When one buyer offers to take all that can be brought to him at a fixed price, to wit, the price at which, say, 10,000 ounces are sold in London, the essential feature of market price is obliterated, because the essential feature is that if 11,000 ounces were offered in London, the market value would probably be less; if 100,000 ounces, it would certainly be less.

Therefore, issuing Treasury notes at market value is a misleading phrase. It really means issuing them at a fixed price for silver. What will become of the notes when issued? They will go back to the Treasury in payment of taxes. The plan provides that they may be counted as reserves of the national banks, but the banks would not be obliged to receive them. The revenue of the Government would soon consist of these notes exclusively if it should turn out that they were at the smallest discount compared with gold.

This is, in brief, the *Chronicle's* argument, and no flaw can be detected in it. It is all embraced in the idea, or rather axiom, that market value requires free play, and that there is no free play where one buyer agrees to take all offerings at a price momentarily fixed.

That Mr. Windom anticipated this objection, but underrated it, is evident from the following paragraphs in his report:

"It might be suggested that to issue Treasury notes on unlimited deposits of bullion would place the Government at the mercy of combinations organized to arbitrarily put up the price of silver for the purpose of unloading on the Treasury at a fictitious value.

"This danger may be averted by giving the

Secretary of the Treasury discretion to suspend temporarily the receipt of silver and issue of notes in the event of such a combination, and he might be authorized, under proper restrictions, to sell silver, if necessary, retaining the gold proceeds for the redemption of the notes.

"The existence of such authority, even if never exercised, would prevent the formation of any effectual combination of this kind, for the reason that a combination to control the silver product of the world would be very expensive, requiring immense capital, and could not be successfully undertaken in the face of the power lodged with the Secretary to defeat it."

The first answer to this is that a "combination" would not be necessary to bring about the result. What all holders of silver see that it is for their interest to do they will do without first forming a syndicate for the purpose. Each one will see that it is for his interest not to break the market, not to lower the quotation. The combination will form itself without the act of combining.

The remedy proposed is, that the Secretary shall be authorized to stop receiving silver whenever he sees fit, and even to become a seller "under proper restrictions." Another suggestion (not exactly a recommendation) is, that, in order to guard against an excess of deposits, the receipt of bullion might be limited to the production of this country, or of this continent, or of "new bullion." The practical difficulties in the way of enforcing this restriction are such that it may be left out of the reckoning at present. Then we have for our means of avoiding danger a proviso that the Secretary may receive silver or not receive it, just as he pleases, and if he thinks he has received too much at any time, he may sell the overplus. Limiting this power to "the event of a combination" signifies nothing, since it is the Secretary's judgment that determines the existence of the combination. He cannot pause to hear arguments or to take testimony upon this point.

Practically, therefore, the Secretary's plan is that he shall be authorized by Congress to receive silver bullion on deposit for Treasury notes occasionally, and to sell it occasionally, the notes to be receivable for Government dues, and to become part of the national currency if the banks choose to treat them as such. Mr. Windom was very strongly convinced of the danger of allowing the Secretary to expand and contract the currency at will by depositing public money in the banks and withdrawing it again. Upon this point he said:

"It involves the exercise of *a most dangerous power* by the Secretary of the Treasury whereby he may, if so disposed, expand or contract the currency at will and in the interests of certain favorites whom he may select."

But his silver project involves not only the same dangerous power of expanding and contracting the currency at will, but also the power to "rig" the silver market of the world by alternate buying and selling. And the peculiarity of the plan is, that without these discretionary powers the whole project is too dangerous to be thought of and quite inadmissible.

OUR WAY OF REFORM.

One of the puzzles of American politics to foreign observers is the persistent hopefulness or optimism of the public in the presence of a great many most discouraging phenomena. Mr. Bryce confesses that a "hundred times" in the course of his investigations he came across facts which disposed him to think the American experiment a failure, and just as often as he fell into this state of gloom, he lighted on some tendency or movement which showed him that there was everywhere diffused through the community a *vis medicatrix* which made despair seem a blunder.

Any one who wishes to penetrate the secret of this optimism can hardly do better than study the history of the two great parties since 1850. He will there see that the great reforms are nearly all brought about by the pushing of the abuses to an extreme. The process is usually a very simple one. The evil shows itself, is attacked by literary men, professors, theologians, and the like, who are ridiculed or denounced as visionaries or theorists. The smallness of their numbers as revealed at the first election or two excites merriment. The promoters of the evil feel more confident than ever, and are, in view of the feebleness of the opposition, astonished at their own moderation. They determine to have a better time than ever, or, in other words, to do a little more of the thing which the theorists say they ought not to do at all. They accordingly begin a steady and apparently most enjoyable progress towards some sort of extreme which the reformers have been denouncing as peculiarly odious. If it be slavery in which they take their pleasure, they convert it from a necessary evil into an undeniable good, surround it with religious sanctions, and make it an excellent basis for civil society and demand its extension to new fields. If it be a spirit of speculation and of venality in public life which the reformers are deploring, their enemies produce as a candidate for the highest office in the country somebody who openly and more than any one else represents in the public eye the money-making spirit, and pronounce him, as if in mockery, "the greatest living American." If it be the public use of the Government service for party or personal ends which the reformers decry, the theory is unearthed that the spoils system is a valuable American invention, intended to adapt the work of administration to democratic uses; and the work of distributing small places among personal adherents, though really the moral equivalent of embezzlement, is treated as the first and highest duty of the President and his Cabinet. If it be excessive duties on imports that are complained of, the protectionists not only go to work to raise the duties, but to make the collection of them more vexatious, and more complicated, and to increase the difficulty of obtaining redress for administrative blunders or misconduct.

It is actually in this way that the American people now get to the bottom of a question, and are enabled to decide when to take the broom in hand and cleanse the Augean stable. It is, of course, a cumbersome, and tedious, and terribly expensive process. It is not the process by which reforms in government will continue to be effected. It is a process which the growth of education and of better political habits will, no doubt, some day cast aside as slow and inadequate, and indeed somewhat barbarous in its simplicity. But it seems to be the process which at present is best suited to the average intelligence of the voting population.

Anybody who knows nothing about it, and is not aware that it is going on, may, therefore, readily deceive himself as to the political prospect in the United States at any given time. Nowhere in the world has the proverb that "the darkest hour is just before the dawn" been so frequently verified, and nowhere is a change for the better so close at hand as when things seem as bad as bad can be. Nothing, therefore, has done so much for the deliverance of the Government from the influence of that deadliest and most insidious of all powers, the money power, as the nomination of its great representative, Mr. Blaine, for the Presidency by the Republican party. Nothing has done so much to bring the public mind to a proper sense of the gravity of the spoils system as the violation by the party of its promises of reform and the wholesale removals perpetrated by Mr. Clarkson. Nothing has done so much to promote the cause of ballot reform as the lavish use of money made by the manufacturers at the last election, and the apparently triumphant and insolent supremacy of men like Wanamaker and Quay in Republican councils. Nothing has done so much to promote the cause of tariff reform as the attempt of the Senate last year to meet the demand for revision by raising the duties, and the attempt of the Treasury to harass the importers in the interest of the manufacturers, by open disregard of the judgment of the courts on rules of appraisement.

To all outward seeming, these things indicate the complete triumph of the lawless element in our politics, the class which makes the enrichment of the few through the corruption or indifference of the many, the goal of the national striving. But, in reality, they mean that the end is near, and that, as the Pennsylvanian spoilsman said, with a different meaning, "This hog is fit to kill." The danger of such a mode as this of reaching reform is, of course, that some day the enemy may not be as absurd or audacious as the efficient working of the system requires. But this is a very slight danger after all. Providence has never allowed any people to perish or come to grief for want of a reasonable supply of fools and knaves, and we may be sure we shall always have plenty of them in stock until the day comes when we shall depend less on object-lessons and more on the lessons of recorded experience for extrication from our difficulties.

CITY AND FARM IN CONNECTICUT.

The Board of Education of the State of Connecticut has just compiled its annual school census of the children of the State who are of the school age, namely, between four and sixteen years. Its returns give an

opportunity to show how swiftly in New England the decline of the country regions and the simultaneous growth of the cities proceed. The school census of Connecticut is usually made with the utmost care, and can be relied on for general precision. By using its ascertained ratio of 4.44, which the number of children in the State who are of school age bore to the whole population as found in the census year of 1880, we can derive the relative proportions for country and city variation.

In the year 1800 Connecticut had a total population of 251,002, of which 24,131, or only 9.6 per cent., was in the cities. In 1880 her population had risen to 622,700, of which 244,558, or 39.3 per cent., was in the cities. The new school census (1889) shows the number of children of school age in the State to be 159,234, of whom 77,117 are in the cities (or, more strictly speaking, urban towns) of New Haven, Hartford, Bridgeport, Waterbury, Meriden, Norwich, Danbury, New Britain, Middletown, New London, and Rockville (Vernon). Carrying out the ratio of 4.44, the present population of the State becomes 706,992, of which 342,398, or about 48.5 per cent., is in the twelve cities named. Allowing for the fact that the two cities of Danbury and Rockville have been incorporated since 1880, there would still remain about 44.6 per cent. of the population in the cities, which contained 39.3 per cent. in 1880. In the country towns during the nine years past, therefore, the population has fallen 5.3 per cent. of the whole, while in the cities it has risen in the same ratio. This computation gives to the country regions the benefit of the increased population of the many bustling factory towns like Derby, Ansonia, Winchester, and others. If these could be excluded, and only those towns be cited whose industries are exclusively or essentially agricultural, the showing would be very much more striking.

A better test is, perhaps, supplied by a contrast of the four urban counties with the four rural counties of the State. The latter are Windham, Litchfield, Tolland, and Middlesex, containing only the two cities of Middletown and Rockville, which together have a population not exceeding 21,000. Using the same ratio, the population of the two sets of counties this year would be approximately as follows:

Urban Counties.	Population.
New Haven	203,036
Hartford	136,280
New London	73,490
Fairfield	141,488
	554,294
Rural Counties.	
Litchfield	51,410
Windham	43,991
Tolland	23,873
Middlesex	33,424
	152,698

The urban counties now contain, therefore, about 78.5 per cent. of Connecticut's population. In 1880 the four urban counties named contained 467,099, while the rural counties—including their thriving factory towns—contained 155,601. During the nine years the urban counties have thus gained in population 87,195, while the rural counties have lost 2,903. The figures show graphically how steady and swift is the current that sets from the farms in Connecticut and all over New England towards the urban centres.

Some of the results of the impoverishment of the farm towns which the statistics suggest have often been depicted, in the cheapening of lands, the unbalancing of legislative representation, the growth of rural bribery, and other malign consequences. In Connecticut none has been more striking than the fiscal view that the two political parties in country towns take of the position of legislators, and the resulting "rotative habit" of passing the place around and sending untried men to make the laws. How steadily this custom has grown against the old habit of sending the country squires to the Legislature year after year, the subjoined table for the decades since 1780 indicates:

	Whole number of representatives.	Reëlected from previous year.	Per cent. reëlected.
1790	171	109	63.7
1800	189	102	54.0
1810	199	83	41.7
1820	204	53	26.0
1830	208	47	22.6
1840	212	27	12.7
1850	222	27	12.2
1860	236	30	12.7
1870	239	24	10.0
1880	246	23	9.3
1889	249	13	5.2

It would be interesting to find how the development of this rotative custom, which, within certain limits, measures the lowering of legislative *morale*, compares in the other New England States with that of Connecticut. Certainly, it is very marked everywhere, even in the States, like Massachusetts, where the little towns are bunched into districts, and where, consequently, each town thinks another town "hoggish" if it wants to send a member a second time, albeit he may be faithful, able, and honest.

ROBERT BROWNING.

THE death of Browning brings one stage nearer the too plainly approaching end of a literary age which will long be full of curious interest to the student of the moods of the mind of man. Time has linked his name with that of Tennyson, and the conjunction gives to England another of those double stars of genius in which her years are rich, and by which the spirit of an age has a twofold expression. The old opposition, the polarity of mind, by virtue of which the Platonist differs from the Aristotelian, the artist from the thinker, Shakspere from Jonson, shows its efficacy here, too, in the last modern age, and divides the poets and their admirers by innate preferences. It is needful to remember this contrast, though not to insist upon it unduly, in order to approach the work of Browning rightly, to be just to those who idolize him without offence to those who are repelled by him. The analysis of his powers, the charting of his life and work, is not difficult; but the value of his real achievement is more uncertain. Interest centres entirely in his poetry, for his career has been without notable incident, and is told when it is said that he has lived the life of a scholar and man of letters in England and Italy amid the social culture of his time. For the world his career is the succession of books he has put forth, and this is as he would have it; publicity beyond this he did not seek, but refused with violence and acrimony.

In his earliest poem, youthful in its self-portraiture, its literary touch, and its fragmentary plan, the one striking quality is the flow of language. Here was a writer who would never lack for words; fluent, as if inexhaustible, the merely verbal element in "Pauline" shows no struggle with the medium of the poet's art. This gift of facility was, as is usual, first to show itself. In "Paracelsus" the second primary quality of Browning was equally conspicuous—the power of reasoning in verse. These two traits have for a poet as much weakness as strength, and they lie at the source of Browning's defects as a master of poetic art. His facility allowed him to be diffuse in language, and his reasoning habit led him often to be diffuse in matter. In "Sordello" the two produced a monstrosity, both in construction and expression, not to be rivalled in literature. Picturesque detail, intellectual interest, moral meaning, struggle in vain in that tale to make themselves felt and discerned through the tangle of words and the labyrinth of act and reflection. But already in these poems Browning had shown, to himself, if not to the world, that he had come to certain conclusions, to a conception of human life and a decision as to the use of his art in regard to it, which were to give him substantial power. He defined it by his absorption in "Paracelsus" with the broad ideas of infinite power and infinite love, which in his last poem still maintain their place in his system as the highest solvents of experience and speculation; and in "Sordello" he stated the end of art, which he continued to seek, in his maxim that little else is worth study except the "history of a soul." His entire poetic work, broadly speaking, is the illustration of this short sentence. Such prepossessions with the spiritual meaning of life as these poems show made sure the predominance in his work of the higher interests of man; and he won his audience finally by this fact, that he had something to say that was ethical and religious. The development, however, of both the theory and practice of his mind had to be realized in far more definite and striking forms than the earlier poems before the attention of the world could be secured.

It would seem natural that a man with such convictions as Browning acknowledged, should be preëminently an idealist, and that his point of weakness should prove to be the tendency to metaphysical and vague matter not easily putting on poetical form. But he was, in fact, a realist—one who is primarily concerned with things, and uses the method of observation. His sense for actual fact is always keen. In that poem of "Paracelsus," which is a discussion in the air if ever a poem was, it is significant to find him emphasizing the circumstance that he had taken very few liberties with his subject, and bringing books to show evidence of historical fidelity. But, little of the dramatic spirit as there is in "Paracelsus," there was much in Browning when it should come to be released, and it belongs to the dramatist to be interested in the facts of life, the flesh and blood reality, in which he may or may not (according to his greatness) find a soul. Browning was thus a realist, and he chose habitually the objective method of art—but to set forth "the history of a soul." Had he been an idealist, his subject would have been "the history of *the* soul"; his method might or might not have been different. This change of the particle is a slight one, but it involves that polarity of mind which sets Browning opposite to Tennyson. He deals with individuals, takes in imagination their point of view, assumes for the time being their circumstances and emotions; and one who does this in our time, with a preoccupation with the soul in the individual, cannot escape from one overpowering impression, repeated from every side of the modern age—the impression, namely, of the relativity of human life.

This is the lesson which is spread over Browning's pages, with line on line and precept on precept. By it he comes into harmony with the very spirit of the century on its intellectual side, and represents it. The "history of a soul" differs very greatly according to circumstance, native impulses, the needs of life at different stages of growth, the balance of faculties and desires in it, the temperament of its historical period, the access to it of art or music or thought, and in a thousand ways;

and Browning devotes himself oftentimes to the exposition of all this web of circumstance in order that we may see the soul as it was under its conditions, instead of leaping to a conclusion by a hard-and-fast morality based upon the similarity of the soul in all men. The task happily falls in with his fine gift of reasoning, and increases by practice the suppleness and subtlety of this faculty of his. One might say, indeed, without close computation, that the larger part of his entire poetic work is occupied with such reasoning upon psychological cases, in the manner of a lawyer who educes a client's justification from the details of his temptation. Many of the longer poems are only instances of special pleading, and have all the faults that belong to that form of thought. "The Ring and the Book" is such an interminable argument, marvellous for intellectual resource, for skill in dialectics, for plausibility. "Bishop Blougram," "Mr. Sludge," "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau," and others, readily occur to mind as being in the same way "apologies"; and in these one feels that, while it is well to know what the prisoner urges on his own behalf, it is the shabby, the cowardly, the criminal, the base, the detestable, that is masking under a too well-woven cloak of words, and that the special pleader is pursuing his game at the risk of a higher honesty than consists in the mere understanding of the mechanism of motive and act. Yet this catholicity, which seems to have for its motto, "Who understands all, forgives all," is a natural consequence in a mind so impressed with the doctrine of the relativity of human life as was Browning's. The tendency of the doctrine is to efface moral judgment and to substitute for it intellectual comprehension; and usually this results in a practical fatalism, acquiesced in if not actively held. Here, too, Browning's mental temperament has another point of contact with the general spirit of the age, and allows him to take up into his genius the humanitarian instinct so powerful in his contemporaries. For the perception of the excuses for men's action in those of low or morbid or deformed development liberalizes the mind, and the finding of the spark of soul in such individuals does mean to the Christian the finding of that immortal part which equalizes all in an equal destiny, however the difference may look between men while the process of life is going on. Browning came very early to this conviction, that in all men, however weak or grossly set this spark may be, it is to be sought for. In this he is consistently philanthropic and democratic, Christian in spirit and practice, comprehensive in tolerance, large in charity, intellectually (but not emotionally) sympathetic. It is perhaps unnecessary to add that his love of righteousness is not so striking a trait.

But what in all this view of life is most original in Browning is something that possibly perplexes even his devoted admirers. Life, he says, no matter what it may be in its accidents of time, or place, or action, is the stuff to make the soul of. In the humblest as the noblest, in *Caliban* as in *Prospero*, the life vouchsafed is the means (adequate, he seems to say, in all cases) of which the soul makes use to grow in. He thus avoids the deadening conclusions to which his doctrine of relativity might lead, by asserting the equal and identical opportunity in all to develop the soul. He unites with this the original theory—at least one that he has made his own—that whatever the soul seeks it should seek with all its might; and, pushing to the extreme, he urges that if a man sin, let him sin to the uttermost of his desire. This is the moral of the typical poem of this class, "The Statue and the Bust," and he means more by this than that the intention, sinning in thought, is equivalent to sinning in act—he means that a man should have his will. No doubt this is directly in accord with the great value he places on strength of character, vitality in life, on resolution, courage, and the braving of consequences. But the ignoring of the immense value of restraint as an element in character is complete; and in the case of many whose choice is slowly and doubtfully made in those younger years when the desire for life in its fulness of experience is strongest, and the wisdom of knowledge of life in its effects is weakest, the advice to obey impulse at all costs, to throw doubt and authority to the winds, and "live my life and have my day," is of dubious utility. Over and over again in Browning's poetry one meets with this insistence on the value of moments of high excitement, of intense living, of full experience of pleasure, even though such moments be of the essence of evil and fruitful in all dark consequences. It is probable that a deep optimism underlies all this; that Browning believed that the soul does not perish in its wrong-doing, but that through this experience, too, as through good, it develops finally its immortal nature, and that, as in his view the life of the soul is in its energy of action, the man must act even evil if he is to grow at all. Optimism, certainly, of the most thorough-going kind this is; but Browning is so consistent an optimist in other parts of his philosophy that this defence may be made for him on a point where the common thought and deepest conviction of the race, in its noblest thinkers and purest artists, are opposed to him, refusing to believe that the doing of evil is to be urged in the interest of true manliness.

The discussion of Browning's attitude towards life in the actual world of men has led away from the direct consideration of the work in which he embodied his convictions. The important portion of it came in middle life, when he obtained mastery of the form of poetic art known as the dramatic monologue. A realist, if he be a poet, must resort to the drama. It was inevitable in Browning's case. Yet the drama, as a form, offered as much unfitness for Browning's genius as it did fitness. The drama requires energy, it is true, and interest in men as individuals; and these Browning had. It also requires concentration, economy of material, and constructive power; and these were difficult to Browning. He did not succeed in his attempts to write drama in its perfect form. He could make fragments of intense power in passion; he could reveal a single character at one critical moment of its career; he could sum up a life history in a long soliloquy; but he could not do more than this and keep the same level of performance. Why he failed is a curious question, and will doubtless be critically debated with a plentiful lack of results. His growth in dramatic faculty, in apprehension of the salient points of character, and grasp in presenting them, in perception of the value of situation, and power to use it to the full, can readily be traced; but there comes a point where the growth stops. Superior as his mature work is to that of his youth in all these qualities, it falls short of that perfect and complex design and that informing life which mark the developed dramatist. In the monologues he deals with incidents in a life, with moods of a personality, with the consciousness which a man has of his own character at the end of his career; but he seizes these singly, and at one moment. His characters do not develop before the eye; he does not catch the soul in the very act; he does not present life so much as the results of life. He frequently works by the method of retrospect—he tells the story, but does not enact it. In all these he displays the governing motive of his art, which is to reveal the soul; but if the soul reveals itself in his verses, it is commonly by confession, not presentation. He has, in fact, that malady of thought which interferes with the dramatist's control of his hand; he is thinking *about* his characters, and only indirectly *in* them, and he is most anxious to convey his reflections upon the psychical phenomenon which he is attending to. In other words, he is, primarily, a moralist; he reasons, and he is fluent in words and fertile in thoughts, and so he loses the object itself, becomes indirect, full of afterthought and parenthesis, and impairs the dramatic effect. These traits may be observed, in different degrees, in many of the poems, even in the best. In the dramas themselves the lack of constructive power is absolute. "Pippa Passes" is only a succession of dramatic fragments artificially bound together, and in the others the lack of body and interdependent life between the parts is patent to all. "In a Balcony," certainly one of his finest wrought poems, is only an incident. He is at his best when his field is most narrow—in such a poem as "The Laboratory."

There is a compensation for these deficiencies of power in that the preference of his mind for a single passion or mood or crisis at its main moment opens to him the plain and unobstructed way to lyrical expression. His dramatic feeling of the passion and the situation supplies an intensity which finds its natural course in lyrical exaltation. It may well be thought, if it were deemed necessary to decide upon the best in Browning's work, that his genius is most nobly manifest in those lyrics and romances which he called dramatic. The scale rises from his argumentative and moralizing verse, however employed, through those monologues which obey the necessity for greater concentration as the dramatic element enters into them, up to those most powerful and direct poems in which the intensity of feeling enforces a lyrical movement and lift; and akin to these last are the songs of love or heroism into which the dramatic element does not enter. Indeed, in our judgment, Browning's lyrical gift was more perfect than his dramatic gift; he knew the secret of a music which has witchery in it independent of what the words may say, and when his hand fell on that chord, he mastered the heart with real poetic charm. It was seldom, however, that this happy moment came to him, ennobling his language and giving wing to his emotion; and, such poems being rare, it remains true that the best of his work is to be sought in those pieces, comprehending more of life, where his dramatic power takes on a lyrical measure. Such work became more infrequent as years went on, and he declined again into that earlier style of wordy ratiocination, of tedious pleading as of a lawsuit, of mere intellectuality as of the old hair-splitting schoolmen, though he retained the strength and definiteness of mind which mere growth had brought to him, and he occasionally produced a poem which was only less good than the best of his middle age. The translations from the Greek with which he employed his age stand in a different class from his original poems, and were a fortunate resort for his vigorous but now feebly creative mind. At the end he still applied himself to the interpretation of individual lives, but in choosing them he was attracted even more uniformly by something exceptional, often grotesque, in them, and hence they are more curious and less instructive than the earlier work of the same kind.

The mass of Browning's writings which has been glanced at as the expression of the reasoning, the dramatic, or the lyrical impulse in his genius has attracted attention as wide as the English language, and it has been intimated that this success has been won in some degree on other than poetic grounds. It is fair to say, in view of the facts, that many who have felt his appeal to them have found a teacher rather than a poet. Two points in which he reflects his age have been mentioned, but there is a third point which has perhaps been more efficacious than his sense of the relativity of human life or his conviction of the worth of every human soul: he adds to these cardinal doctrines a firm and loudly asseverated religious belief. It is the more noteworthy because his reasoning faculty might in his time have led him almost anywhere rather than to the supreme validity of truth arrived at by intuition. This makes his character the more interesting, for the rationalizing mind which submits itself to intuitive faith exactly parallels in Browning the realist with a predominating interest in the soul. There is no true contradiction in this, no inconsistency; but the combination is unusual. It is natural that, in a time of decreasing authority in formal religion, a poet in Browning's position should wield an immense attraction, and owe something, as Carlyle did, to the wish of his audience to be reassured in their religious faith. Browning had begun with that resolution of the universe into infinite power and infinite love of which something has already been said, and he continued to teach that through nature we arrive at the conception of omnipotence, and through the soul at the conception of love, and he apparently finds the act of faith in the belief that infinite power will finally be discerned as the instrument and expression of

infinite love. This is pure optimism; and in accordance with it he preaches his gospel, which is that each soul should grow to its utmost in power and in love, and in the face of difficulties—of mysteries in experience or thought—should repose with entire trust on the doctrine that God has ordered life beneficently, and that we who live should wait with patience, even in the wreck of our own or others' lives, for the disclosure hereafter which shall reconcile to our eyes and hearts the jar with justice and goodness of all that has gone before. This is a system simple enough and complete enough to live by, if it be truly accepted. It is probable, however, that Browning wins less by these doctrines, which are old and commonplace, than by the vigor with which he dogmatizes upon them; the certainty with which he speaks of such high matters; the fervor, and sometimes the eloquence, with which, touching on the deepest and most secret chords of the heart's desire, he strikes out the notes of courage, of hope and vision, and of the foretasted triumph. The energy of his own faith carries others along with it; the manliness of his own soul infects others with its cheer and its delight in the struggle of spiritual life on earth; and all this the more because he is learned in the wisdom of the Rabbis, is conversant with modern life and knowledge in all its range, is gifted with intellectual genius, and yet displays a faith the more robust because it is not cloistered, the more credible because it is not professional.

The character of Browning's genius, his individual traits, the general substance of his thought, do not admit of material misconception. It is when the question is raised upon the permanent value of his work that the opportuuity for wide divergence arises. That there are dreary wastes in it cannot be gainsaid. Much is now unreadable that was excused in a contemporary book; much never was readable at all; and of the remainder how much will the next age in its turn cast aside? Its serious claim to our attention on ethical, religious, or intellectual grounds may be admitted, without pledging the twentieth century, which will have its own special phases of thought, and thinkers to illustrate them. Browning must live, as the other immortals do, by the poetry in him. It is true he has enlarged the field of poetry by annexing the experience that belongs to the artist and the musician, and has made some of his finest and most original poems out of such motives; and his wide knowledge has served him in other ways, though it has stiffened many a page with pedantry and antiquarianism. It is true that there is a grotesque quality in some of his work, but his humor in this kind is really a pretence: no one laughs at it; it arouses only an amazed wonder, like the stone masks of some mediæval church. In all that he derived from learning and scholarship there is the alloy of mortality; in all his moralizing and special pleading and superfine reasoning there enters the chance that the world may lose interest in his treatment of the subject; in all except where he sings from the heart itself or pictures life directly and without comment save of the briefest, there is some opportunity for time to breed decay. The faith he preached was the poetical complement of Carlyle's prose, and proceeded from much the same grounds and by the same steps: believe in God, and act like a man—that was the substance of it. But Carlyle himself already grows old and harsh. The class of mind to which Browning belongs depends on its matter for its life; unless he has transformed it into poetry, time will deal hardly with it.

To come to the question which cannot be honestly set aside, although it is no longer profitable to discuss it, Browning has not cared for that poetic form which bestows perennial charm, or else he was incapable of it. He fails in beauty, in concentration of interest, in economy of language, in selection of the best from the common treasure of experience. In those works where he has been most indifferent, as in the "Red Cotton Nightcap Country," he has been merely whimsical and dull; in those works where the genius he possessed is most felt, as in "Saul," "A Toccata of Galuppi's," "Rabbi Ben Ezra," "The Flight of the Duchess," "The Bishop Orders his Tomb in St. Praxed's Church," "Hervé Riel," "Cavalier Tunes," "Time's Revenges," and many more, he achieves beauty or nobility or fitness of phrase such as only a poet is capable of. It is in these last pieces and their like that his fame lies for the future. It was his lot to be strong as the thinker, the moralist with "the accomplishment of verse," the scholar interested to rebuild the past of experience, the teacher with an explicit dogma to enforce in an intellectual form with examples from life, the anatomist of human passions, instincts, and impulses in all their gamut, the commentator on his own age; he was weak as the artist, and indulged, often unnecessarily and by choice, in the repulsive form—in the awkward, the obscure, the ugly. He belongs with Jonson, with Dryden, with the heirs of the masculine intellect, the men of power not unvisited by grace, but in whom mind is predominant. Upon the work of such poets time hesitates, conscious of their mental greatness, but also of their imperfect art, their heterogeneous matter; at last the good is sifted from that whence worth has departed.

THE BRAZILIAN REVOLUTION.

TIJUCA (Rio de Janeiro), Nov. 22, 1889.

IT cannot be said that the advent of the Republic in Brazil was entirely unlooked for. It was only through the sagacity of old King Dom João VI.—who, on returning from his American colony to his native kingdom, is said to have advised his son, Dom Pedro, whom he left as Regent, to seize the crown himself, else it would fall into other hands or the country would become a republic—that the more popular form of government was not established in Brazil as it was in the emancipated Spanish colonies. But the new Emperor, Dom Pedro I., was so anxious to appear to be in consonance with the ideas prevailng about him that, when he dissolved the first Constitutional Convention of Brazil, he granted it a most liberal constitutional *charta*, abolishing hereditary aristocracy and privileges, creating a strong legislature, and in short assuring the Brazilians all the liberties and immunities of free citizens. Dom Pedro, however, soon began to lean too much to the reactionary Portuguese party, and the restless natives wound up their opposition by obliging him to abdicate in 1831 in favor of the second and last Emperor, of whose recent dethronement the telegraph must already have given you some news, which I now supplement by mail.

Dom Pedro II. was a liberal monarch, and, during his reign of fifty years, not only has democratic government gained ground, but one of the greatest reforms on behalf of human freedom has taken place in his country, owing mainly to his own enlightened and well-directed initiative. In 1834 the provinces were granted their own legislatures, and empowered to attend to nearly all local matters, though in practice all really important matters continued to be controlled by the central power in this capital. In 1871 Brazil declared that all children born thenceforth of slave mothers were free; and finally, in 1888, on May 13, a law was passed extinguishing slavery in Brazil altogether. These two last laws were countersigned by D. Isabel, the Princess Imperial, who, both times, happened to fill her father's place during his absence in Europe.

Now, whether the Emperor and his daughter, seeing the signs of the times, and convinced that the only monarchy possible in America was a most liberal, semi-republican one, promoted these reforms by assuming a virtue that was not theirs by instinct and education, or, as we are obliged to presume, they were really and sincerely liberal, it must have been apparent to them that every step they made towards pure democracy brought the country nearer and nearer to the Republic. Whenever the fictions of constitutional monarchy are destroyed, the republican forms will take their place. Hence, the idea of the Republic, though, till a short time ago, it had not been promulgated by any strong party, ran in the mind of everybody in Brazil. It was the firm, though latent, thought of every Brazilian of education that, if D. Isabel should ascend the throne at all, she would run great risk of being ejected from it at the first opportune crisis. Not only was she not so highly esteemed as her father, but her husband, the French Prince, Count d'Eu (a grandson of Louis Philippe), was by no means popular, though it is generally admitted that he has always behaved correctly, in public as well as in private life. Besides, D. Isabel, by signing the glorious law of complete emancipation, which is one of the greatest honors that any man or woman might aspire to, incurred the unmixed hatred of the slave-owners—and these slave-owners formed the most influential class in Brazil by reason of their social and political position as well as of their wealth.

But in spite of all these causes which led every thinking man to feel the first symptoms of the Republic, its advent last week was a stupendous surprise, both to the Brazilians generally and to the whole world. The old Emperor, infirm, and absent in his summer residence at Petropolis, was getting ready to open the annual session of his new Parliament, which had just been elected. It was thought that he might soon undertake another trip abroad. His ministers appeared strong; they certainly had managed to admit, in a Chamber of 130, only five or six Deputies in opposition. When, therefore, on the clear sky of November 15 the bolt of the Republic fell in Rio de Janeiro, the whole world was amazed at it, for even the Brazilians did not think that the storm would burst before the Emperor's death.

The immediate causes which brought the whirlwind are very plain. For some time the army and navy were—rightly or wrongly, it is for the Brazilian historian to say—rather insubordinate, and altogether disgusted with the civil power, whose concessions to them only seemed to excite in them a stronger yearning for recognition and influence. The Emperor, upon the formation of his last ministry, five months ago, had insisted upon giving the two military seats of the Cabinet to two military men, a general (who now turns out to have betrayed his colleagues) and a rear-admiral. Even then the military people got enraged at the ministerial policy of putting down the military power and bringing it well in subjection. In pursuing that legitimate purpose, the Ministers, indeed, had shown an absolute lack of tact, and irritated needlessly the army, and even persecuted ostentatiously some officers of both arms of the service. And it was when they thought that one of their spites, which led them to order one of the battalions to a distant province, was about to be carried out, and the Government had taken the material steps to force the battalion to march, that their very officers and soldiers gathered in one of the Rio squares, opposite the headquarters of the War Ministry, themselves revolted, held the whole Ministry in prison, in that department, and then, under the guidance of Marshal Deodoro (a brave and ambitious, but otherwise very common, man), and, reinforced by the Republicans and youth of the Brazilian capital, paraded the streets proclaiming the Republic. Even the

police force joined the sedition; nay, the naval battalion itself, which had been landed by the Naval Secretary, and the police force of a neighboring town, all deserted the Government. When the Emperor came down in the afternoon and tried to form a new cabinet, Deodoro had already organized a new, provisional Government. That was on Friday, the 15th. On Saturday the Emperor was held, incommunicable, in the city palace, with all his family; and late at night, or rather early on Sunday, he was leaving Brazil, exiled and deposed. On Monday the new self-made ministers were received at the departments without the least hindrance; the form of government of the vast empire had been changed, and the change had been acknowledged everywhere as legitimate and *de facto*.

But while the Republic in Brazil is due mainly to the sword (and here is one of its weakest points), it must be allowed that the military element alone would have accomplished nothing durable were it not for the aid from the Republicans themselves. These were powerless to establish any government, while the military alone could, at most, force the Emperor to change his ministry, and perhaps send him away to Europe; but neither of them separately could expect to lay the foundation of any firm government which would be recognized throughout the country and inspire the least degree of confidence. The truer patriots regret this birth-mark of a *pronunciamiento* in the Brazilian Republic; but it was unavoidable.

The great mass of the people (I believe I interpret their feelings faithfully) regret that the new Government should not have been established at the Emperor's death. They think it brutal that the poor old man, after half-a-century of honest hard work, should be thus packed off. The dictators, to be sure, provided him handsomely with $2,500,000, and assured him the continuance of his civil list, amounting to about $450,000 a year; but the blow given to his pride must have been as awful as it was rude. The Republicans, however, will say that, having defended a cause which they think vital to the happiness of their country, and an opportunity being open to them to lead that cause to a speedy, bloodless, and in every respect peaceful triumph, it would be absurdly illogical to expect that they should let that opportunity escape for the sake of the personal feelings of one man or one family, whoever they might be. On the other hand, the Brazilians who, in the first two or three days, did not offer any resistance, because they were simply overpowered by the suddenness of the change and by the terror that the military inspired, came at once to the conviction that, inasmuch as the Republic was to come some time or other, it was just as well that it had come, and that it immediately solved, without their aid, the great problem of the future which filled them with so much anxiety.

And yet it must be admitted that anxiety for the Brazilians is but begun. To destroy the Empire without civil war might have been a rather thorny task; but to construct a new government is a matter of almost overwhelming difficulty. To be republican is easy: the problem is, What kind of republic shall be constructed? The country is now virtually under a military dictatorship. The provinces, twenty in number, are now States of the "United States of Brazil," and either a military man or some heretofore entirely unknown Republican presides over each, assuming the new title of "Governor," as in the United States of America. While every class of people in the country is making up its mind to adhere to the Republic, it will take some time before things are settled enough so that the election for the Constituent Congress may be held. In the meantime the Brazilians for the first time in their history are under a dictatorship, though a dictatorship which claims to be a trustee of liberty for and on behalf of the people. The Government, while reserving to themselves all political freedom, and having begun to use it by abolishing the life character of the Senate, by dismissing the Council of State (a consulting body of twenty-four statesmen), and by abolishing the local parliaments—the Government, I say, have promised to respect the present civil, commercial, and criminal laws, as well as all contracts and obligations entered into by the Empire, including the public debt, home and foreign, which was quite important to people abroad, inasmuch as but five weeks before the revolution Brazil issued through the Rothschilds $100,000,000 of 4 per cent. bonds, at 90, with an annual sinking fund of half of one per cent., in order to redeem the 5 per cent. bonds of previous loans.

It is as yet too soon to forecast what will be the leading character of the Constituent Assembly, as people have been taken by surprise, and, indeed, have not any accurate idea of their new responsibility. If the election should be really free and unlike the last one for Deputies, we shall have an Assembly composed of the most conflicting ideas, inasmuch as Brazilians know nothing of what a true republic is. There will be, of course, the very conservative element, that will endeavor all it can to give great power to the President; there will also be the French-radical element that will not bear even the mention of a Senate in the new Magna Charta. It is impossible to say what will come out of it. Had these questions been thoroughly studied already, and could one have foreseen which way the greatest weight of opinion would turn, the new decree of the dictators, granting the franchise to every male citizen enjoying civil rights, twenty-one years of age and knowing how to read and write, would itself change any forecast that it might have been possible to make.

However, if the intention of the promoters of the revolution shall prevail, we shall have a constitution modelled much more after the American fashion than the French, though but little is known here of the first. In the three or four acts of the new Government dealing with these matters, the tendency to imitate the United States is not very successful. For instance, why prescribe in a sweeping manner the right of suffrage, a matter which should be controlled by the future States? We should have preferred to have the decree apply only to the election of the Constituent Assembly, and let that body decide the matter. Then, it is most difficult to apply practically the literary or educational test, as Mr. Bryce says he observed in Massachusetts. In my opinion, it is a mistake of the new Government to legislate any more than is strictly necessary; they should confine themselves to carrying the country in peace up to the inauguration of the definitive Government.

Another mistake has been made—and that perhaps irreparable—in ordering twenty-one stars to be inserted in the new flag (which will be like the old one, with substitution of a blue celestial sphere with twenty-one stars for the imperial arms). We are told that they are typical of the twenty provinces and of the Federal District of the capital. Now, the capital will in all probability continue to be Rio de Janeiro, and if so much prominence, of a quasi-State character, is to be given to Rio, there will be no end of trouble to the Republic. The provinces may not incur danger from militarism, but not so the Federal capital, where, of course, most of the officers will wish to be kept. Then, again, your Boss Shepherd, your Tweed Ring, your Philadelphia Gas Ring, are nothing to compare with the municipality of Rio de Janeiro, though the latter has been somewhat checked by the general Government. What will it be, then, when these twenty-one *vereadores*, with divided responsibility, enjoy the semi-independence that the extra star seems to imply?

Then, again, while the new men have abolished the oath, as prerequisite to taking office, they have ordered a fresh division of the religious parishes. Of course, the Constitutional Convention may upset all this; but it would have been just as well to commence right.

I should like to mention here the opinion of the press about the situation, but I cannot. The *Jornal do Commercio*, the oldest and most influential organ, has said nothing. The *Paix* and the *Diario de Noticias*, whose editors were among the promoters of the revolution and are in the new Ministry, confine themselves to hosannahs of no account. The other important sheet, the *Gazeta de Noticias*, has not said a word about the future Government. The fact is, that people are afraid to pledge themselves to anything. Thus, what the papers are full of is of *adhesões*—that is to say, notices of such and such men having accepted what is really the inevitable. Almost everybody, indeed, adheres to the Republic; for even the greatest and most enthusiastic friends of the Empire and the Emperor are well aware that the Republic has come to stay. In that respect we shall be well off: there is no room here for Legitimists or Orléanists or Bonapartists or Bragantines, except in a platonic and harmless way.

Of course, there are no parties now. What will be the tendency of the new ones to be formed it is difficult to say. Your States were already formed when they entered into the compact of the Confederation, and thence the Republicans and Federalists grew up from the first day on which their representatives met to discuss the nature of that compact—one party pulling inwards, so to say, and the other pushing outwards. But we have no real States here, each with its special development: we have been a highly centralized State, in spite of fine laws on paper. There are three or four provinces where local pride is great, but even they are accustomed to look to Rio de Janeiro for everything. In my opinion, the apple of discord will be offered by the proper division of power between the executive and the legislature. But let us wait and see. J. C. R.

THE FRENCH ÉMIGRÉS AT COBLENTZ.

PARIS, November 28, 1889.

THE history of the French emigration after 1789 has not yet been written. The times are still near us, though a hundred years have elapsed; the passions of 1789 and 1793 are still alive, and France is not yet quite impartial with regard to the actors in her great Revolution. It was said of the émigrés in 1814, at the time of the Restoration, that they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing. We have still much to learn, and much to forgive if not to forget.

M. Alphonse Daudet, the author of so many novels which have been universally read, has a brother named Ernest Daudet, who has devoted himself to the study of history and to journalism. In their childhood the two brothers heard

many stories about the emigration from members of their family, who were strong Royalists. (In the 'Rois en Exil' Alphonse Daudet has painted a royalist type which could only have been taken from nature.) Their great-uncle, an Abbé Reynaud, had emigrated to England; another uncle had gone to Russia; another member of the family had been killed in Nîmes during the Revolution. One of his aunts had conspired in the South. This subject of the emigration drew the attention of Ernest Daudet a few years ago, and he began researches in our archives, especially at the Foreign Office, where the papers of Louis XVIII., brought back in 1814, are kept. The Russian Government generously sent him copies of the papers of the émigrés, the correspondence of Louis XVIII. and the princes of his family with Paul I. and his successor, Alexander, the documents concerning the journeys of Dumouriez to St. Petersburg, the missions of Saint-Priest and D'Avaray; the correspondence of Cossé-Brissac, Viscount Caraman, the agents of the King, etc. Other documents were sent to him from Germany, Denmark, Sweden.

Three volumes of this 'History of the Emigration' have now appeared under these titles: 'The Bourbons and Russia during the French Revolution,' 'The Émigrés and the Second Coalition' (1797–1800), 'Coblentz' (1789–1793). This volume of 'Coblentz,' which is the third, is chronologically the first, and it ought to have appeared before the others. The inedited documents which have been chiefly used for this first episode of the emigration are the papers of Marshal de Castries, of Marquis de Larouzière, of the Duc d'Harcourt, and a copy of the letters of M. de Calonne.

In the month of July, 1789, Count Valentin Esterhazy was commander of Valenciennes. He had made his military career in France, and was a favorite of Queen Marie Antoinette. On the 18th of July he received the Comte d'Artois, the brother of the King; the three Princes of Condé followed in a second carriage—Condé, the head of the family, the Duc de Bourbon, his son, the Duc d'Enghien, his grandson. They were fleeing, with a few friends, before the Revolution. Many others followed. On this first list of the émigrés we find the greatest names of France. "We shall be back in three months," said cheerfully the Comte d'Artois to Esterhazy. They did not believe in the vitality of the Revolution; it was a mere storm, and they took shelter for a while in foreign lands. The two sons of the Comte d'Artois, the Duc d'Angoulême and the Duc de Berry, arrived soon after their father. The Comte d'Artois, after some hesitation, went to Brussels. In the south many French families took refuge in Chambéry and in Nice. All over France, the peasants had begun a sort of agrarian war; they ceased to pay their rents, and burned the châteaux. Taine has insisted upon this point, that the Revolutionary disorders became almost universal, and began spontaneously, in 1789, as soon as the Versailles Assembly had organized itself and had begun its constitutional work.

In October there was a new flood of emigration after the King and Queen had been dragged by force from Versailles to Paris and had virtually become prisoners. As soon as the Emperor of Austria heard of the arrival of the Comte d'Artois in Brussels, he wrote to his sister, the Archduchess, who was Governess of the Low Countries, that he would not tolerate the presence of the French princes in Brussels. The Prince left for Turin, where lived his father-in-law, Victor Amadeus of Savoy. He was allowed to remain there, and was joined by his family, by the Condés, and many courtiers.

What were the projects of the Princes? They wished to form a legion of noblemen and of volunteers, and to reconquer France, as Henri IV. had done. Had not Voltaire said of Henri IV., at the beginning of a famous poem—

"Je chante ce héros qui régna sur la France
Et par droit de conquête et par droit de naissance"?

Had not the great Condé, Turenne, and many others, allied themselves with Spain against Mazarin? The idea of a civil war did not appear monstrous in the eyes of the émigrés: it seemed natural to reconquer, sword in hand, what they considered as their rights. Louis XIV. had treated the English émigrés with the greatest generosity, and had helped them in every way. But the times were changed; the French émigrés counted upon the support of all the kings, but they soon found that all the kings and emperors had interests of their own, that they all desired a diminution of the strength of France; they were only roused to a common resistance after they had all suffered in turn and felt the weight of the Napoleonic despotism.

The kings had an easy excuse for doing as little as possible for the émigrés, as the official language of the French diplomats was completely at variance with their language. As long as Louis XVI. was still nominally King, they were not obliged to believe what the Princes said. They really never knew exactly if the King and the Princes were or were not secretly in unison, in what they differed or in what they agreed. The negotiations of the Comte d'Artois with the various courts were always of the most confused character. The émigrés themselves were divided and quarrelled incessantly; they lived in a cloud of false rumors. Condé seems to have had the clearest ideas; he had an equal antipathy for the republicans and for the monarchists like La-Fayette, Mirabeau, Tollendal, Mounier, of those who tried to preserve the life of the King if they could not preserve his authority. "I will," said he in his manifesto, "notwithstanding the horror which a descendant of Saint Louis must feel in shedding French blood—I will go at the head of the nobility of all nations and followed by all the faithful subjects of the kings, and try to deliver our unfortunate monarch." Upon which Esterhazy said: "I am afraid the Prince of Condé is not as adroit as William Tell: he will strike the head without hitting the apple."

Sybel says that the Queen had little sympathy with the émigrés: she did not believe in them; she did not wish to triumph through their efforts—first, because she did not believe in the possibility of reëstablishing the ancient régime, of which they proclaimed themselves the champions; and, secondly, because their triumph would have been in reality the annihilation of the King. At any rate, she thought that an open alliance with the emigration would put an end to all chance of a monarchical restoration. What she wished was to go with the King to La Vendée, to the South or to the East of France, and to call for the help of the Emperor Leopold, who was the successor of Joseph II. But Leopold remained indifferent; he contented himself with advising his sister to leave Paris. She was a prisoner, surrounded with spies and with enemies. Meanwhile Calonne, in Turin, was becoming the real leader of the emigration. He was trying to form a coalition. Louis XVI. was afraid of his influence and set against him Breteuil, who entered into relations with Fersen, Mercy, and Bouillé. Their plan was a flight of the King and the royal family to Metz. The Comte d'Artois had begun to sign papers with these words: "Considering the captivity of my brother," and to treat directly with the sovereigns. Condé had left Turin in disgust and was organizing a legion in Germany. The National Assembly threatened to send troops into the electorates in order to compel the German Princes, who had possessions in Alsace, to accept its decrees. Condé reviewed, on the plain of Neuwied, three thousand émigrés, who remained in the neighborhood of Worms.

On May 6, 1791, after the death of Mirabeau, Marie Antoinette wrote to Mercy: "You know that my opinion has been, as much as possible, that we could be helped only by time, mildness, public opinion. Now all is changed. Either we must perish or do the only thing that remains for us." She meant flight; she knew that flight was dangerous, perhaps impossible. Her friends worked in vain, and when the royal family went to Varennes it was arrested and brought back to Paris. From that moment the Comte de Provence, the eldest brother of the King, joined the Comte d'Artois; they decided to take no account of the official orders of the prisoner King. They organized together at Coblentz a little army independent of the army of Condé, which remained at Worms.

The Comte d'Artois sent Esterhazy to St. Petersburg, where he was favorably received. At Pillnitz the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia made a declaration favorable to the French royalists. Catherine had gone so far as to send two millions to the Princes, but she wrote at the same time that circumstances "did not allow her to enter actively into the affairs of France." She promised, however, "d'être de la partie" in the following spring. Meanwhile the Revolutionary Assembly pronounced punishment of death against all the émigrés (in the Report their number was estimated at 200,000), their wives, their children, "if they are more than ten years old," their debtors if they acquitted their debts. Their property was confiscated.

The military émigrés were at Coblentz, Mayence, Worms; there were many poor artisans and civilians in Soleure and Fribourg in Switzerland. Emigration was for some a fashion, for others a hard necessity. Misery was in waiting for all. A Princess de Vaudemont, born Montmorency, and widow of a Prince of Lorraine, sold books in Hamburg under an assumed name. The memoirs of Gouverneur Morris give many interesting details about the refugees at Hamburg. Chateaubriand, in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe,' gives the details of his life with the army of Condé, and afterwards in England. The emigration had at first its heroic phase, the period during which Condé and others thought that they could reconquer by force what they had lost. Then came the period of conspiracy, and finally came the period of total annihilation, when the greater number of the émigrés returned to France, and when so many became the courtiers, the officers, the servants of Napoleon and his family.

M. Ernest Daudet, in this volume on Coblentz, speaks only of the heroic period. He has not had at his command the correspondence of Condé and of his officers, which is still unpublished, and will probably remain so for a long time. He deals more with the Comte d'Artois, and enters minutely into the confused details of his vain negotiations with the courts. There are many interesting facts in the history of the relations of the émigrés with the Electors, with the King of Prussia, Francis II., and Brunswick. Condé was finally obliged to dismiss his troops, and many of his soldiers passed into the

Austrian service. The invasion of the Electorates by Custine threw the camp of the émigrés into the greatest confusion; the French Princes had to take refuge first at Liége, then at Hamburg. After the execution of Louis XVI., Monsieur (such was the name given to the Comte de Provence) proclaimed himself Regent of France, and made declarations which were not much noticed at the time in the great confusion created by the war. He proclaimed the young Dauphin, who was still alive and in the prisons of the Convention, King of France; and though he had not a regiment, nor any financial resource, and was respectfully ignored by the potentates of Europe, he announced his determination to stand by his historical rights, and flung, so to speak, the gauntlet before the Revolution.

The events which filled this terrible period give M. Ernest Daudet's book an intrinsic interest, which, unfortunately, has not been enhanced by a brilliant style nor a good classification of facts, nor a clear and dispassionate judgment of men.

Correspondence.

RACE PREJUDICE IN KANSAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 5, commenting on race prejudice, you refer to "the recent election in Lawrence, Kan., at which seven out of eight white Republicans refused to vote for the excellent party candidate for County Clerk, merely because he was a colored man." The colored vote of Lawrence is too large to be offended by any party that aims to elect its candidates, and, in fact, the Republican party has always dealt liberally with the colored man in our local politics. At the recent election no colored man was a candidate for County Clerk or any other office, and consequently the above alleged "knifing" of a colored candidate is fictitious, or should, perhaps, have been attributed to some one of the several other Lawrences in the United States.

W. H. Carruth.

State University, Lawrence, Dec. 12, 1889.

[Read Topeka, in place of Lawrence; a slip of the pen.—Ed. Nation.]

POPE AND PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Possibly I can supply "Natus" with a reason why, at the recent Catholic University banquet at Washington, the health of the Pope was drunk before that of the President. At the annual dinners of the Society of Sons of St. George at Philadelphia, the toast to the Queen always precedes that to the President. Some years ago I asked one of the managers of the feast why that order was observed, and he explained that, the British sovereign being a foreigner, it was thought to be no more than a fitting exercise of conventional courtesy towards the stranger to salute the foreign before the domestic ruler. Very likely the same consideration prevailed at the Catholic banquet, and I presume it was for a like reason that the foreign guest, Cardinal Taschereau, was placed to the right of the Chairman, and our own fellow-citizen, President Harrison, seated on the left.

Subject to correction by such argument as "Natus" may supply, I confess my belief that both practices to which I have alluded are, or were, right, according to the canons of good behavior in social matters. C. F. B.

Washington, December 13, 1889.

PETRARCH AND VOLTAIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reviewer of Ten Brink's History of English Literature, in his appreciative and able criticism, says, among other things: "Ten Brink's parallel between Petrarch and Voltaire (p. 53) is as bold as it is novel to us, but we are not at all disposed to cavil at it." I hope I shall not seem to be detracting from the honor of the illustrious author, in admiration of whom I would not confess myself second to your reviewer, if I point out that the idea of instituting a parallel between these two geniuses is not original with Ten Brink. Five years ago Prof. Gustav Koerting, a distinguished Romance scholar, published a volume entitled 'Die Anfänge der Renaissancelitteratur in Italien,' on pp. 418–423 of which an extended comparison between the two occurs, accompanied with the suggestion, in a footnote, that some one should undertake a more detailed treatment of the subject. It would not be difficult to discover striking similarities in the estimates formed by these two modern historians of literature. Koerting speaks of certain differences "zwischen dem Begründer der Renaissancecultur und dem Hauptvertreter der sogenannten Aufklärungsperiode"; Ten Brink calls Petrarch "der Prophet des Humanismus, wie jener der Prophet der Humanität und der Aufklärung." Koerting says: "Selbstverherrlichung war für beide das erste und letzte Ziel alles ihres Strebens"; Ten Brink expresses the same thought, which, indeed, is obvious enough, with a difference: "Beide zeigen die Sensibilität und die Eitelkeit in gleichem Masse entwickelt." With respect to the contemporary and posthumous honors showered upon them, Koerting has these words: "Der Eine wie der Andere ist im Leben schon der Apotheose theilhaftig geworden und nach dem Tode Gegenstand begeisterter Verehrung geblieben"; Ten Brink's thought is not dissimilar: "Beiden wird schon in ihrem Leben die höchste Anerkennung zu Theil: eine bis zur Apotheose gehende Verehrung und—das theuerste Ziel ihres Strebens—der Lorbeerkranz." With the latter part of this sentence of Ten Brink's might be compared the following from Koerting: "Beide träumten ehrgeizige Träume von Lorbeerkronen, . . . und beiden wurde oft genug der Traum zur Wirklichkeit."

But I should be sorry to leave the impression that one parallel is a mere echo of the other. They differ greatly in length, Ten Brink's being much more concise. Ten Brink's characterization is more delicate, minute, and extended, while Koerting apparently has the merit of originating the comparison, unless, indeed, he in turn derived the idea from Lowell's essay on Rousseau and the Sentimentalists, in the first volume of 'Among My Books.' Lowell's comparison, it is true, is rather between Petrarch and Rousseau; but there is a suggestive likeness between certain parts of his judgment of Petrarch and the antithetically expressed opinions on p. 422 of Koerting's book. Albert S. Cook.

Yale University.

THE ANGELUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos to your note on the Angelus in the *Nation* of December 5, 1889, permit me to quote the following from Larousse (ed. 1866), vol. i., p. 359:

"On croit que ce fut Louis XI. qui introduisit à Paris l'usage du triple son de l'angelus, dont quelques érudits font remonter la première origine au pape Urbain II. [died 1099]."

I subjoin a bit from Lamartine that seems to me to have suggested Millet's picture:

"C'est *l'angelus* qui tinte et rappelle en tout lieu
Que le matin des jours et le soir sont à Dieu.
A ce pieux appel le laboureur s'arrête.
Il se tourne au clocher—il découvre sa tête,
Joint ses robustes mains d'où tombe l'aiguillon,
Elève un peu son âme au dessus du sillon."

Yours truly,

W. H. Garrison.

Philadelphia, December 6, 1889.

SQUATTER HARDSHIPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the proper means of diminishing the Treasury surplus has been causing so much trouble in both of the great parties, it has often occurred to me that a portion of this surplus, and a goodly amount at that, might well be applied to a more rapid completion of the various inland surveys. Without mentioning the many and excellent general reasons for completing all our surveys, I will refer to some particular ones that are applicable to the surveys of our frontier agricultural lands. People generally can have no idea how rapidly the good surveyed land has been "taken up" in the West. In Oregon and Washington there are to-day practically no desirable surveyed lands not occupied; and for several years immigrants have been obliged to seek homes in the unsurveyed country if they wished to find really good places.

The necessity of settling on unsurveyed land or holding land by squatter's right involves many injustices and risks to the farmer, which tend to keep any such community in a continuous uproar. This is brought to my mind to-day particularly by the marked article in the *Okanogan Outlook*, which accompanies this letter. To your average reader this article would not be very intelligible, so I will mention a few of the causes of dissatisfaction that all bona-fide squatters are subjected to.

The settler who goes away from the settlements and beyond the survey does so under many privations, and only because he hopes to secure a fertile homestead. When he has selected his claim, he cannot obtain a title to it till after it has been surveyed; and, instead of feeling secure of his possession after a five years' residence, he is obliged to remain there uninterruptedly, year after year, to hold it, by force frequently and never securely, till the survey has been made. I know many instances where a residence of twenty years would go for nothing if the squatter were to absent himself for six months; and, in case of a solitary squatter's dying, there is no adequate way to protect his heirs in their rightful inheritance. Often, and I may say generally, the claim-jumpers, who form a regular class in the wild country, band together to annoy the squatters by themselves squatting on his land until their demands for blackmail are satisfied, or until they are got rid of at the risk of the rightful occupant's life. This is possible, as apparently there is no court that has jurisdiction over unsurveyed lands. Another instance is where prospectors lay claims to land occupied only for farming, by filing one kind or another of mineral claim with the county (or mineral) recorder. No land, unless surveyed and properly filed upon at the Land Office, is secure from such depredation, as the mineral prospector has by law means of overriding the farmer and securing title to land by special survey.

A third and most universal complaint is that land which has been staked out by the squatter and improved, perhaps for years, *never* coincides with the lines of the actual survey; so that half of a squatter's improved claim may

be lost to him for the benefit of the first comer, while the original occupant must complete his acreage by taking land on either side which is often devoid of value. A little thought will enable any one to see many other hardships that are sure to be incurred by the squatter before he has secured his patent from the Government; and I can say from observation and experience that this deplorable condition exists in all unsurveyed lands that are fit for habitation.

To accomplish the necessary surveys would require a large expenditure; but such expenditure would not be simply a means of dissipating our "surplus," as has been objected to so many schemes that have been proposed for the reduction of the surplus. On the contrary, it is a matter of justice, and of necessity, that exists independent of our financial ability to accomplish, and is an undertaking which, if carried out with a care not to survey the useless and barren tracts, would be an unmixed good to the country at large. This work must be done before many years, and, if done now, will cost the Treasury no more than it would if done later; while it would be a paying investment for the intermediate period, as well as an act of justice to the frontier farmer.

To appeal to the practical politician, I might dwell upon the opportunities which such an expenditure would afford for the distribution of patronage and division of spoils. In making such an innuendo I strengthen my position by showing a benefit to accrue to the good and the bad, as, like the sun, it would shine for all.

GUY WARING.

BOSTON, MASS., December 11, 1889.

A NEW VOCATION FOR PEERS OF THE REALM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The belted earl having ceased to be the leader of men in battle, and having vacated his position in the House of Lords as a factor in legislation, appears to be seeking new functions in which to distinguish himself. He is now engaged in promoting the investment of English capital in American securities, and has lately taken up the business of making and selling *pills*, *yeast powders*, and *safe medicines*. It is possible that he may not lead more people to mutual slaughter than he did in the olden times; but it is rather an extraordinary fact, a little out of the common course, to find the Earl of Crawford in the position of Chairman of the Board of Directors for "taking over," as they call it in England, the business of making and vending proprietary medicines in this country. He probably goes into this business in order to sustain a position in which he has become more ornamental than useful. Reference may be made to the full-page advertisement of a corporation of limited liability, with a capital of £550,000, which will be found on the last page of the last number of the *Economist* printed in London. How much English capital will come to the United States in compensation for this undertaking, one may not be able to compute, but one may be very sure that most of it, whatever the amount may be, will come to stay.

In olden times they called the man engaged in commerce a *merchant adventurer*. By what title ought the Earl to be greeted who ventures to induce his fellow-countrymen to adventure their capital into an undertaking in which the profit is in ratio to the amount spent on advertising the product rather than on the quality of the ingredients which are put into it? The slang term for an advertisement is an "ad." If we should add an "ad." to the title of him who ventures upon such a scheme, we find that we have fitted the title of *adventurer* upon one who is not a merchant; and the modern significance of this word corresponds to what they call in France a *chevalier d'industrie*—a noble title put to a base service. What other title would suit this case? QUERIST.

TWO FORMS OF THE "AUSTRALIAN" BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All the recent election laws have commonly been called "Australian." I wish to draw attention to the fact that the Ballot Acts, in regard to the arrangement of the names on the ballot, may be divided into two groups.

In the first group are the acts of Massachusetts, Montana, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Wisconsin (the generel election law), Tennessee, and Kentucky. These follow the Australian, English, and Canadian system, in which the names of all candidates nominated for an office are placed together in alphabetical order.

In the second group are the acts of Indiana and Missouri, following the Belgian system, in which the names of the candidates nominated by a party are placed together, arranged respectively under the title of the office for which they have been nominated, Independent candidates being placed in a separate column.

The first system is fair to all. The second is in the interest of strict party voting.

M. WYMAN, JR.

CAMBRIDGE, December 12, 1889.

THE ABANDONED FARMS OF MICHIGAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While attention is directed to the "abandoned farms" of New England, it will be well to put in a bit of concurrent testimony from as far west as Michigan. Our last State census was taken in 1884, and shows that in the four years after 1880 fourteen counties actually lost population. In four other counties a single railroad centre in each county gained in population more than the county—in other words, these four counties would have lost population but for one growing city in each.

The special cause in this case was the attractiveness of Dakota, which was just then filling up rapidly with homesteaders. No future census is likely to tell a similar story. There are no more Dakotas left for homestead entry.

E. W. MILLER.

BIG RAPIDS, MICH., December 10, 1889.

THE REVIVAL OF AGRICULTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some time in September, I think, you called attention to the published statements, from the Commissioners of Agriculture for the States of Vermont and New Hampshire, concerning abandoned farms. In the first-named State about 30,000 acres were specified, generally with "fair" or "good" buildings and good soil, at an average price under $5 an acre. The New Hampshire catalogue itemized 233 farms, 26,871 acres, at an *asking* price of $291,875, or an average per acre of $10.86. A very interesting correspondence has followed in your columns, advancing reasons for the decay of farm values in New England, and suggesting remedies. Your journal, during the discussion, has shown editorially and in its correspondence some conspicuous instances of like disease common in Massachusetts. Throughout New England good farms, with comfortable buildings and productive soil, for sale under $10 per acre, are not exceptions in the real-estate market, but the rule, or, at least, common. In this State, New York, from my personal knowledge, in the Hudson River counties of Orange, Dutchess, Ulster, and Rockland—certainly a section of some agricultural renown, and with all facilities to which farming looks for success—the facts are not very much better: a 50 per cent. decline at least in prices during the twenty years of my experience. Indeed, I believe that the average farm here can be bought for $30 per acre. Of course, this is on the agricultural basis only; country places, commanding views, improved grounds, etc., have very different rating. On Orange Lake, a pleasure resort seven miles from Newburgh, a farm of 400 acres was sold within a month at $20 per acre in parcels.

Mr. Joel Benton, writing on "The Decadence of Farming" in the November number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, extends the shrinkage in farm values West to the Mississippi. He reports that in Illinois the mortgage indebtedness of farmers for borrowed money—not on deferred payments of purchase money of their farms—has increased 23 per cent. since 1880; that in the Western States farm mortgages amount to $3,422,000,000, equivalent to a debt of $200 per capita for each person, or $1,000 to each head of a family. So we may go on with testimony, and strengthening the evidence of students with the columns of advertisements in rural papers and from sale reports of foreclosures.

The reasons advanced by the several writers for this widespread and increasing condition of agricultural depression are:

(1.) The competition of machine work on the great, smooth prairie farms (note here, for later consideration, that rich partnerships or incorporated companies are the winning competitors). (2.) The many long lines of transportation, bringing all kinds of agricultural products, each from a specially favored locality, to the great Eastern markets, and so fighting one another for business on their competing extensions that freight for a thousand miles' haul costs no more than what he pays who labors but one hundred miles from the common market. (3.) Direct taxation, whereby the farmer's wholly *visible* estate is mulcted to the extent, actually, of from 2 to 4 per cent. of its *market* value, while the much invisible personalty of his town neighbor escapes. (4.) The tariff, artificially raising the cost of the farmer's necessities—his clothing, food, and tools. (5.) The scarcity of native farm laborers. (6.) That most other fields offer superior inducements to the money-loving, masterful man. (7.) Government bounties of citizenship and almost free lands, and virtually free transportation (by guaranteed bonds to railroads carrying immigrants to the bounty lands) to tramps from Europe—an unnatural and unnational squandering of resources, and the discounting of the inheritance of our children. (8.) The rough topography of the Northeast States, unfavorable to wholesale farming. (9.) The mechanical and uninteresting nature of farm work (as pursued by individual, not associated effort), compared with other industries now tempting the greatest range of tastes and energies by constantly developing novelties.

Such are the principal reasons I read in the authorities cited for the decline of farming. There are as many remedies proposed. But the symptoms are facts, the medicines empiric. The diagnosis made by so many earnest men is instructive and very interesting. I would come into the consultation with some minor observations and suggestions.

(a.) Farming, contrary to the ruling prac-

tice in other businesses, is, in the majority of cases, taken up or inherited without any other capital than that dead in a plant rigorously taxed (see 3 above). "Quick (cash) capital" ("G. B.," page 389 of your No. 1272) is wanting to give momentum, to properly equip, to meet wear, to provide for emergencies, or command improvements as inventions or ever-new markets demand; thus, also, without that æsthetic but essential margin, where business centres in the home, to make the farm attractive even in its business aspect, much less to make its domestic life sweet or comfortable beyond bare necessity. Other businesses providently lay by some art or grace, but this boasts no surplus save nature's alms.

(b.) In farm management there is the absence of well-defined, unremitted, clear business system. The administration and execution which together rule peremptorily in the ordinary town business practice, have but precarious existence, and the money showing (evident as the face of a clock) through all moments of the shopkeeper's, or manufacturer's, or broker's work, is put aside until some urgent call obliges the farmer to learn "the time." Finance is the foundation of business proper. It is but the porch or attic of the farmer's practice.

(c.) The *world* of trade is not studied by the farmer. He knows only the traffic of his market town and his county, and he is slow to "catch on" to the new and progressive. He repeats the accidental lessons of 1861-65, believing that what the exigencies of war-times required, and made profitable to him because of our then national circumscription, is the truth and his policy now. He does not care to hear of tariff reform. "But it is the impending truth—which will some day, and I think very soon, filter into the farmer's mind—that alone can save him."

I think that my (a) above is a principal cause of farm failure. The last half of that finding is an inherent result. In (b), too, are cause and effect almost inseparable. Where so large part of work is executive—bodily labor out of doors—administration and finance can have but small care; (c), also, is, in the very nature of farm life, isolated in comparison with the lot of the city man, where friction on all sides makes sharp and bright the receptive and ratiocinative faculties. The farmer travels the country road worn by heavy, infrequent traffic in certain ruts, out of which he is loath to turn his wheels; but the time comes when he must or be run down.

Our great farming industry—the very soil of national growth—is not going to the "demnition bow-wows." If the tide has long been running out, the time of ebb is near at hand. Organization by a class so widespread and cut off from congregation—as possible by initial masses of city population—is difficult; and diversity of objects—live-stock, wool, cereals, fruits, roots, vegetables, tobacco, etc.—weakens common action. If legislation, national and State, is desirable to *force* a new position—which may well be questioned—the farmers' influence and vote (about 30 per cent. of our population) can secure it by "pooling their issues."

Judge Nott (*Nation*, No. 1273) suggests partial and local relief by stocking large areas of the abandoned farms in Vermont and New Hampshire with "our indigenous animals which can brave the Northern winters, . . . half-bred buffalo, or the deer of the Adirondacks." Held and protected by a ring fence, he believes they would become semi-domesticated, and nearly as prolific as sheep. They would live mostly in the woods, otherwise waste land, and be helped through the winter with scattered stacks of mountain hay. Such husbandry might be profitable. That is a good subprovision. Indeed, deer-raising under similar conduct is now practised in a few instances, though not in New England, but it can only be exceptional—a makeshift. We want to prescribe for the whole body of agriculture.

Let us take it, then, into the line of regular business, as iron, coal, dry goods, shipping, banking, etc.; remove it from desultory practice and individualism, and treat it according to the fashion that the times demand for large affairs. Associated organization by partnerships or corporate companies, with money capital equal at least to the real-estate value, is my theory of cure for the ills of agriculture. On a modern battle-field, what can a thousand badly equipped bushwhackers do in comparison with a company of one hundred well-disciplined and equipped regulars? In the skilled commercial economy of the United States, how awkward and dispersed is the power of agriculture in proportion to its numbers! And why? Because everywhere it lacks concentration, organization, "quick" capital.

Ten (man-)units owning a thousand acres may perhaps work efficiently one hundred, while five men in united management could cultivate five hundred acres. Now, I want the ten hands of the five men and five brains to have but one head executive, and a common purse of ready cash equal in amount to what the five hundred acres, with buildings and tools, would sell for at forced sale. To illustrate in outline what I believe can be done generally in agriculture, and with success, let us suppose a capable syndicate of three to select, say, fifteen hundred of those abandoned acres in Vermont or New Hampshire at, say, $6,000. They should lie in a solid body and comprise about fourteen once separate farms, each having tenantable buildings, "fairly comfortable" and "good soil." It would be very well if five hundred acres stood in woods forty or fifty years old, but it is not probable that such timber has been spared where farms have been worked. Now, the three wise men with money will proceed to spend more than first cost to repair fences and walls, make the buildings tight and comfortable, and put the whole property in fair shape and on equal footing. If well done, it may stand them in at $10,000. Meantime, the three gentlemen, business men and money-makers, but, nevertheless, of benevolent imagination when a little indulgence of such kindly pleasure may not endanger their reputation for success, have agreed to graft an educational branch on their real-estate investment, on a plan which space will not permit me to particularize here, but which looks to the performance of much of their farm labor by young men who would like, on a business basis, to learn the theories as well as the practice of well-ordered farming under conditions of fair social advantages, and of less stolid drudgery than is the rule on the average farm. The inviting business basis is, that every young man matriculated in the School of Agriculture becomes both a laborer on the farm and a stockholder in the company. To capitalize the undertaking is the objective business point of the original syndicate, who exchange their investment for stock in the company, and, the total stock being figured at $———, the balance is put on the market. The president is the business manager and farm superintendent. He and the executive committee of the directors are supposed to be skilled both in agriculture and finance. Besides one resident, technical, general instructor in the academic department, and the president, all other house teaching is by lectures, say three or four for terms of three months each, continuous or dispersed over the year, and paid accordingly, as a lyceum or Young Men's Christian Association hires its lecturers. In this course would be (1) soil culture, cereals, grasses, and drainage; (2) stock-raising and roots; (3) fruits and market gardening; (4) forestry and farm mechanics. These subjects are merely suggested.

All officers, teachers, students, master laborers, and, indeed, all persons connected personally with the farm, are supposed to be stockholders in the company, each to the amount of at least $500. The student's course is three years at, say, $100. Each student must put in two hundred days' labor, eight hours per day, and as assigned at from 50 cents to $1.50, graded according to kind of labor and his ability therein. Students are lodged and boarded in the several farm-houses adapted to such purposes and let to keepers under the farm superintendent's governance, board and lodging being $350 per year. The main house of the company's farm is for lectures and recitations, library, laboratory, society and reading-rooms. The company runs a store, and blacksmith and carpenter shop combined. We may suppose that, with officers, students (50), and other contributing attachés, capital stock might be subscribed to the amount of about $40,000, of which $10,000 would be in the original plant, and perhaps $10,000 more in academic fittings, farm machinery, etc. If the company makes a profit, it will be disbursed up to 5 per cent. in dividends to stockholders, and the surplus go to increased farm investment or to a sinking fund.

Now, in this scheme we have, I think, farm education and practical labor under the organized, concentrated system and discipline of expert business method and object. We have brains, hands, real estate, and "quick" capital sufficient and adjusted to the undertaking. Association will not only supply impetus and means to success, but furnish, by the way, those social and mental bare places of ordinary farm life. No longer may we appositely quote:

> "But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
> Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll;
> Chill Penury repressed their noble rage,
> And froze the genial current of the soul."

For benefit to State and county of such a business coming into any rural dulness with life, example, and money, the charter of incorporation can well afford to exempt the company's personal property—the quick capital to vivify a considerable neighborhood—from taxation.

My illustration is but an unfilled drawing. With or without the academic background, it suggests that we may look to associated capital and the power of organized administration supporting business execution for the practical relief of agriculture, now crippled over a large area of our country. CLARENCE GORDON.

NEWBURGH, N. Y., December 7, 1889.

Notes.

WE learn that the late Gen. F. W. Palfrey had had the fifth volume of his father's 'History of New England' put in type and submitted to friends for correction. From the returns he had perfected the copy for the printer before he left home in October to make his last struggle for life. We may, therefore, expect the volume to be published before very long.

The Historical Society of Pennsylvania will shortly publish the Narrative of the Tory Dr. John Conolly concerning whom we lately

gave some particulars by way of correcting the new 'Dictionary of American Biography.'

A notable work on 'Kentucky Jurisprudence,' by Lewis N. Dembitz of the Louisville bar, is in the press of John P. Morton & Co. Its aim is to dwell on the peculiarities of Kentucky law, and to pass over those points in which it has made no departure from the common course of American law. The practitioner rather than the student has been in the author's view.

Still another biographical series looms up, "American Reformers," edited by Carlos Martyn, D.D., and published by Funk & Wagnalls. It will consist of twelve volumes, the editor leading off with Wendell Phillips, and also reserving to himself William E. Dodge and John B. Gough. Mr. F. B. Sanborn will write the life of Horace Mann; Mr. W. S. Kennedy that of Whittier, etc.

The poems of the late Mrs. Anna Holyoke Howard will be issued in book form in the spring. A sketch of her life and work will meanwhile appear in the December number of the *Young Woman's Magazine* (Brattleboro, Vt.).

The Albany Book Co. announce, to appear next month, 'An Experiment in Marriage,' by Charles J. Bellamy.

A reissue, by Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, of Thomas Bridges's 'Burlesque Translation of Homer's Iliad,' originally published in 1762, is an event little to be expected; but the gross passages of the original, which were adapted to a very primitive taste, have been modified or starred so that the volume is decent in language. The editor, George A. Smith, has had little difficulty in making the work presentable, and he has reproduced with it the odd comic cuts which accompanied the 1797 edition. The volume retains a place among the curiosities of a classical library, but its humor is of a sort which scarcely appeals to a refined taste.

The same publisher and editor send us a 'Compendium and Concordance of the Complete Works of Shakspere; also, an Index of every Character in the Dramas and where they Appear.' Thirty-seven outline drawings accompany the text. The plan of the volume, which is both handy and useful for ready reference, is to give *seriatim* an account of the sources and plot of each play, such as one might look over hastily to refresh the memory before going to the theatre. This division is followed by a "Concordance of Familiar Gems," more than a hundred pages in length, arranged by catchwords; and an index to the quotations and one also to the characters of Shakspere are added. The style and type of the volume are excellent.

The Spenser Society begins its new series for the twenty-first year with a reprint of the 1622 edition of Drayton's 'Polyolbion,' Part I., of the execution of which it is superfluous to say that no pains are spared to make the volume as excellent typographically as is possible. The publications of this Society for the past twenty years have been of great value to students to whom originals are inaccessible, and have not been without influence on the literary taste of scholars. In adding this great monument of a past literary age to the list, the Society gives proof of the spirit in which the new series will be conducted, and affords matter for congratulation that its labors are not to end.

The author of 'English Idyls' (London: Sampson Low & Co.) is favorably known by the volumes of these writings which have previously been accompanied by photo-etchings, and which, by picture and text, have made a peculiar, original, and artistic view of English rural life, particularly in the Norfolk Broads, very attractive. Here we have text without the pictures, and are sensible only of a strange literary quality, which in some cases suffers from a pastoral blight in the language, but in others is exceedingly direct and fresh. Something of Arcadian distance, nevertheless, hangs over the whole, and makes one suspect even its most truthful realism. The book is entirely out of the ordinary—prose-poetry—and, for the philologist, it imbeds a number of provincial phrases, and for the student of folk-lore a few sailor superstitions, which have an extra-literary interest. Among the rest we notice the belief among old fishermen of the east coast that they turn into gulls when they die, yet they had no objection to killing them. "They hev been dead oncet, they hev been on earth oncet, and we hev got quite enough old men now." The children become kittiwakes, and the women don't come back at all. Several curious matters like this give a kind of salt to the poetic or rustic subject.

A new selection from the 'Letters of Horace Walpole' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), edited by Charles Duke Yonge, with several excellent portraits, in two finely bound and printed library volumes, brings this entertaining but voluminous correspondent within reach of the ordinary reader's leisure. The selection has been made with due regard to the various aspects of the whole body of letters, of which the range is wide, and also with a view to displaying the character of the writer. The political portion is more full than is necessary for an American reader, but not really disproportionate, all things considered. It would have been as well, we think, if the editor had given something more in the way of information with regard to the persons addressed, so that the reader might more easily reconstruct the social environment of the author.

In 'The Second Year of the Lookabout Club,' by Mary E. Bamford (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), which one might call the club's second annual report, the reputation of the author, as a teacher of sound science and the art of seeing things, is well maintained, and the youthful audience for whom the book is intended will find no lack of interest in the manner or of profit in the matter of Miss Bamford's attractively illustrated volume.

The Washington Life Insurance Company of this city has published elaborate actuarial and medical statistics covering twenty-five years, with an historical sketch. Although, regardless of their conventional reputation, figures will lie, especially when in each other's society, these teach some interesting lessons. We have only space for one of them, the relation of weight to height in consumption. Out of 2,000 deaths, where 353 (or 17.65 per cent.) were from that disease, in 750 cases the weight was above the standard when insured, and of these only 41, or 5.47 per cent., proved consumptive, while of 560 at the standard 100 (or 17.86 per cent.), and of 690 below the standard 212 (or 30.72 per cent.), thus died.

The most tasteful of the not purely decorative calendars that have come to us is the 'Authors' Calendar,' issued by Greenough, Hopkins & Cushing, Boston. The authors who furnish the extracts for the first two leaves are Robert Browning and Martin Farquhar Tupper, both among the dead of the dying year.

Of the illuminated kind of calendars, that called 'The Calendar of the Seasons,' in four leaves, each containing a pleasing water-color design of child-life, by Maud Humphrey, is to be praised (Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.); but dainty ugliness is the only term to apply to the "Sunter Calendar," which comes to us from the same firm. Their 'America' ("My Country, 'tis of Thee") is illustrated with typical American landscape in chromo, and offers some pretty bits, not always in happy juxtaposition. The music of the hymn is appended. Finally, we can mention as above the average, and still from the same source, Maud Humphrey's 'Babes of the Nations,' with pleasing colored plates accompanied by verses by Miss Edith M. Thomas.

The late Philip H. Welch had a genius for producing what we may call bright legends for comic illustration. They were not always thus illustrated, but his untimely death has led his brother humorists with the pencil to prepare a memorial volume of quips, published and unpublished, from his pen, and to contribute appropriate designs (Charles Scribner's Sons). The volume, 'Said in Fun,' thus possesses a double interest, and the royalties on the sales will go to the fund for the benefit of Mr. Welch's widow and children.

From C. Klackner, 5 East Seventeenth Street, New York, we receive a significant engraving on wood, by Miss C. A. Powell, after a fresco, "The Resurrection," by John La Farge, in St. Thomas's Church in this city. Together with the decorative proscenic frame designed by Miss Powell herself, the block measures 10x12 inches. The rendering is full of color, and is very successful in its treatment of the foliage and the half-light, half-gloom of the picture. The edition is limited to 150 copies, printed on Japan paper and signed. We have called the engraving significant not only because of its technical merits, but because the effort to bring the highest products of our American school of wood-engraving into competition with etchings and steel engravings deserves to be noticed and encouraged in every way. Miss Powell was preceded some years ago by Mr. Closson in Boston, with a charming cut of a little girl on a bear-skin rug, and still more lately by Mr. G. Kruell of East Orange, N. J., in two masterly portraits of Darwin, of which we shall speak more particularly hereafter. No one can doubt that these specimens of Bewick's art will be prized increasingly as time goes on, or that they are worthy of a place in any cabinet of engraving.

In the November number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, C. Haeberlin begins a series of contributions to the knowledge of ancient libraries and methods of book production. The first paper is devoted to a minute and careful study of the pre-Alexandrian editions of Homer. The remaining contents of the number consist of a paper on Belgian libraries, by V. Chauvin, several book reviews, and the usual library notes and news.

The Boston Book Co. has for sale a few copies of the remarkable facsimile of the 'Vestgöta Lagbok' noticed by us a short time since. We ought then to have mentioned the names of the editors of this difficult and highly successful undertaking, namely, Mr. Algernon Börtzell and Harald Wieselgren of the Royal Library of Stockholm.

At the next annual convention of the Modern Language Association of America, to be held at Harvard University on December 26, 27, and 28, President Charles W. Eliot will give an address of welcome to the delegates, and this will be followed by an address by James Russell Lowell, President of the Association. The following are some of the papers of more general interest to be presented at the different sessions: "Independent Literary Judgments" (Prof. Hunt, Princeton); "Russian Animal Folk-lore compared with that of the West" (Prof. Gerber, Earlham College); "The Saga of Walter

of Aquitaine" (Dr. Learned, Johns Hopkins); "Scandinavian Lexicography" (Dr. Dodge, Columbia); "A Forerunner of Bunyan in the Twelfth Century" (Prof. Francke, Harvard); "The Pronunciation of Fredericksburg, Va." (Prof. Primer, Providence); "The Relation of Shakspere to 'The Taming of the Shrew'" (Prof. Tolman, Ripon College); "Use of the Negative by Chaucer" (Prof. Kent, University of Tennessee); "Reading in Modern Language Study" (Prof. Joynes, University of South Carolina); "Requirements in German and French for Admission to College" (Prof. Fay, Tufts College); "Some Elizabethan Verse Critics" (Prof. Schelling, University of Pennsylvania); "A Tyrolese Passion-Play of the Middle Ages" (Prof. Schmidt-Wartenberg, University of Deseret). Prof. A. Melville Bell will preside and deliver an address at a special meeting of the Phonetic Section, when several technical papers will be read.

The American Historical Association will hold its sixth annual meeting on December 28–31, 1889, in Washington. The evening sessions will be in the lecture-room of the Columbian University. The morning sessions will be in the lecture-room of the National Museum, by permission of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution. The headquarters of the Association will be at the Arlington.

—The Philadelphia *Press* says that, years ago, when Thomas Hughes was in this country, the head of the house of Lippincott showed him over the Philadelphia establishment, the visit coming to an end with this *contretemps*: "'Now, Mr. Hughes, I want to show you one of our greatest publications, "Allibone's Dictionary." It contains some information about every author of any account in England and America. Now let us see, for example, what it says about Mr. Thomas Hughes.' So he turned to H, and, lo! the name of the author of 'Tom Brown's School Days' was not there." As this story is going the rounds of the press, it is likely to bring some undeserved discredit on Mr. Allibone. His Dictionary only professed to include "the first half of the nineteenth century"; and Mr. Hughes's first book, 'Tom Brown's School Days,' belongs to the second half. It was published in 1857, and published anonymously too, so that even if Mr. Allibone had intended to include books issued up to the date of his own issue (1858), he could not be expected to have got in Mr. Hughes's.

—Fifty-eight years ago the first steps were taken in Boston to form a society to promote the immediate abolition of slavery, which was actually launched with the new year (1832) by the concurrence of twelve men, very deficient in this world's goods, and of little or no repute with the respectable classes of society. Three of them were practical printers, and four were editors or publishers of papers. In both these categories belonged Oliver Johnson, who died in Brooklyn on December 10, and was the last survivor of the little group of apostles of the new agitation. The alliance between the then editor of the *Christian Soldier* and the editor of the *Liberator* (both papers saw the light in January, 1831), continued unbroken through the thirty-five years of stern conflict with hostile public sentiment and all the repressive and persecuting force of the Slave Power. When Garrison died, no one more naturally than Mr. Johnson became his biographer and posthumous defender; and the date on which the latter expired was, by a coincidence as pleasing as it was striking, the eighty-fourth anniversary of the birth of the elder abolitionist. Mr. Johnson had another peculiar distinction: he edited in turn nearly all the anti-slavery newspapers, the *Liberator* not excepted, ending with the organ of the American Anti-Slavery Society, the *National A. S. Standard* in this city, where his residence was thus finally fixed. He rendered in this way a very notable service to the cause of emancipation, and was distinguished for his good sense, good temper, and good judgment. He also occasionally took the field as a lecturer. Like most of his colleagues, he served for scanty wages in a spirit of self-sacrifice, and with the greatest fidelity to principle. While temporarily editing the *Liberator*, he was the innocent occasion of the explosion of sectarian jealousy of Garrison which ended in the memorable schism of the abolitionists in 1840, with important consequences for the nascent Liberty party.

— Like Mr. Garrison, Mr. Johnson withdrew from the anti-slavery organization and agitation after the close of the war and the abolition of slavery. He resumed an old connection with the *Tribune*, for whose founder he had a warm friendship; and was also, as a friend of Henry Ward Beecher and Theodore Tilton, associated with them in the editing of the *Independent* and the *Christian Union*. Other journalistic engagements could also be enumerated, and it may be said that from the days of his apprenticeship to his death at the age of eighty, Mr. Johnson was never out of touch with the printing-office. His theological belief passed from the strictest Calvinism to a species of Quakerism, and he became one of the founders of the so-called Progressive Friends at Longwood, Penn., where his remains have been interred. Mr. Johnson was born of Massachusetts parents in Vermont, on December 27, 1809. By his first wife, Mary Ann White, he had no children. His second wife, who survives him, with one daughter, is a daughter of the late Rev. J. S. C. Abbott.

—Although under one cover, the second number of the third volume of the *Journal of Morphology*, September, 1889, really represents two substantial treatises of 100 to 160 pages each, with many plates and figures in the text, the one embryological, the other palæontological, both full of original matter and most creditable to the writers and the editor. W. M. Wheeler's "Embryology of *Blatta Germanica* and *Doryphora decemlineata*" might not be recognized by all as a "study of the development of the cockroach and potato beetle." "Easily obtained at all seasons, of convenient size for dissection, and being but slightly modified descendants of the oldest [known] insects of geological time," the cockroaches have attracted the attention of no less than twenty investigators. The potato-beetle, on the contrary, "has not been studied heretofore from an ontogenetic standpoint; it is surprising that so common an insect, and one whose eggs present such advantages for embryological study, should have been overlooked." Probably thousands of farmers and city householders will not wait to master the somewhat technical details of the present article before wishing that its author might require unlimited numbers of both insects. Yet parts of the paper are not only nearly free from the not yet commonly understood terms of the "new embryology," but both interesting and important—*e. g.*, the description (pp. 299-302) of the remarkable oviposition of *Blatta*, the eggs coming from the right and left ovaries in regular alternation, and crossing to the opposite side of the capsule, and the account (p. 324) of experiments showing that, with this insect, "the force of gravitation has no perceptible effect upon the development of the eggs." The suggestion (p. 338) that two prior observers may have mistaken a minute ridge for a groove, illustrates Goodsir's dictum to students to train their eyes and faculties well upon visible parts before employing the microscope.

— Mr. Wheeler's remark on p. 347, that a certain hypothesis has at least the merit of utilizing the facts near at hand, and that it "might be called a *mechanical* explanation," leads naturally to the consideration of Prof. Cope's richly illustrated discussion of "The Mechanical Causes of the Development of the Hard Parts of the Mammalia." Did space permit, the introductory (historical) sketch might well be quoted entire. Lamarck ascribed some modifications of structure to the motions of the organic being. Spencer specified the effect of flexure in producing segmentation of the vertebral column. Cope, in 1871, insisted on the importance of motion in determining growth, and in 1872 declared that "growth-force must develop extent in the direction of least resistance, and density on the side of greatest resistance." Subsequently the subject has been elaborated in different aspects by the author and by Ryder, whose observations, and those of Harrison Allen, are cordially acknowledged. The keynote of the writer's view is struck in the following words from p. 139: "Thanks to vertebrate palæontology, we are now in possession of the [presumed] phylogeny of most of the lines of mammalian descent. . . . The more my attention has been directed, the more convinced I have become that, in the language of Lamarck, it is the habit that has given rise to the structures of animals, and not the structures which have forced animals to adopt their special habits." This is an important and suggestive aspect of the evolution doctrine, and may commend the doctrine itself to some who have forsaken the idea of direct creative interference, and welcome all evidence of secondary causes. Prof. Cope presents his facts and arguments with his usual force and with perhaps more than usual candor. There are frequent admissions of doubt and difficulty in special cases, *e. g.*, as to the long fifth toe of seals (p. 158), "the mechanical history of the human great toe" (p. 162, although a partial explanation is offered on p. 173), and the characteristics of the human carpus (p. 176). He does not, however, seem to realize the extent of his demand upon the reader's evolutionary faith in assuming that the elongation of the limbs may be due to *either* "impact or longitudinal strain; . . . the one acting by compression in the direction of the length of the bone (walking animals), the other by stretching (climbing forms)." Some doubting Thomas on the side of special creation or of evolution from other than mechanical causes might well object to this, as an example of the *obscurum per obscurius* to which the author objects—in other words, as an ascription of causative value to mere antecedents or even concomitants—*post* [or *cum*] *hoc*, *non ergo propter hoc*—and as an evidence that discussions morphological are not always strictly logical. Actual errors are hardly to be expected from such a writer in such a journal, but on p. 202 it seems to be implied that the muzzle is short, not only in the bull-dog, but also in the other domestic varieties and in the wild Canidæ, all of which are supposed to employ the canine teeth for prehension. The interesting suggestion on p. 203 that the mechanical cause of the peculiar direction of the nasal cavity in whales and porpoises is the constant pressure of a column of water, does not accord with the common belief that the pressure is at most intermittent, and that the material is mainly vaporized

breath with perhaps a slight admixture of water.

—A recent discussion in the Parisian *Intermédiaire* reminds one of the battle between the Big-endians and Little-endians as to which end of an egg should be broken. In his last comedy, "Marquise," Sardou maintains that a gentleman, escorting a lady either from table or from church, should offer her his arm, and always the left arm. The reason he gives is, that a man should keep his right arm at liberty, that if needful he may be able to give a cuff to any person who does not make way for the lady, or for the more peaceable purpose of opening a door which may bar her passage. A writer in *L'Intermédiaire* states this doctrine, but contends that it ignores a distinction, delicate indeed, but which ought by no means to be disregarded. In ordinary cases he admits that the left arm should be offered by an escort, and that for Sardou's reasons. In church, however, and in a salon, he holds that the *right* arm ought to be tendered. In churches and salons there is no danger, and a man ought not by his gestures or attitudes to show himself apprehensive. In a festive hall, accordingly, giving a lady one's left arm argues a suspicious temper, and may be taken as an insult by a supersensitive host. The Big-and-Little-endian feud was compromised by cleaving the egg in the middle. It is not clear that the etiquette of right and left arms can be so easily settled. In treating this matter *L'Intermédiaire* mentions an odd custom now in vogue on the French stage. At the Opéra a man never offers his arm or hand to a queen or princess, but presents to her a doubled fist (*le poing fermé*).

PENNELL ON PEN DRAWING.

Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmen, Their Work and their Methods: a Study of the Art To-day with Technical Suggestions. By Joseph Pennell. Macmillan & Co. 1889. Large 4to, pp. xxiv-318.

NOTHING could show more curiously than does this book the advantages and disadvantages of artistic criticism of art; nothing could exhibit more completely the qualities and defects of the artist turned critic. The introduction opens with the statement that "Only the writing on art by one who has technical knowledge of it is of practical value," and, scattered through the pages, there are many contemptuous flings at "a certain class of writers on art" whose "ignorance of the technique of any art is only equalled by their ability to write on it." No doubt the sneer is often justified, yet of many of the artists who make it it would hardly be too much to say that "their knowledge of their subject is only equalled by their inability to write clearly of it." The true critic, who knows his art and can tell what he knows, is a rare bird in the land, and when we have not a Fromentin we must generally choose between the clear exposition of the writer's little knowledge and the confused statement of the artist's learning. No doubt the latter is to be preferred by the student, but no doubt the former will be more appreciated by the public.

From the side of technical knowledge no one could be better equipped for writing of pen drawing than Mr. Pennell. He is himself a pen draughtsman of distinction, and he has made a thorough study of his subject. Assuredly he knows a good drawing when he sees it, and knows why it is good, knows in what the modern progress of the art consists, and how modern pen drawing differs from the ancient; but he does not succeed in making these things plain to his reader. He does not think with precision or write with method, and what he has to tell us must be picked out here and there amidst rambling remarks and endless repetitions.

His first chapter is on "Pen Drawing in the Past," and is intended to show the technical advance of modern pen drawing beyond that of the old masters; but he really gives us no help towards seeing in what the advance consists. He places the old and new drawings side by side, and assures us that the newer is the better; why, we must find out for ourselves. When he comes to his real subject, modern pen drawing, he has found no better method than to write detached notices and criticisms of each artist represented. The artists are roughly divided according to nationality, and that is all. Neither alphabetical, nor chronological, nor any other discoverable order is observed. Mr. Pennell's criticisms are often shrewd, often merely nugatory. They seem to have been written separately and put together afterwards, and he is always saying, "I have already said," when what he has already said may be a hundred pages further on; or, "I have remarked elsewhere," without giving any indication of where "elsewhere" may be. In the notice of Fortuny he gives great and deserved praise to that master as the founder of a new school of draughtsmen, but he makes no explanation of what constituted Fortuny's innovation. (We may say, briefly, that it was the substitution of the *spot* for the line, the using of lines to indicate the masses of shadow, and the suppression, to a great extent, of outline.)

After more than two hundred pages of these notices, we come to chapters on "Architectural Pen Drawing," "Pen Drawing for Book Decoration," "Technical Suggestions," etc.; and here, at last, one hopes to find some clear statement of what is good or bad in methods, of what a draughtsman with the pen should draw, and how he should draw it, of the qualities of things expressible by the pen, of the difference between intelligent and unintelligent use of line. Alas! one finds little more than directions as to what ink and paper to choose, and a recipe for "spatter work"!

Yet Mr. Pennell certainly began to write this book with a view to setting forth a body of doctrine, and, by means of much piecing together of scattered expressions, it is possible to find out what that body of doctrine is. The things Mr. Pennell deemed it worth while to say of pen drawing would seem to be these:

Pen drawing is a distinct art, with its own aims and methods, and should be confused with no other.

It is as worthy of serious treatment by artist and critic as any other form of art.

It has failed of serious consideration by the critics and the public because of the cheapness and universal diffusion of its results.

Its development as a separate art was nearly coincident with and largely dependent upon the invention of the various reproductive processes.

These processes allow more freedom to the artist, and reproduce his original work with less loss than any but the best engraving.

It is wrong to demand that the best engravers shall expend the time and labor necessary to painful reproduction of pen-and-ink work with a result no better than can be secured by a mechanical process in a tenth of the time.

The cheapness of illustration by process has, however, created a demand for it on the part of publishers which has resulted in a vast quantity of pen-and-ink work by men who either have no knowledge of art or no special fitness for pen drawing, and of pen-and-ink drawings of subjects not fitted for treatment by that vehicle.

The resulting monotony and badness of much contemporary illustration tend to increase the public contempt for the art of pen drawing, which the public takes to be a "cheap and nasty" method of illustration, and is a serious danger to the future of that art.

These propositions, which we take to be the fundamental ones of the book, we believe to be altogether true. That pen drawing is an art, and a beautiful art, capable at its best of results as lovely as those of etching or line engraving, though differing from them in quality, no one who has looked at some of the plates in this volume can deny. Neither can one fail to be convinced, by the wonderful variety of style and practice here shown, that the "monotony" of much modern illustration, which is so often complained of (and by this journal as often as by any one) is the result, not of the limitations imposed by "process" upon the individuality of the artist, but of the draughtsman's incompetence or unwise choice of subject matter. The old wood-engravers, when confined to facsimile, habitually "cut the blocks without the slightest feeling for the artist's work," or "when they did follow the original lines it was only because the artist drew expressly for them"; and the limitations imposed by the engraver were vastly greater than those of "process" reproduction, which only requires "a reasonably clean line, good ink, and white paper." The reason why so much modern work is bad is, that there is so much modern work. The number of men with a talent for pen drawing does not greatly vary, while the amount of work done vastly increases. Much of it, therefore, is done by men who are not artists, or are artists with no feeling for line, who are tempted to this method of work by the assurance of fidelity in the published result, or by competent pen draughtsmen who are asked by the publishers for pen drawings of subjects better fitted for treatment in tone. With the improvement of "process" reproduction of tone work, an artist who wishes to see his work published as he produced it will be no longer forced to work with the point, whether or not it is an implement suited to his idiosyncrasy, and meanwhile we may expect the gradual education of the public to understand and to demand good work, and to refuse bad.

It is a pity that the book which Mr. Pennell set out to write has not been written, for, as we have said, no one has a better equipment of technical knowledge for the task, and ample materials for it have been gathered. The book contains 158 drawings which are, for the most part, admirably selected and magnificently reproduced, either by process or photogravure, while some are printed from the wood block. It is to be regretted that the author's modesty has prevented his including any work by himself. One of his fine renderings of Gothic architecture would have been a valuable addition to the chapter on architectural drawing. The publishers have performed their part munificently, and the mechanical workmanship of the volume is nearly perfect. A feature worthy of all praise and of imitation is the exceptionally good list of drawings, with its full information of provenance, date, and manner of reproduction.

THE BEGINNINGS OF LANDSCAPE.

The Earlier English Water-Color Painters. By Cosmo Monkhouse. With fourteen engravings on copper and many other illustra-

tions. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890.

Of many of the artists to whom this volume is devoted most of us know little, and, perhaps, care less. Not only their works but their very names are unknown outside of England. We think it likely that to most students of art, as, we confess, to us, their individuality has been a matter of indifference. The importance of the English water-color school of the end of the last century and the beginning of this is indubitable, for out of it came Constable and modern landscape; but most of us, outside of England, have been content to begin with Constable, and to leave the earlier men, with a few exceptions, to their obscurity.

This indifference Mr. Monkhouse is hardly likely to disturb. The reproductions he gives us are inferior, and may not do justice to the originals; but they certainly confirm one's impression that most of the art of the time was of a singularly mild and drawing-masterly type. These tinted drawings of "Gentlemen's Seats" and absurd "Compositions" are the beginnings of modern landscape painting, but they are about as interesting in themselves as a child's copy-books, and present such a dead level of insipidity that any care to distinguish them one from another is impossible. Nor does the text interest one much more. The qualities of brilliant description, delicate analysis, keenness of vision, strength of characterization, which in that wonderful book, 'L'Art du dix-huitième siècle,' by the brothers Goncourt, make us almost see the things described and appreciate the most subtle and imponderable qualities of evanescent trifles; which, dealing with men of hardly greater importance than these English water-color "draughtsmen" (in a sense, of *less* importance, for they are the men of a decadence, not the forerunners of a revolution), make of each a vivid, living personality—such qualities are conspicuous only by their absence from Mr. Monkhouse's pages. In short, his book is dry, we will not say dull.

One or two amusing glimpses we get of the methods of those days, like this of the teaching of Paul Sandby, "the father of the English school of water-colors": "His practice," we are told, "was to give the students an original drawing of his own to copy, providing them with an etching [*sic*] in outline of the subject. The trees, buildings, etc., were lined very finely, as with a very sharp pen, just as they were in the drawing itself"! An even more eccentric method of teaching, which can hardly have been general even then, is thus described:

"'Cozens [Alexander] dashed out upon several pieces of paper a series of accidental smudges and blots in black, brown, and gray, which, being floated on, he impressed again upon other paper; and, by the exercise of his fertile imagination, and a certain degree of ingenious coaxing, converted into romantic rocks, woods, towers, steeples, cottages, rivers, fields, and waterfalls. Blue and gray blots formed the mountains, clouds, and skies.' An improvement on this plan was to splash the paint first upon the bottoms of earthenware plates instead of paper, and to stamp impressions therefrom on sheets of damp paper. This method of instruction he described in a pamphlet called 'A New Method of Assisting the Invention in Drawing Original Loose Positions in Landscape.'"

The general method of the earlier men is described in a quotation from W. H. Pyne:

"Previous to the practice of Turner and Girtin, drawings were shadowed first entirely through, whatever their component parts—houses, cattle, trees, mountains, foregrounds, middlegrounds, and distances—all with black or gray, and these objects were afterwards stained or tinted, enriched and finished, as is now the custom to color prints."

Of course all the work described and illustrated in the book is not of this desperately primitive sort. John Robert Cozens and Girtin would seem to have been men of some real force and originality, of whom one would like to know more; Bonington will always be interesting for his influence upon Delacroix, if for nothing else; Blake was a man apart, whom, as he had no influence whatever on the course of modern art, we need not discuss here; with such men as De Wint, Copley Fielding, and David Cox one feels that modern landscape painting has fairly begun. Finally, there is Turner, and of him we perhaps know quite enough.

There are two chapters devoted to this singular genius: one, in the middle of the book, dealing with his work up to 1802, the year of Girtin's death and his own election to the Royal Academy; the other, the last chapter of all, dealing with his later work. Mr. Monkhouse's treatment of him is not particularly luminous, though he says some true things. Turner's reputation in England (and, to a certain extent, here also) is colossal, and, in most criticism that one sees, apart from Mr. Hamerton's, the only question seems to be how and for what he is to be lauded. Mr. Henley, in 'A Century of Artists,' informs us that a reaction against the excessive praise of Ruskin and others is now in progress in England, and that, in certain quarters, denunciation of Turner is as wholesale as the praise of him has been; but such denunciation has not, as yet, reached us here. Apparently our author's admiration is, though kept under some restraint, almost as unbounded as that of Mr. Ruskin himself. The illustrations give a better idea of Turner than the text, and for the last two in the book we are duly grateful. They are two drawings of Newcastle-on-Tyne, one made by Girtin, according to Mr. Monkhouse, for Walker's 'Itinerant,' "probably between 1790 and 1800," and the other made by Turner for the 'Rivers of England,' "within a year or two before 1824."

Turner's drawing is evidently founded upon Girtin's. We should judge it highly improbable that he took the pains to go to Newcastle himself. Here was Girtin's drawing to his hand, and it gave him quite material enough for the kind of fantasia he was in the habit of improvising. Everything in Turner's drawing is at least hinted at in Girtin's, but the way in which Girtin's plain record of fact is transformed into a gorgeous Turnerian nightmare (Mr. Monkhouse speaks of its "infernal majesty") is curious in the extreme. "Nightmare" is no exaggeration: Turner's city is like one seen in a troubled dream—luridly magnificent, but rankly impossible in every line. Repose is carefully eliminated, and mass is everywhere subdivided into an endless maze of confusing and benumbing detail; church spires are lifted to a Babel-like elevation; the bridge across the river becomes Cyclopean in its stride; everything is colossal, yet wavering and uncertain, like a city in the clouds at sunset—and, like such a city, one expects to see it dissolve and transform itself before one's eyes.

That this is the work of a strong imagination no one can deny; but whether or not it is that of a great or healthy imagination is a different question. To us the imagination of Turner seems an eminently morbid and—let us risk the word—theatrical one. His conception of art was scenic and spectacular; his mind was operatic. Many of his little vignettes seem like sketches for the scenery of a *féerie*, and he would have been the greatest scene-painter that ever lived. His natural endowment was great, his knowledge of nature profound; but his carelessness of truth was supreme, and his influence, wherever exercised, has been almost unmixedly for evil.

When all is done, one lays down the book, less with the feeling that one has learned to understand Constable in studying the school from which he came, than with an increased wonder that an art so simple and manly, yet so imaginative—an art with such possibilities for the future within it—should have arisen from such a school, and one is more ready than before to "begin with Constable" in one's private history of modern landscape.

Mr. Monkhouse's style, which is never brilliant and seldom precise, is sometimes slovenly in the extreme; and there occur, now and then, sentences which might serve for specimens of "English as she is wrote"; *e. g.*, "They soon formed a real and original school of landscape, and also to feel their strength as a body" (p. 65). The book is handsomely printed on fine paper, but, unless Mr. Monkhouse is even more careless as a writer than we give him the credit of being, the proof-reading has not been impeccable. We give him the benefit of the doubt in the phrase, "one of the best of this class of designer" (p. 20).

MORE HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Cathedrals and Abbeys in Great Britain and Ireland. With descriptive text by Richard Wheatley, D.D. Harper & Bros. Folio.

Flora's Feast: A Masque of Flowers. Penned and Pictured by Walter Crane. Cassell & Co. 1889.

Flowers of Paradise. Music, Verse, Design, and Illustration by Reginald Francis Hallward. Macmillan & Co.

Gondolas and Palaces. Facsimiles of Colored Photographs, etc., etc., accompanied by Selections from the Text by Charles Yriarte. Frederick Stokes & Bro. 1889.

The book which stands at the head of our list contains 272 pages, perhaps half of which are occupied with full-page or double-page illustrations. These are nearly all wood-cuts, and the few exceptions are process prints from pen drawings. Most of the woodcuts are of the old-fashioned sort, in which an attempt is made to give all the details that the scale of the drawing allows, and in which a full system of light and shade is employed. Of course, a very great deal of skill on the part of the artist and wood-engraver alike is required to make such engravings at all satisfactory. They are not, and can hardly be, very charming as works of art, as their inevitable fate is to be monotonous and tame in effect. The generally too strongly emphasized shadows marking the architectural details contrast in an unfortunate fashion with the lighter spaces between, and any attempt to give diversity by attempted effects of shade stealing across one end or the other of the façade, or the top or the base of a tower, is apt to give an appearance of artificiality, without any very special charm. Then there is also the difficulty caused by architectural members too minute to be rightly expressed, and which the engraver can only indicate by meaningless scrolls and zigzags; these are almost certain to offend the eye of one who cares for the building which is represented. So that altogether there are pitfalls in the way of the maker of large general drawings of architecture—pitfalls which only the very able artist can escape. It is obvious that such drawings are chiefly made nowadays by the free use of photographs, either directly from the photograph, and corresponding with it in all respects, as far as the engraver's skill can follow it, or

worked up from photographs in cases where the general group has been drawn by the aid of the camera-lucida or in some other way. In some few cases, the work is very minute and delicate, and the architectural detail very closely followed, even to the sacrifice of any scheme of light and shade. These are certainly the most attractive. The architectural detail itself, or the black lines that represent it, gives variety enough to the design. The perspective lines, so strongly emphasized in all architectural compositions, prevent any sense of flatness; and chiaro-oscuro, in the ordinary sense, is not missed, as it might otherwise be. Thus, we think the little drawing of Salisbury Cathedral on the uppermost corner of the first plate in this book is one of the most valuable pictures which it contains. The view of St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin, in its tranquillity and absence of visible effort, is also interesting. The building, being very plain, without much variety in the way of niche or window-tracery, lends itself to the simple treatment adopted, and the picture is one of the pleasantest. Apart from these, and others like them, Mr. Hughson Hawley's large drawings are perhaps the most agreeable in the book.

The text consists of a series of notices of the cathedrals represented in the cuts, and, furthermore, of an introductory essay on the cathedral system. This essay contains the usual amusing attempt to show that English Gothic architecture rivals French on the whole, and excels in at least as many points as it yields to it. It gives us, also, the commonplace statements about the rise and the decline of Gothic architecture, as that the descent from its climax of excellence was "swift and certain," and that St. Paul's is the English "cathedral specimen" of the Renaissance style of architecture, which style is said to be "a revival of the Roman antique in triumphal arches, baths, and other edifices, but not of temple or church construction," and to be furthermore "a blending of different styles, which never acquired popularity with the English people." Such blundering treatment of the subject as is shown here is not universally characteristic, either of this essay or of the separate papers on the different cathedrals; for in dealing with each separate edifice or each separate branch of the subject, good authorities are to be had, and these authorities the author has known how to use. So far as we have examined the accounts of the origin, the first building, the different enlargements and varied fortunes of each cathedral, we have found the text satisfactory. It is not very full, and perhaps too ambitious an attempt is made to include everything in a small compass—history, legend, and tradition, analysis of the architecture, and detailed account of the monuments, etc., contained in each structure. It is, in short, a guide-book in little, and contains too great a variety of theme for adequate treatment of any department. The whole text, however, is a sufficient companion to the large plates, to display which is the primary object of this book; and it certainly may have value for persons not otherwise supplied with books on the church architecture of England.

'Flora's Feast' consists of forty pages of colored illustrations with verses forming a part of the design, the whole lithographed together, and printed in black lines, and in two or three colors for each page. The flowers of the year succeed one another in order. Each ptate is devoted to one or two flowers, and has generally one distich describing them. The designs themselves embody a certain personification of each plant, usually by representing a young maiden, or perhaps what the author would call a nymph, dressed in the petals, the calyx, the leaves, or some other part of the flower in question. Thus page 19 gives us

> "The little lilies of the vale,
> White ladies, delicate and pale,"

and the picture represents two maidens, drawing around themselves as a sort of outer garment a cloak of the large, enveloping green leaves of the plant, while they bend over their heads the flexible stems with their white bells. The idea of personifying the flowers in this way is not very happy. A serious effort has to be made to conceive of the plant as in any way embodied in the girl or young man who is masquerading in its spoils. The line, "The scarlet poppy-head ablaze," is illustrated by a black drum-major and black drummer, each of them in fantastic uniform, as if of the British army in some unknown period of the past, but the hats formed of the spreading blossoms; and, in order to account for the presence of the blossoms, and to give some idea of the whole plant, the drum-major has to carry the stem of the poppy as if it were his staff of office. Nor is this the most far-fetched of the fancies in the book. Perhaps the "white-flowered thorn," represented as a knight in polished armor, with a spiked mace, a crest of radiating points and exaggerated knee and elbow plates with thorny terminations, is the most disagreeable of all. But it remains to be said that the pictures have a great deal of the grace of Mr. Crane's work, and that the book is unusual in character, and, therefore, fitted to be a gratification to those who seek many Christmas gifts. It is printed on one side only of the paper, which is left folded at the edges, as many Japanese books are made, causing the reader inevitably to cut at least one of the sheets that he is not meant to cut, before he discovers the system on which the book is constructed.

'Flowers of Paradise' has its charm, which is partly in the simpler designs, printed in a brilliant red on a pretty, cream-colored paper, and partly in the unusual freedom of gesture in the more ambitious figure subjects. There are unnumbered shortcomings in the drawing, which is nowhere to be praised unreservedly; but in spite of this there is that other and not very common success that the children move and rest, cling to their mother's neck and climb her knees, with a certain reality of movement which is pleasant to see. The verse seems very unsatisfactory and, indeed, meaningless, until it is tried with its music, that fourth production of the author. Then it appears to be as sensible as other "words written for music," and lends itself readily to the simple melodies.

The book on Venice contains four colored prints of views in that city, which are all of them accurate, in their capacity of copies of photographs, but hideous in their violently contrasting hues. Printed with the text there are also small pictures, in the nature of vignettes, of fragments of the architecture of Venice. They are extremely inaccurate in every possible way. The text purports to be selected from the English translatiou of Yriarte's 'Venice,' and is so far of a certain value; but the extracts are brief and detached.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—II.

History of the United States of America during the First Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

It is difficult to overestimate the far-reaching effects of the Louisiana purchase on the Government and on the people of the United States. Some of these effects were foreseen at the time, as, for instance, when Livingston wrote that it extricated the United States from further complicity with the wars and intrigues of either France or England; that it enabled our country to take a great stride towards substantial independence in its territorial and in its economical relations; and that consequently it strengthened the bonds of the Union by giving an "increased parity of interests" to the several parts which composed it. The Union which before had been "voluntary" became now, as the late Alexander Johnston has remarked, a "fixed fact" planted in the physical geography of the country. And this tremendous change in our political geography wrought a natural change in the entire temperature of the national mind.

Mr. Adams is keenly alive to this great transformation, but he ascribes it chiefly to the new moods begotten in the heart and life of the nation by the questionable modes of the acquisition, and by the questionable measures which attended the incorporation of Louisiana in our political system. If the United States ever entered on the path which ultimately led (as the Southern States complained on the eve of secession) to "a consolidated democracy" seated in Washington, it entered on that path, he thinks, when it made, virtually, "a new Constitution and a Government of sovereign powers" by annexing Louisiana to the Union in a way admitted by Jefferson to be unconstitutional. Such an experience, he says, was "final" against all attempts to "restrain the Government from doing whatever the majority should think necessary."

There is doubtless a measure of truth in this view, but it must be remembered that to the great mass of the chosen guides of the American people at that time it did not seem so clear that the acquisition was unconstitutional. Why should the scrupulosity on this point of men like Jefferson and John Quincy Adams outweigh the contrary convictions of "strict constructionists" like John Taylor of Caroline and John Breckinridge of Kentucky, or the contrary admissions of Federalists like Gouverneur Morris and John Adams? If the incorporation of Louisiana into our Federal system wrought a change in the temper and constitution of the national mind (and we think it did), the transformation was due to a natural redistribution and recomposition of social elements and forces in the United States—to a slow and natural process of political endosmose, so to speak—and not to any supposed violence done to the Constitution in the forms of the acquisition or in the modes of governing Louisiana as a Territory. When the civil war came, it was seen that the acquisition of Louisiana had wrought, in the highest of all senses, for a "parity of interests" between the North and South, by putting its weights in the scale of Freedom as well as of Union. It seems to Mr. Adams that, at bottom, the doctrines of both the Federalists and Republicans in the matter of Louisiana's annexation "were fatal to the old status of the Union." "The Federalist theory," he says, "was one of empire, the Republican was one of assimilation." The difference was characteristic of the respective parties, and since the "old status" had to die, according to Mr. Adams, let us at least rejoice that the pall was borne by men who believed in the popular rather than in the imperial traditions of civil government.

Mr. Adams dispenses his justice to both the Federalist and the Republican party with an equal hand. He delights not in either. But we could wish that he had laid a little more emphasis on that remarkable debate in which the Federalist leaders sought, at the first "crisis" of the Louisiana question, to impale Jef-

ferson on the "horns of a political dilemma," as Mr. Adams justly describes it. We refer to the debate which arose in Congress when official notice had to be taken of the French occupation at New Orleans. That debate should not have been dismissed with a single brief sentence. The statement that "Ross of Pennsylvania, White of Delaware, and Gouverneur Morris of New York, assailed the Administration for the feebleness of its measures" in prospect of the French domination of Louisiana, hardly measures the gravity of the Federalist attitude. These Senators urged, with shrill vociferation of speech, the immediate military seizure of the territory in question, without waiting for the slow processes of a peaceful diplomacy. They sought to put Jefferson "in a hole," to use the slang locution of our modern politics. "Plant yourselves on the river, fortify the banks, invite those who have an interest at stake to defend it, do justice to yourselves, . . . and leave the event to Him who controls the fate of nations," exclaimed Ross. Jonathan Mason of Massachusetts (whose name is overlooked by Mr. Adams) welcomed aggressive measures because, if war came, we should have the navy of Great Britain on our side, and because necessity would combine with "wisest policy" to unite us with that country. Gouverneur Morris thought the Administration ought to have taken possession of New Orleans the instant Spain had violated our treaty rights by withdrawing "the right of deposit" secured to the Western States. Never was the political dice-box rattled more recklessly or ominously than by the Federalist leaders who played for high stakes in this huge game of politics.

The Republican leaders saw plainly enough the partisan motive of this fierce onset. It was hoped to array the Western States against the Administration, at the risk of provoking a foreign war. Yet they calmly met the onset by quoting Vattel and Burlamaqui against the "barbarism" of beginning war without first trying to preserve peace. Instead of Ross's resolutions, which proposed to call the militia of the Southern and Western States into active service at once, to the number of 50,000, the Jefferson majority in the Senate voted to raise 80,000 troops, to be summoned proportionately from all the States, whenever the President should judge it expedient. No sooner had this measure passed than Senator Hillhouse of Connecticut rose to express the hope that, in framing a bill for this purpose, the committee would limit by a geographical line the portion of the militia to be called out—adding significantly, that "he did not care whether the line should be the Potomac or the North River"! That remark had a grating sound as it fell on the ears of the Senate, and a Southern Senator, Robert Wright of Maryland, felt moved to say that liberal professions of zeal for the Western people were not worth much when they came from Senators who thought their militia "too well officered and disciplined" to move so far—for this was the strange reason given by Hillhouse for the wish he expressed.

This ill-omened observation of the distinguished Senator from Connecticut—an *obiter dictum* made early in the year 1803—naturally leads us to the interesting chapter in which Mr. Adams discusses the "conspiracy" framed by certain Federalist leaders in 1804 for a dissolution of the Union. There is perhaps nothing in this chapter that will be absolutely new to readers familiar with the literature of the topic, especially with the author's "New England Federalism," the Life of Plumer, and Lodge's Life of Cabot. But the evidence on the subject is here brought within a compact compass. It could have been enlarged and corroborated by much evidence drawn from other quarters—particularly from the newspapers of the time, as we shall briefly show.

It has been common to suppose that the "conspiracy" was confined to a secret cabal of New England Senators and members of the House of Representatives in Washington at that date. Mr. Cabot Lodge says that the plan of separation from the South "emanated entirely" from them. But reasons for a separation from the South had been propounded in New England long before the year 1804. As early as 1796 a disunion propaganda was set on foot in Connecticut. A series of most remarkable essays, signed "Pelham" and "Gustavus," was published in the Hartford *Courant* from 1796 to 1798, for the avowed purpose of convincing the New England States that they could save society and Christianity from impending destruction only by an early secession from the slaveholding States and from the Jeffersonian Democracy. The Hartford poets of the "Echo" and the "Spring-House" joined ready chorus with these prose manifestoes. Mr. Adams is entirely correct when he says that in the year 1800 the sense of nationality was less active in Connecticut than it had been ten or twenty or even thirty years before. New England clericalism and New England culture were alike hostile, at that date, to "democracy," and in this way the "best" elements of society became dangerous to the safety of the Union. As the democratic tide rose higher and higher, men of light and leading among the New England Federalists were more and more inclined to favor "the policy of at least saving New England," and differed from their representatives in Washington only as to questions of times and modes for initiating wise proceedings to that end.

Not that all these men joined the "conspiracy" of 1804. Very far from it. But they all felt that something must be done to save the New England civilization, because it was in peril and because it was worth saving. It is not to be supposed that the "conspirators" addressed themselves to their task with gayety of heart. On the contrary, Mr. Adams well expresses the exact truth when he says that it was "despair"—despair of otherwise saving the social, moral, and religious order—which drove the foremost of these leaders into a privy conspiracy. As it was a part of the plot that the State of New York should be the centre of the confederacy, Timothy Pickering and Roger Griswold were commissioned to sound Aaron Burr in order to bring that crafty politician into the secret. The defeat of Burr's candidature at the election for Governor of the State of New York in 1804 exploded the ill-assorted combination. But that the reader may see what was "in the air" at Boston before the explosion came, we here reproduce a few of the "set toasts" offered at a great Federalist banquet given at Concert Hall in that city on the 24th of April, 1804 (only a day before the New York election), in honor of Christopher Gore. The toasts ran as follows: "The Virginia Dominion: May it be limited by the Constitution or —by the Delaware." "May those who cause the dismemberment of the American Empire be alone subjected to its evils." Among "volunteer toasts," the following may be cited: "The Federal virtues are obliged to swarm from the seat of government: May they find a hive in the North." Or take the following "volunteer toast" in honor of Aaron Burr: "Aaron's rod: May it blossom in New York, and may Federalists be still and applaud while the great serpent swallows the less."

Readers of their Bibles who remember how Moses, at the brink of the Red Sea, commanded the Children of Israel to "stand still and see the salvation of the Lord," and how the rod of Aaron, when cast in the presence of Pharaoh, swallowed up all the serpent rods of the Egyptian magicians, will perceive that the Federalist chieftains present at that Boston banquet (there were a hundred and eighty of them—Harrison Gray Otis, General Lincoln, *et al.*) were wistfully looking to the "Mephistopheles of New York politics" as the anointed Moses or Aaron who should lead them out of the house of Virginian bondage. But the volunteer symposiarch had strangely forgot that the rod which blossomed in the Biblical story was not the same with the rod that swallowed serpents. Its bitter almonds were designed to be a testimony against rebellion; and though the rod of the New York Aaron never blossomed, it bore the bitterest fruits for the good and wise men who brandished it in the face of Jefferson. The news of Burr's overthrow in the New York election came, as we have said, only a few days later to dash all their plans and hopes to the ground. And a few months later all these plans and hopes were swept away by a new tide of emotions. The cabal was buried in the grave of Hamilton. He had set his face like a flint against the "conspiracy," and fell a victim to it in falling a victim to the balked ambition of Burr. So dense a cloud of obscurity soon closed over the "conspiracy" that, in the end, its very existence was evaporated into a myth, till John Quincy Adams came to show that the story had a solid nucleus of fact. But it never had any body in the heart of New England's "common people."

We have lingered so long on these great themes of Mr. Adams's history that we have left ourselves no room for comment on other important chapters in this work—the judiciary debate of 1802; the diplomatic tangle resulting from the claim to West Florida under the Louisiana Treaty; the Yazoo Claims; the impeachment trials of John Pickering and Samuel Chase; the dispute with Tripoli, fastening a war on the Administration which proclaimed that "peace was its passion"; the *sequelæ* of the Louisiana negotiation as it affected our relations with Spain; the "cordiality" with England, ending in the dinner-table "mortifications" of Anthony Merry; and, lastly, the hostile conspiracy formed around Jefferson (with small damage to his popularity) by New England Federalists, Louisiana creoles, and scheming adventurers under the supposed inspiration of Burr.

We observe that Mr. Adams sinks the famous (or infamous) "Resolutions of '98" under a flood of hostile criticism. We shall not undertake to pull up their drowned honor by the locks. *Non nostrum*, etc. But it may be questioned whether Jefferson should be historically responsible for the draft of the Kentucky Resolutions found among his private papers, and the existence of which was not known till the year 1832. It was thought such a hardship that Edward Peacham, in the times of James I. of England, should be convicted of treason because of "divers treasonable passages" in a sermon he had never preached, that the British judges refused to see him hanged for them. It was thought so hard and so criminal that Algernon Sidney should have been condemned and executed for "polemical writings" found among his papers that the Parliament of a later day rehabilitated his memory by a solemn act. Readers of Mme. de Sévigné's charming letters will remember the tears she sheds over Fouquet, who, in the time of Louis XIV., was condemned because of certain "re-

corded thoughts" which he said he had jotted down as they came to him in the wars of the Fronde, but which he had never published or acted on in his conduct of affairs. Mr. Adams, however, thinks it no more than strictly just to hold Jefferson to an historical responsibility for the suppressed paper, on the theory that it represented the real logic of his ideas, whatever abatements he may have made, in practice, for purely prudential reasons. But this theory assumes the whole question in dispute as to the real significance of the resolutions. So thoroughly is Mr. Adams persuaded that the intent of both the Kentucky and the Virginia "resolutions of '98" was revolutionary, that he will not allow any credit to the Virginia Legislature for "softening" its series, by striking out the word "void" in its application to the Alien and Sedition Laws —and that, too, though the word "void" was struck out to negative the very implication which Mr. Adams sees in the manifesto. He says that though the Legislatures of both the States "softened" the language of their resolutions, it none the less remains to be said that in declaring certain laws of Congress "unconstitutional," it was "with the additional understanding that whatever was unconstitutional was void." Of course, if words struck out of these resolutions, and words never known to exist until more than thirty years after their adoption, are to be read just the same between their lines, then there is no hope of saving these ill-famed documents. We decline to hold a brief for the defence of the miscreant declarations, but is it necessary to put them on the rack before they are handed over to the executioners?

We could wish that Mr. Adams, in casually referring to the fact that Jefferson removed Edward Livingston from office "for failing to account for thirty thousand dollars due to the United States Treasury," had bethought him to add that the defalcation arose from Livingston's misplaced confidence in a subordinate officer, and that the debt, with all the accrued interest, was fully discharged in the end. It would have seemed well to mention this fact even if Mr. Adams expects to do full justice to Livingston when he comes to treat on the famous "Batture controversy" which afterwards arose between that jurist and Mr. Jefferson.

It remains for us to say that the narrative style of Mr. Adams is vigorous in its grasp of materials, dignified in its tone, and correct in point of literary form. With the exception perhaps of an occasional slip in the use of the "nominative independent," this correctness of form is almost absolute, and such accuracy of style is in itself a guarantee for the truthfulness he has sought to bring to the substance of his narrative; for if the two are not identical, they are always close of kin. The proof-reading, too, has been careful, but on page 84 in the first volume there is an obvious misprint in the date of one of Cabot's letters, as cited in the text. It should be 1804, instead of 1840.

The Letters of the Duke of Wellington to Miss J. 1834-1851. Edited, with extracts from the Diary of the latter, by Christine Terhune Herrick. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1889.

THE singular episode in the last years of the Duke of Wellington which is revealed by these letters and accompanying papers, does not require any attention from the public. Miss J. was a young lady of good family who, after converting a murderer and restoring him to heaven from the gallows, became possessed of the idea that God, who she believed directed every trivial action of her life, intended her to convert the Duke. She was not aware at the time that he was the conqueror of Napoleon, but knew him only as a public man. She sent letters to him, and he, having the courteous habit of replying personally to all letters, acknowledged their receipt. What led him to call upon her, passes our surmise; but he did call, and was duly sermonized from the open Bible, to which his only reply was a declaration of love. Such is Miss J.'s account. He was then sixty-five years old and she twenty. The conduct of the Duke made Miss J. believe that God meant to glorify himself by making her the Duchess. She had fallen in love with the Duke. But, as the letters go on, it occurred to her that the Duke's intention had been misunderstood, and she wrote an indignant and most scornful letter, to which he replied by a formally worded note of apology. He afterwards pointed out to her that he could not make himself ridiculous by marrying her. The correspondence, far from stopping, continued for seventeen years, with an interval of four years. It is entirely tedious, except for the unconscious humor which occasionally results from the contact of two such persons. Miss J. indulged to the end her delusion that the Duke would at last be converted and marry her. She addresses him in affectionate terms, but at the same time loads him with complaints and with contempt for his worldly dignities. His signing his notes "W." and using a plain seal throw her into a fury of indignation; he then retreats to using the third person with all his titles, but this is more unsatisfactory; she rebukes him for burning her letters, thinking that it "was a sin in the sight of God to destroy epistles intended for his everlasting good"; she sends him letters for the Queen, warning her against the folly of confiding too much in her unregenerate counsellor, and asks him to deliver them, but he refuses. He, on his side, usually confines himself to acknowledging receipt of letters, or to interest in her health, or to information concerning his movements from place to place; time and again he suggests that she write no more, and more than once he, after some ridiculous complaint she makes of his conduct, refuses to write again, but to no purpose.

Her letters were frequent and long—one is mentioned of nineteen sides of paper; if they are not acknowledged, she sends copies of the previous ones with a new one; she, in the last resort, "defies" him in her Diary. He, however, did not often call after the first years. One day, after one of these calls, he was reproached for "brushing up his chair to me with so much familiarity"—an incident which causes her to demand back a lock of her hair she had given him in exchange for one of his own. The Duke, upon this, presents his compliments very sharply, denies ever having had a lock of her hair, and winds up: "The Duke is not aware that he has been guilty of *presumption*, of *daring presumption*." At all events, he gave up calling. So the correspondence drags on; and the wonder is that the Duke exhibited so much consideration and patience towards the monomaniac.

It all ends at last, to cap the irony of it to the worldly-minded, in Miss J.'s losing her property and falling ill and appealing to the Duke for money. She did this very unwillingly and on the solicitation of her sister; but the Duke could not get her to say how much nor by what channel, and, though apparently willing to assist her, it all ended in an "indignant" letter. Just before his death he finally stopped writing. She afterwards came to the United States, where she died. The story has now "leaped to light," but whatever construction be put upon it, the whole affair seems too trivial and ridiculous to call for publication. The Duke was certainly kind and forbearing, and Miss J. an unusually impertinent and troublesome person.

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Amount.....		$12,167,986 34

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A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending December 31, 1888, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the seventh of May next.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, 1889.

The Week.

THE meeting of the Executive Committee of the Civil-Service Reform League last week ended in the appointment of a committee to investigate and report on the civil service of the Government, both in its relations to the Civil-Service Law and to the principle of civil-service reform. Mr. W. D. Foulke of Indiana, the well-known Republican civil-service reformer of that State, is the Chairman, will reside in Washington during the winter, and will do the greater portion of the work. Mr. Sherman S. Rogers of Buffalo, and Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte of Baltimore, also Republicans who voted for Harrison, and Mr. Richard H. Dana of Boston, are the other members. Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia declined to serve on account of his health, but he contributes handsomely to the expenses, and will print and distribute widely a pamphlet containing the civil-service reform pledges both of the President and of the Republican party, with some cognate matter. Due credit will be given by the Committee for whatever good in this field President Harrison has accomplished—for it must be admitted that his administration of the Civil-Service Act has been, on the whole, very faithful. In other words, it will extenuate nothing, and set down nothing in malice, but it will seek to let light in on the whole administrative machine.

Superintendent Porter of the Census Bureau is quoted as complaining of the assaults of the office-seekers, and describing his position as "waist deep in Congressmen" after offices for constituents. We are very glad to hear that he is having a bad time of it. Porter was last year the editor of a Republican organ which called for "the further extension of the reform system, already established by law, to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable"; and who yet, when appointed head of a bureau with 2,500 subordinates to which that system was applicable, opposed its extension so as to cover them. If he is now bored almost to death by the spoilsmen, it is just what he deserves.

The Republican Boys have adopted a new constitution, which, according to the best authorities, consolidates their Machine into the most compact trading organization that the city has ever seen. They have abolished the annual enrolment of members, and taken the question of admission of new members into their own hands. They have voted down a resolution forbidding trading by the district leaders, and have, by an overwhelming vote, decided that such trading is not only praiseworthy and patriotic, but is the chief thing that "we are here for." In fact, the Boys have "bounced" the Better Element, slammed the door of the fold behind them, and started business for themselves as a Trading and Dealing Company, all rights reserved, quick sales and prompt deliveries to the highest bidders, no matter what their political faith or previous condition of party servitude. "Tom" Platt, who had a scheme of his own for organizing the Machine to be used by himself alone for trading, is left completely in the cold, for the Boys are determined to have for themselves whatever profits there may be in the business. They propose to receive John J. O'Brien into the fold again at an early day, and by the time the next national campaign opens they will be in readiness for, and in expectation of, the briskest season of business that they have ever known.

How completely a secret ballot thwarts the best laid plans and hopes of the politicians was shown clearly by the result of the city election at Meriden, Conn., on Tuesday week. The city, for many years a Republican stronghold, has of late shown a steady Democratic growth, and was carried by Mr. Cleveland in 1888 by the handsome plurality of 339, as compared with 54 in 1884. Made presumptuous by success, the Democrats last week tried to put in a bad city ticket, and brought to its aid all the force of a compact and well-drilled local organization. The election was held under the new Connecticut Secret-Ballot Law, itself very imperfect as compared with the Australian scheme. Although the carefully kept tallies of the Democratic workers indicated that some 200 more voters of their party faith than Republicans entered the booths, and the Republican workers admitted Democratic success at the close of the polling, yet the count of the ballots brought forth a general Republican victory, with a majority of 243 for the candidate for Mayor. Not many examples of the kind are needed to show why the political bosses so obstinately resist ballot reform.

Speaker Reed's committee appointments average very well, and especial praise is due for the composition of the Committee on the Civil Service, nearly all of whom are known as stanch defenders of the existing law, and some of them as favorable to that "further extension of the reform system" demanded and promised by the Republican national platform. A good deal of foolish talk is heard about the fact that most of the chairmanships go to the West under Mr. Reed, while they went to the South under Mr. Carlisle. The explanation is that the strength of the party which is now dominant is in the West, while in the three previous Houses it was in the South. How little weight such matters have with the voters is shown by the fact that eight years ago a House of Representatives elected a Republican Speaker who gave the chairmanships to Northern Representatives, and that in 1882, after one session of that body, the people elected another House of Representatives, which contained 196 Democrats out of 325 members.

Senator Blair has secured from the Committee on Education and Labor a favorable report upon his "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," as was to have been expected, most of the members of that Committee having endorsed the measure time and again in the past. But though the Committee on Education and Labor may show no change, there has been during these years a revolution in the public sentiment of the country regarding the scheme until, as that Minnesota Republican journal, the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, says, "nobody believes in it but a few sentimentalists and surplus-killers." A striking illustration of this change in sentiment is afforded by the present attitude of the Cleveland *Leader*, a thorough-going Republican organ of Ohio. At first the *Leader* favored the Blair bill, but now it considers "it quite certain, from the tone of the journals of the country, that the revival of the Blair Educational Bill or the introduction of any measure proposing national aid to education will meet with small favor." It points out that no part of President Harrison's message has been so earnestly dissented from by Republican newspapers as the section in which he endorsed this idea, and, after quoting the deliverances of the Hartford *Courant*, the Buffalo *Express*, and the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, it says: "Such comments from journals in such widely separated as well as such strongly Republican sections cannot be misunderstood. They are by no means all that might be quoted. Papers that have endorsed the recommendation have done so for the most part in a merely perfunctory way, while many have treated it with silent disregard. It is very evident that public feeling has set in strongly against this scheme, and the less time Congress spends over it the better."

There is something almost sublime in the audacity of Gov. Foraker's friends in petitioning the President to appoint him as Minister to Russia. He has been repudiated in an unmistakable manner by his own party in Ohio after many years of service, being defeated by several thousands of votes while the remainder of the Republican ticket was elected; and simultaneously with this repudiation came the disclosure that he had been the adviser and abettor in an effort to defeat his competitor for the Governorship by means of a campaign forgery. He accepted that forgery as genuine, though it involved Senator Sherman and Congressmen McKinley and Butterworth of his own party, and he gave it to Mr. Halstead, the editor of the chief Republican organ of the State, who suppressed the Republican names on the forged document and published only that of the Democratic candidate for Governor. He himself used the forged document as genuine in his campaign speeches, and declined to make retraction when the forgery had been exposed. An investigation by Congress has been ordered, at which Gov. Foraker should testify. To send him to Russia

while this is pending would be scandalous. That such a proposal should be made is as preposterous as Mr. Halstead's conduct in continuing to denounce daily in his newspaper all kinds of reform and reformers as "frauds" and "humbugs," while at the same time confessing that he published so much of a campaign forgery as was damaging to his opponents, and suppressed so much of it as would have damaged his party friends.

Gov. Hill's conduct in depriving the Albany *Argus* of State printing which that paper has had, whenever the Democratic party has been in power in the State, for seventy-five years, and awarding it to his personal organ, the Albany *Times*, is exciting much comment for various reasons. The new editorial mouthpiece is a man who has served one term in the penitentiary, and is generally believed to have been entitled to another. In 1864, though he had been elected as a Democratic member, he received a "loan" of $1,200 from the Republicans, was elected by them to the Speakership, and organized the Assembly as a Republican body. In return for this service he was appointed to a Federal office by a Republican President, and, while holding that office, was found guilty of collecting fees for illegal purposes, and was sentenced to the Albany Penitentiary for a term of years. Since his assumption of editorial functions he has been a persistent "knifer" of his party's candidates, and has conducted a newspaper which has won neither the confidence nor the respect of any honest man in any party. The *Times* is not a Democratic but a Hill paper. In fact, except as the personal organ of the Governor, it has no excuse for existence. It has attacked Mr. Cleveland venomously for years, opposing his election to the Presidency in 1884 and in 1888. It has had this superiority to Gov. Hill, that it has done its fighting against its party's candidate openly. So far as ability, influence, and circulation go, it has none worth mentioning, being, in fact, one of the most insignificant newspapers in the State. That the Governor should openly take his stand in its support, after its political course of the past few years, thus coming out without further concealment as an anti-Cleveland man, is taken in many quarters as an indication that he was greatly enraged by Mr. Cleveland's Boston speech, and has decided to make "war" upon him. If this be the correct view of his conduct, we are inclined to the opinion that it is an excellent thing for the Democratic party.

The death of Henry W. Grady, editor of the Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution*, removes the most conspicuous journalist in the South, for, although not yet forty years of age, his name was better known than that of any other editor in that part of the country. This sudden ending of his career is the more impressive from the fact that the disease which caused his death was contracted during his recent trip to Boston, where he made a speech on the race question which attracted national attention. Mr. Grady proved himself again by that speech, as by one delivered in this city two years ago, an exceedingly effective orator of that somewhat florid school which is steadily losing its old hold, but which still occasionally produces an effort of great power over the audience that hears it. His latest appearance was by far the most effective of all his appeals to the public, as it combined with abounding rhetoric an uncommon amount of sound philosophy upon the issues which underly the existing difficulties in the Southern situation.

The letter of a Little Rock correspondent of the *Evening Post* points out "two or three leading ideas" upon which satisfactory liquor legislation has been carried out—strange as it may appear to some readers—in Arkansas. Think of the license tax having been increased until it is $1,200 annually in towns and $700 in the rural districts, in such a remote and primitive community as Arkansas! Each county, moreover, is required to decide every two years, at the general election, whether license shall prevail during the next two years or not, and this must be determined by an affirmative majority—if, for example, a vote on the question be not taken, prohibition ensues. Moreover, in subdivisions of a license county, even ("within three miles of any church or school-house"), a majority of the men and women may exclude the sale of liquor from their neighborhood. This is the very flower of high license and local option. The correspondent's observation that the State has no power to punish violation of a liquor statute we understand as an approximate phrase, to be read in connection with his following sentences. Certainly there is no real power of suppression save through the courts and officers of those communities which are determined that the law shall be enforced. This letter makes it clear that New York may learn one lesson of civilization from Arkansas.

The *Dry Goods Economist* of this city has prepared a memorial to Congress showing how the duties on wool are strangling the woollen industry in this country, and the argument it offers is one of the strongest we have seen. It is by no means radical in its demands, being limited to a change in the rates from specific to ad-valorem. How the present rates operate to protect the European manufacturer at the expense of the American is shown by an illustration from actual experience. "This office," says the *Economist*, "had in its possession a short time ago"—

(1.) A sample of Cape wool that costs 8 cents per pound, on which the duty is 10 cents per pound, or 125 per cent.

(2.) A sample of "tops" made from the same wool, the cost of which was 33 cents per pound, on which the duty is 60 cents per pound, or 181 per cent.

(3.) A sample of yarn made from these "tops," the cost of which was 52 cents per pound and the duty 18 cents per pound and 18 per cent. ad valorem, or in all 70 per cent.

(4.) A sample of cloth made from the above yarn which, the cost abroad being less than 80 cents (about 78 cents) per pound, pays a duty of 35 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem, or, in all, 81 per cent.

That is to say, our American woollen-manufacturers are given the opportunity to try and earn a living under this beneficent tariff:

Raw wool	125	per cent.
Wool tops	181	do do
Yarn	70	do do
Finished cloth	81	do do

Is it any marvel that the foreign wool which we must import, either to supply the deficiency in our own clip or to furnish the necessary variety of stock, comes to us in the form of cloth under an American tariff which protects the European mill from 50 to 100 per cent.?

We understand that the movement represented by the *Economist* has the support of the leading houses in New York engaged in manufacturing and handling woollen goods.

"They manage these things better in France." So thinks Mr. T. C. Search, who writes a letter to the Philadelphia *Manufacturer* to show that the French tariff protects the *manufacturer* of woollens, not the operative in woollen mills, since the latter already works for lower wages than the English operative. The French principle, Mr. Search thinks, ought to be boldly avowed and frankly adopted in this country. As for the wool-grower, let him have whatever rate of duty Congress will give him. Then let the manufacturer have rates sufficiently high to insure him the home market anyhow. Let *him* be protected as well as labor. This view meets the approval of the editor of the *Manufacturer*, who thinks it very strange that the moment a manufacturer suggests that he needs protection *for himself* there should be a general howl of denunciation against the "robber baron." There is nothing like frankness. Will not Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson construct a reply on scientific grounds to the argument of Mr. Search?

The *Manufacturer* does some good work in the matter of Philadelphia local politics. In its last number it examines the notion, which has gained currrency in the Quaker City, that if McManes loses control of the Tax Office, he will be weaker politically than he has been for many years, and that therefore he is going to "make a bitter fight to retain the control." McManes, it should be observed, is not in the Tax Office himself, and does not desire to be. In fact, he is not in any office. He is one among a million or more of private citizens—an adopted citizen, too. But there is this peculiarity about McManes, that he is the only one of the million who will be cast down if he does not control the Tax Office, and the only one about whose control of the Tax Office there is any public agitation or concern whatsoever. Long familiarity with McManes's claim to control the Tax Office and the other offices has bred a habit of mind among Philadelphians to take all of McManes's claims as matters of course, like the weather. They are part and parcel of daily life. Citizens have insensibly acquired a mental posture which incapacitates them for looking at the Tax Office as a machine of their own devising for collecting revenue and paying it into the treasury. They see it, as it were, through an inverting telescope, at a long distance, and wrong side up; and they see McManes not as an ordinary taxpayer like themselves, but as a Khedive or Mahdi. Such, in sub-

stance, is the description which the *Manufacturer* supplies to the boss system in Philadelphia. Yet, if we remember rightly, this powerful journal has been in the habit of speaking lightly of New York as a city ruled by foreigners.

The October Consular Report, issued by the Bureau of Statistics for the Department of State, has a very interesting contribution, from Minister Abbott of Bogota, to the literature of the Pan-American movement, which we cordially commend to the attention of the enthusiasts who think that the reason why we have but little trade with South America is, that we have no subsidized steamers to carry the mails, or that our flag is so seldom seen in South American ports. He gives his reasons for the fact that practically "all commercial relations have always been with England and France." "The Colombian," he truly says, "may admire the institutions of the great Republic, but he is not for that reason willing to pay a friend, however dear to him, four cents for a yard of cotton cloth which he can buy of some one else for two-and-a-half cents." What is oddest in this controversy about South America is that all Americans do business on exactly the same principles as the Pan-Americans. Nobody here buys goods, either home or foreign, at higher prices than he would pay elsewhere because he admires the character of the maker and had known him as a boy. No one thinks of paying an English manufacturer who sympathized with the North in the rebellion 30 per cent. more for his cotton or cutlery than the same articles could be got for from a manufacturer who sympathized with the rebels. No American manufacturer refuses to seek a market in any district at home because the railroad which would carry his goods had no land-grant. Any American who acted in his business as some try to think the Pan-Americans act, would be considered crazy in the short interval which would elapse before his bankruptcy.

Mr. Edward Bellamy, author of 'Looking Backward,' who has discovered in what he calls "Nationalism" an easy device for abolishing all those ills from which the race has suffered ever since the creation of man, delivered a speech in Boston last Thursday which "closed with an eloquent picture of the peaceful and prosperous era which is to come when, Nationalism having triumphed, there shall be no tariffs, no race issue, no intemperance, no labor question, no poverty." We note but one omission in this beatific catalogue. Mr. Bellamy should have added, "and no human nature."

The pastor of the First Baptist Church (colored) in Kansas City, Kan., resorted to a device for circumventing his adversaries at a meeting held for the election of officers on Saturday week, which we commend to the attention of politicians charged with the fixing of primaries and caucuses. The church is rent by internal dissensions, as churches so often are, the pastor, the Rev. J. R. Jones, being at the head of one faction, which, however, contains only a minority of the members. Being unable to make head against his enemies by voting, Mr. Jones staved off defeat by calling on one of his own followers to "engage in prayer" whenever a hostile motion came before the meeting. The opposition bore with this for some time, but at last their patience was exhausted, and they fired a volley of chairs and hymn-books at G. W. Smith when, in response to the pastor's call, he took up the weary task of praying against time. "Then," says the despatch, "followed a general riot," in which the negroes' favorite weapon, the razor, was freely used, and much "pounding" was done with chairs. We believe there used to be scenes of this sort in some of the early councils of the Eastern Church, and Gibbon takes unseemly delight in recalling them; but the appearance of the razor in church quarrels is, we think, absolutely new, and rather startling. We wish it might be the means of throwing some light on the origin of the negro's love of the razor as a weapon both of defence and offence. We have never seen the matter adequately discussed, and yet it is very interesting. It can hardly be due to the connection of the colored race with the barber's business, because this business suggests the scissors to a fighting man much more cogently than the razor. The scissors are admirably adapted for stabbing, while apparently the handle of the razor makes it as dangerous for the owner as his adversary in anything like a tussle. The best thing that can be said for it is that it is, as a concealed weapon, very easy to carry, and a great deal of cutting may doubtless be done with it without inflicting mortal wounds. The despatch does not tell us what happened after the riot. It must be difficult for a church to take up "unfinished business" after an experience of this sort.

The way in which the city is being relieved of its electric lights is in all respects worthy of the way in which they were supplied. It is altogether suitable that a new system of municipal lighting, created under the superintendence of a butcher, a theatrical ticket agent, and a saucy young lawyer, should be got rid of by cutting down the poles with an axe and plunging the town in darkness. This is the way the King of Dahomey would deal with the problem, and we have, in the government of this city, been in many ways close imitators of that monarch's methods. We may feel sure, however, that no great city which has once been lighted by electricity, will go back permanently to gas. We shall have electric lights in New York again, but we shall get them in civilized fashion. They ought to have been supplied in the beginning under rules carefully drawn by a board of electrical experts, prescribing the size and nature of the wires, the intensity of the currents, the mode of transmission to houses and street lamps, so as to secure the maximum of light with a minimum of danger and inconvenience. What we want now is the abolition of the present Board by an act of the Legislature, and the creation of a new one composed of competent electricians. In other words, we must begin all over again. No company will, of course, embark in the business of supplying electric lights which is liable to have its errors or shortcomings remedied by the wholesale destruction of its property by bands of laborers armed with hatchets. We must have the whole matter put under a carefully prepared law, with its execution committed to competent hands.

The charges against the Dock Commissioners, the attacks on the Aqueduct Commissioners after the failure of the attempt to oust Gen. Duane, and the summary and curious way in which the street-cleaning problem was disposed of by the Board of Apportionment last week, make it plain that we are witnessing the full development of the Tammany policy. It is a very much shrewder and more careful policy than it used to be, and shows a much greater respect for public opinion than in old times. It has been greatly helped by the Fair project, which has done a good deal to turn public attention away from Mayor Grant's administration of the real affairs of the city, by the bungle of the electric-lighting enterprise under the auspices of the absurd Commission imposed on Mayor Grace, and by the blunder of Mayor Hewitt and the County Democracy in the election of Colonel Fellows to the District Attorneyship. All these things, and others like them, have prepared the public to treat Tammany with a consideration which nobody who remembers its last term of municipal office, expected to see before the close of the century at least. It has received this, too, in spite of several conclusive marks of indifference to the best interests of the city. One was the ouster of Mr. Bayles from the Presidency of the Board of Health; another was the appointment of Mr. Clark to the Corporation Counselship; another was the change in the chief examinership of the Civil-Service Boards; another still was the change made in the Excise Board in the interest of the liquor-dealers. All these were distinctly retrogressive steps, intended to undo, and actually undoing, the work of reform wrought by Mayors Grace and Hewitt. The way in which the street-cleaning problem has been disposed of is as good an illustration as one could desire of the way in which the Tammany régime approaches the real municipal questions. The condition of the streets of the city stands in the very front rank of these questions. The work of the Street-Cleaning Commissioner is clearly defined by law. It is in the power of the Board of Apportionment to allow him as much money as may be necessary for the purpose of doing this work, and it is the duty of the Mayor to see that he does it. Not only has no attempt been made to see that he does it, but the Mayor has declared openly that he knows nothing about the matter. His present attitude leaves him open to the suspicion that he is not much concerned about the matter as long as a certain number of good Tammany voters draw regular pay as street-cleaners from the city treasury; and the abolition of the contract system gives color to this suspicion.

POLITICAL TREND OF YOUNG VOTERS.

MR. CLEVELAND'S recent observation, to the effect that the enterprising and thoughtful young men of the country are turning to the Democratic rather than to the Republican party, is, as might have been expected, warmly disapproved of by the Republican press. The *Tribune* professes to doubt if he "conceived his words in truth and soberness," and expresses its belief that he is mistaken. As proof that he is mistaken, the *Tribune* gives two, and only two, reasons for thinking that young men cannot be attracted to the Democratic party. The first is Gov. Hill of New York, and the anti-reform attitude into which his leadership has conducted the Democratic party of the State. The second is free trade, which it declares to be the last analysis of tariff reform. Both these it regards as calculated to repel from the Democratic party all young men who are in the best sense enterprising and thoughtful.

It is noticeable that the chief organ of the party contents itself with stating the objectionable attributes, as it sees them, of the Democratic party, and does not mention any attractive attributes of the Republican party. Its statement of the former may properly be taken as the strongest that can be made, and as such is an interesting subject for analysis. So far as Gov. Hill is concerned, no one can question that he is a repelling influence of considerable force. He has unquestionably prevented many voters, both young and old, from leaving the Republican party by serving as a bugaboo of Democratic depravity. We are not disposed to underestimate in the slightest degree the harmful influence which he has exerted in this way. But when all is said that can be said on this point, the fact remains that Gov. Hill is an anomaly in his party. He has no following outside the State of New York, and his ascendency here is accidental, and will in all probability come to an end with his present term as Governor in 1891. In other parts of the country his party is unanimous in favor of the chief reform which he opposes, that of our election methods, and in this State an overwhelming majority of it is opposed to his attitude. He undoubtedly has control of the party's machinery, but he does not represent its best judgment or most advanced opinion. He may serve to frighten away some young voters hereabouts, but has very little effect of that kind in the country at large.

When we come to the *Tribune's* second bugaboo, that of free trade, we are inclined to the opinion that even the *Tribune* itself is aware of the fact that this has seen its best days. Our contemporary admits that "hundreds of young men leave college every year imbued with free-trade ideas," but declares that "very many of them, just as soon as they are confronted with a condition and not a theory, become protectionists." That depends upon the condition, and he is a very careless observer who has not discovered that the condition which confronts many of the young men who are manufacturers to-day is a very different one from what it was a few years ago. All through New England there are young manufacturers who are confronted with a condition of ruin to the business which they have inherited from their fathers unless they can break down the protection system sufficiently to secure free raw materials. The demands for free wool, free coal, and free iron come from these young men. They have discovered that their fathers, relying too implicitly upon the support of a high tariff, have not kept up with the rest of the world in regard to improved machinery and other methods for cheapening and bettering production. They find themselves with old mills filled with worn and antiquated machinery fit only to produce goods which the world no longer wants. To rebuild and refurnish the mills, to start on a par with other manufacturers and to keep going after they have started, they must have cheaper raw materials and a wider market in which to sell. It does not alter the convictions of the young men thus confronted to hold "Dave" Hill up before them, or to call them free-traders. They are fighting for existence, and they will vote with the party that favors the principles which are most likely to give them what they seek.

As for the young men who are not directly or indirectly interested in manufacturing, and who have come out of college "imbued with free-trade ideas," there are few of them who become protectionists. The young men of the country are mainly of the salaried class, and small-salaried at that. These are beginning to realize the tax which a high tariff levies upon them, in the item of clothing especially, and to a less degree in the other necessaries of life. The free-trade ideas which they have brought from college are only a part of those with which they were "imbued" there concerning the proper functions of popular government and their own duties as American citizens. They were taught high ideals in politics, taught respect for learning and experience, taught to look up to the scholars and thinkers of their own and other lands for guidance.

Now, what does the Republican party of to-day offer to the young men who have come from our schools and colleges with such ideals? In the first place, it offers them the spectacle of a President who came into office under the most solemn personal and party pledges to conduct his Administration upon reform lines, and who has broken every one of them in a more brazen manner than any previous President has ever done. It offers them an Administration conducted upon sordid business principles, with rejected and disgraced political bosses in charge of the distribution of public offices; with a shopkeeper, who was given his place because he raised a large sum of money for campaign purposes, in a Cabinet position which he is using for advertising purposes for his wares; with a Republican press whose principal editors have been muzzled by appointments by the President to public office, excusing and defending the President in all that he does, including the appointment of his relatives to office, and at the same time denouncing the college presidents and professors and other intellectual leaders of the country as "theorists," "visionaries," "humbugs," "free-traders," and "Democrats." Does all this constitute a magnet for "enterprising and thoughtful young men"? Are they going to be scared by the names of "free-trader" and "Democrat" when they hear the men whom they have been taught to honor above all others denounced as such? Are they going to be made to believe that the Republican party is a better party than the Democratic after this demonstration? What influence will it have with them to say, after the conduct of the Harrison Administration, that the country can obtain more reforms and a purer and abler public service under a Republican than under a Democratic President?

COMMERCIAL RETALIATION.

THE last number of *Bradstreet's* contains the outlines of a correspondence between Mr. Denison B. Smith, Secretary of the Toledo Board of Trade, and Secretary Blaine, touching the exclusion of American pork from France and Germany, and also the high rates of duty imposed by those and other countries of the continent of Europe on wheat and flour. The suggestion is made by Mr. Smith that retaliatory steps ought to be taken by the United States, and that one such step might be easily taken by the prohibition of French and German wines and other articles "not actually indispensable to our people." The reply of the State Department is given in these words:

> "I desire to assure you that this Department has used and is earnestly using all proper diplomatic means to effect the withdrawal of the German and French prohibitions. The ultimate questions of retaliation are for Congress to consider, giving serious weight to the problem of embarking on a policy of reprisals the logical consequences of which are not readily to be foreseen or limited."

It is now ten years since Germany began to discriminate against American pork. It is nearly that length of time since our Minister at Berlin got himself into hot water diplomatically by writing a confidential letter, which unluckily found its way into the newspapers, saying that the exclusion of American pork was a device to protect German industry rather than German health. From the time that Minister Sargent's letter appeared to the present, it has been a cardinal doctrine on this side of the Atlantic that the exclusion was an economical and not a sanitary measure, and that the same was true of the like measure adopted by France. There has been hardly any concealment in the latter country. The right of every producer to prey upon every consumer, and to be preyed upon in turn, is an article of faith in France, like transubstantiation; but it is not for us to challenge comparisons upon that point. If the French peasants and pork-butchers want to have the American article excluded, they would be much surprised at any opposition to so reasonable a demand. Very likely they would take the same ground that the Ohio shepherds have taken regarding wool, viz., that if their demand is not complied with, they will smash the whole system. Such a threat would be apt to bring any ministry to terms.

The subject might seem to divide itself into two parts, one relating to the absolute exclusion of our pork and the other relating to the excessive duties on our grain. But such a distinction would be unprofitable. A duty of 100 per cent. would suffice for all the purposes of exclusion. If France and Germany should ask us whether a duty of 100 per cent. on pork would suit us, we should say no, if we told the truth. Yet we have duties exceeding 100 per cent. on many articles of French and German manufacture. If it be said that it is invidious to treat our pork differently from other people's, we must still acknowledge that this is not the gravamen of our complaint, since, if France and Germany should respond by excluding other people's pork also, we should be no better satisfied than we are now. It would cost them very little to extend the exclusion to other countries, since it is only our competition that their pork-producers fear. Why, then, do they not do so? Simply because the act would expose as a sham the former pretence that our pork is diseased while other people's is not.

When we come to the high duties on cereals maintained by France, Germany, and Portugal, and which are likely to be adopted by Spain, the less we say about retaliation the better. Nobody can beat us at that game. In fact, we retaliated before they did. We had a duty of twenty cents per bushel on wheat when Germany had no duty at all. We have a tax of fifteen cents per bushel on potatoes now, while Germany admits them free. We have rather prided ourselves on giving the farmer his full measure of protection, and he has believed until lately that it was the acme of human wisdom to pay two prices for what he buys, without any chance to recoup himself on what he sells.

Now he discovers that other countries have learned the trick. There can be no doubt that the prices of our grains and our meats have been seriously depressed by the protective legislation and the protective decrees of foreign countries. The action taken by the Farmers' Alliance at St. Louis the other day and the letter of Mr. Denison Smith equally attest this fact. But is retaliation likely to yield any satisfactory result? Seeing that we "retaliated" fifteen or twenty years before France and Germany did, that we changed our commercial policy from low tariff to high tariff at a time when they were changing from high to low, that we really led the way to the slough of commercial restrictions in which all three countries now find themselves, would it not be the wisest course for us to lead the way back, instead of plunging in deeper by excluding French and German wines and other articles "not actually indispensable to our people"? Will a hair of the same dog cure the bite? We robbed Peter to pay Paul when we adopted the Morrill tariff. Will it help matters to repeat the operation on a larger scale? Why should the buyers of French and German wines be punished? What have they done that they should be selected for chastisement? They have contributed nothing to the embroilment between the three countries. Nor can it be shown that vicarious punishment inflicted upon them would cause France and Germany to change their policy.

On the other hand, there is good reason to believe that they would follow us in steps towards greater freedom of trade if they should see us moving in that direction. It was freely predicted by German publicists last year that if Mr. Cleveland were reëlected, the protection policy of Germany would receive a mortal blow; the example of a liberal commercial policy in the United States could not be resisted. German industry is staggering under the tariff, and German workmen are on the point of revolt against the high prices of food which the tariff has caused. German exports of manufactured goods declined 10 per cent. last year in the face of an increase of English exports, and this fact is now a subject of much agitation among the commercial bodies of the empire. It needs only a little pushing to topple over the protection system which Bismarck has reared. The one thing which would strengthen that tottering structure would be "retaliation" on the part of the United States. The Germans are a high-spirited people. Anything which should appeal to their pride and pugnacity would play into the hands of the land-owning aristocracy, for whose benefit the duties on food products are maintained. The thing which they could not long resist would be a policy of liberality and commercial conciliation on our part.

MR. WINDOM'S HUE AND CRY.

THE comments made in Secretary Windom's annual report on custom-house frauds are so diffuse, and so dispersed over the long document, that correct appreciation and concise criticism of them are difficult. Early in those comments is this statement:

"Foreign manufacturers are compelled to maintain their extensive establishments in order to manufacture at the minimum cost, and as this is the only country that will buy more than is needed for present demand, it becomes, at such times, the dumping ground for all manufacturing Europe. For a long time past a considerable proportion, at least of articles of certain lines of importations, has been of this class. They have been sold here below, in fact without regard to, the cost of production, the manufacturers looking to their own and foreign markets, which they control, for their profit."

It was not intended thereby, as we assume, to complain that our consumers are thus enabled to buy cheaply what they require, but to show that by such a process tariff taxes are lessened, and our manufacturers exposed to more severe foreign competition. Further on there is a complaint like that made by Secretary Fairchild, that foreign manufacturers, following now the general course everywhere, at home and abroad, send their goods and wares to the great markets on consignment to their agents in those markets. That course of business we cannot expect to stop. Our customs law has, however, attempted a remedy of what Secretary Windom intimates is an evil, but that remedy is not enforced. Any one can see what the attempted remedy is by glancing at the last sentence of section 2900 of the Revised Statutes, which prevents assessing of duty on less than the *invoice* value, and by glancing at a clause in section 2854, which declares that a manufacturer must invoice at "the actual market value at the *time* and place" of manufacture. If that law were executed, Mr. Windom's complaints should not exist. Our consumers of imported goods pay nearly a million a year to support consuls to enforce the invoice laws, but their efforts are useless. They really do not make any efforts worth mentioning. A column or two further on in his report the Secretary urges a repeal of an invoice requirement, when he says:

"The declaration should state that the invoice represents the actual market value of the merchandise in the principal markets of the country whence exported, instead of the time and place when and where procured or manufactured, as now required by the statute, so that the declaration may conform to the legal basis of appraisement."

That will permit the "dumping" manufacturer to do legally what the Secretary complains of, and it will modify section 2854. As the law now is, the tax must be levied on the higher invoice value, no matter how much less value the appraiser may report as dutiable value at *time of shipment*.

A little more detail and a reference to the Revised Statutes are needed to clear up, for the average Congressman, this mediæval business.

If the fair market value of a yard of silk, woven at Lyons, was, on the day of the completed weaving, 30 francs, but if, a year afterwards, that value had fallen to 20 francs, and the manufacturer then consigned it to New York for sale, he must (section 2854) put 30 (not 20) francs in the invoice as the invoice value. If the manufacturer inserts 20 instead of 30, the consul is bound to refuse to certify the invoice as correct, but he does not refuse. When the consignee enters the silk at New York, he must (section 2785) present the invoice which has been certified by the consul as a true invoice; he must, in his entry-paper, declare the value contained in the invoice; he can increase that value (never diminish it) only on one contingency (section 2900), which is when he believes the dutiable value greater than the invoice value, and then he may add on the entry to make market value, and avoid a penalty of 20 per cent. on the appraised value (confiscation of one-fifth), in addition to the ordinary tax, if the appraisement exceeds the entry by ten per cent. or more. On the other hand, the appraising officer must ascertain and report (section 2902) to the Collector the true market value at *time* of shipment (not of manufacture), which may be 20 (not 30) francs, but yet the Collector must (section 2900) levy duty on not less than 30 francs. We do not vindicate that law, but any Congressman can see that, if it were executed, foreign manufacturers could not dump their rubbish on us at rubbish valuations. It is not executed, because it cannot be by such consular and appraising officers as are now in the Treasury service. They might as well try to swim across the Atlantic. Our consuls know next to nothing of values; their verifications of invoices are perfunctory; our appraising officers blindly

follow the invoice values unless a rival importer or a manufacturer "puts up a job." But yet the protectionists fear that if they "let up" by the least bit, and alleviate the barbaric stringency of the laws, the protective system will come down with a run.

A long distance further on, Mr. Windom's report deals with what the author describes as "the *alarming* prevalence of undervaluation." Of course undervaluation abounds. It always has and always will under such a preposterous tariff as ours. Undervaluation is the rule and not the exception. Mr. Windom superficially endeavors to fasten the greater part of the evil on consigning manufacturers and on New York. He endorses this statement:

"During the last year the proportion of the importations for the whole country which are free of duty, or which pay purely specific rates, the latter including such articles of common use as salt, soda, tin plates, and glass, entered at New York, ranged variously from 34 to 63 per cent; while of articles subject to high advalorem rates, such as silks, embroideries, laces, leather, gloves, linens, cutlery, ornamental feathers, buttons, trimmings, hats, bonnets, etc., the proportion imported at that port ranged from 76 to 99 per cent., averaging over 85 per cent. of the entire importations of such goods into the United Seates. About 98 per cent. of all the silks imported into the country during the last year were entered at New York, and the average of such importations at that port for the last six years has been above 96 per cent. Fully 90 per cent. of these importations represented consignments on foreign account, and were, as a rule, undervalued."

That is a hit at New York, and takes no account of the fact that heavy and bulky articles are sent in order to save freight to the port nearest to the place of sale, while costly articles come, by the swift ocean greyhounds, to the Empire City and the Empire Market. The consular invoices and the appraisements of goods sent to ports other than the port of New York are quite as defective, and even more defective. Thereupon the Secretary exclaims:

"There is urgent need for radical reform in the system of appraisements. Under the present law it is practically *impossible* to secure uniform and just valuations. The provisions relating to the form of invoices and their consular authentication should be amended so as to give appraising officers in all cases more definite information of the actual transaction which the invoice is claimed to represent than is at present required."

But, excepting what we have mentioned, he does not and cannot suggest a change, safe for him and his party, in the law regulating invoices. As to appraisers, he commends Mr. Manning's plan for making reappraisements wholly by officials, in which a merchant shall not participate. He intimates no other remedy excepting this, which almost takes away one's breath:

"There is now no adequate means afforded by the laws for the *punishment* of fraud in the entry of merchandise. This is attested by the reports of the Secretaries of the Treasury during the last ten years. I concur in their repeated recommendations, that the statutes should be so amended as to enable the Government to obtain the forfeiture of merchandise, or its value, upon proof of false entry, placing upon the claimant the burden of proof to show innocence of fraud in the transaction. The Government is now required to prove affirmatively not only that the goods were falsely entered, but that such entry was made with fraudulent intent, and to obtain such proof is, as a rule, impossible."

When has "punishment" by forfeiture in court been attempted? Not in the port of New York by Secretary Windom. Why not, if he *knows* that custom-house frauds do so abound? "The last ten years," to which he alludes, cover a part of the period since moieties were abolished in 1874—thanks to Senator Bayard's efforts. Collectors do not seize for forfeiture now. They have not the pecuniary inducement which they had before 1874. But that repeal of moieties made no such change as Secretary Windom describes in the law of prosecution for forfeiture in court, or in the rule of presumption. Whoever wrote that part of his report was either profoundly ignorant of the law or intended to mislead Congress. There is law adequate to punish by forfeiture merchandise whose entry is actually tainted by "fraud." The law needs amendment in order to forfeit the *value* if the goods cannot be found. If the goods are in custody, the prosecution must now prove entry on a false value (if that be the charge), and, in addition, "an *actual* intention to defraud the United States" by that false entry. Under the law of 1863, if an entry was "*knowingly*" made by a false paper, the merchandise was forfeitable. An importer was presumed to *know* the law, and which papers the law declared false. If he presented such a paper, his goods were to be forfeited for a false paper intentionally presented, unless he could convince the jury that he presented it innocently or by mistake. The new law requires the prosecution to present facts convincing the jury that the acts were done "with an *actual* intention to defraud."

Why should a tariff law deprive an importer of his property, or consign him to prison, unless the Government has evidence that he had "an actual intention to defraud" the revenue? If Secretary Windom had read carefully Secretary Manning's correspondence with Mr. Justice Blatchford, published in the second volume of the Treasury report for 1885, he could not have blundered as he does. When he declares to Congress that "frauds" abound, does he not intend to say that "actual intention to defraud" abounds?

Mr. Windom and his party are between the hammer and the anvil, the devil and the deep sea. If they keep the preposterous and unconscionable invoice and collection laws on the statute-book, the laws will not and cannot be executed, smugglers and undervaluers more and more cut down dutiable values and customs taxes, and the administration of the custom-houses is more and more the scandal of scandals. But if, on the other hand, the present absurd taxes are maintained, and the monstrous stringency of the customs law alleviated, the customs revenues will be even more reduced—when the deterrent force of punishment is removed.

WAS WALPOLE CORRUPT?

No one who has made a considerable figure in the history of constitutional government has done so much service as an awful example of the evils of corruption as Sir Robert Walpole, who was Prime Minister in England under the First and Second Georges, and is generally acknowledged to have been one of the three greatest Ministers England has ever had, the other two being Pitt and Gladstone. For over a century his mode of managing the House of Commons has figured in innumerable speeches and articles as an illustration of venal government, and one of the cynical saying ascribed to him—"All men have their price"—has probably given comfort to more political knaves and pessimists than any other maxim, motto, or apothegm. (What he really said was, "These men have their price.") Sooner or later, however, all the villains in the human drama find somebody to say a good word for their memory, and Walpole has been lucky enough to find an apologist in Mr. John Morley, who has just published an extremely brilliant biography of him in the "English Statesmen Series."

Mr. Morley takes up the charges against him seriatim. The first and most famous is that Walpole used to buy the votes of members of the House for cash, which he paid without concealment. But this, Mr. Morley says, must be judged "in the light of political history." Shortly before Walpole's day the Secretaryship of State was sold for a few thousand pounds, just as the command of regiments was sold in our own day. Lord North "jobbed public loans"—that is, let in his own friends on "the ground floor"—long after Walpole's day. It was not considered at that time any more discreditable to buy the vote of a member of Parliament than it has been considered until now in England, or than President Arthur considered it, or Quay and Dorsey now consider it, to buy the vote of an elector. Members used to buy their seats in Walpole's day, and owners of rotten boroughs used to sell them, just as our bosses sell judicial and other nominations for "assessments." It probably would have been difficult to persuade a member who had paid heavily for his seat that it was any great harm to sell a vote to the Minister now and then to recoup himself. Mr. Morley, in fact, admits that Walpole did use bribery in one form or another when necessary to get or maintain his majorities, but he adds: "To say with some modern writers that Walpole organized corruption as a system, that he made corruption the normal process of parliamentary government, that he governed by means of an assembly which was saturated with corruption, is to use language enormously in excess of any produceable evidence and of all legitimate inference." A committee of investigation, mostly composed of his political enemies, sat on his career after his fall, and worked over it for ten years, and found no facts to support the allegations of bribery. "Two of the great heads of accusation," says Mr. Morley, "shrank up into miserable dimensions, and the third remained a matter of vague and unsupported inference."

The charge of using corrupt influence on elections Mr. Morley meets by showing that worse things were done by Walpole's successor than by him. Our managers would smile over the charges against Walpole under this head. He promised the Mayor of Weymouth a place in the revenue service in order to have a returning officer of the right

stripe; he dismissed some Custom-house officers for voting against the Ministry, and he advanced some money for legal proceedings in some boroughs. But then George III. bought boroughs wholesale, and got himself into debt thereby, and Lord North gave Lord Edgecombe fifteen thousand pounds for his boroughs, and Lord Falmouth seven thousand five hundred for his. But this is straining a point, because Mr. Morley has already pleaded that the traffic in boroughs was well established in Walpole's day, and he does not deny that Walpole engaged in it. What he says is, that "he never approached such a scale as this." To know whether this makes any moral difference in Walpole's favor, we must know what the comparative necessities of the two cases were. Had Walpole been as weak a man as North, and needed boroughs as much, he would doubtless have made as large purchases as the exigency called for.

Walpole was also accused of lavish use of the secret-service money which every minister has at his disposal. Mr. Morley says he spent no more of it than his predecessors and successors, and that the condition of foreign affairs was such as to account for his outlay, however large it was, without, in the absence of any direct proof, resorting to the bribery hypothesis. Moreover, if he had corrupted on the scale charged against him, it must have come to light somehow, and it never did. The kind of corruption which Walpole practised openly, without shame or scruple, was the reservation of every bit of the Crown patronage, small and great, for members of his own party, or, in other words, what we call the "spoils system"; but in this, says Mr. Morley, "he acted on the principle that is accepted in the United States, that is not disavowed in France, and that, although disavowed in Great Britain, has not even yet wholly disappeared here." The only case of direct bribery, in fact, proved against Walpole was the payment of £900, in two sums of £500 and £400 respectively, to two members, who required that amount to vote against a motion for an address to George II. asking him to settle £100,000 a year on his detested heir-apparent. The King grumbled a good deal at the amount, but Walpole held that, under the circumstances, the votes were cheap.

It will be seen from all this that Mr. Morley's defence is mainly a plea in extenuation. But he does take Walpole down from his bad eminence, and places him among the common herd of eighteenth-century corruptionists, although he towers above them all in parliamentary skill, in force of character, and in real devotion to the public service.

A CELEBRATED AMERICAN.

A RECENT number of the *Journal du Droit International Privé* contains a discussion especially interesting from various points of view to Americans. The advent of "Buffalo Bill," with his Wild West Show, in France appears to have awakened the attention not only of those merely seeking diversion, but also of lawyers and philanthropists. Aside from his being referred to in the *Journal* as "William le Buffle," he is treated with a degree of serious consideration in keeping with the importance of the legal questions which his appearance raised. The first of these is that of the extent of the protection afforded by the French law to his pseudonym and to his literary and artistic property. This question is discussed under three heads: first, his right to his name; second, to the translations of his works; third, to the scenic arrangement of his exhibitions.

By the French law of July 28, 1824, it was forbidden to put upon any commercial product a name other than that of its fabricator or proprietor, but this protection was accorded to foreigners only in case they were authorized to establish their domicile in France, or belonged to a country with which France had concluded a treaty guaranteeing reciprocity. In 1873 another law was adopted which dispensed with the necessity of conventional reciprocity, and required only actual reciprocity under the law of the foreign country. In 1869, however, there was concluded between the United States and France a convention for the protection of trademarks, which was regarded as satisfying the conditions of the law of 1824, and in 1881 the Government of the United States adopted a law which was considered as establishing legal reciprocity outside of any diplomatic arrangement. But this legislation applied only to commercial names. The patronymic of a foreigner has always received in France the same protection that the civil law accords to the names of citizens. A pseudonym has been granted a like protection, under the decisions of the courts. It is regarded as property, and may, without the observance of any previous formalities, be defended against appropriation by civil processes.

The literary works of the celebrated American in question consist of two books entitled 'Buffalo Bill's Wild West' and 'Buffalo Bill's Wild West Exhibition.' It is the opinion of the *Journal*, in respect to literary productions published abroad, that in general the foreigner enjoys in France only the protection accorded by the laws of the place of publication, whatever that protection may be, and only for the time that it continues in such place. But in respect to the publications of Buffalo Bill the matter was simplified by the fact that they were translated into French, and the translations printed in Paris and duly entered as French publications. This secured the full protection of the French law for the translations. Another question, however, arose as to the polychromatic representations of life in the Far West with which we are informed that the walls of Paris were covered, to the great distraction of passers-by. These, as artistic productions, enjoy under the French law the same, and only the same, protection as the literary works.

The combination of mimic scenes is regarded in France as a work of intelligence, and, as an intellectual creation, may be the object of appropriation. In such a case it is not necessary to inquire what protection such a representation would receive under the foreign laws. Thus it has been held by the French courts that a ballet composed of national dances of various countries so as to constitute a particular and distinctive combination is a subject of private property, which the laws will secure.

Aside, however, from questions of literary and artistic property, the exhibition of the Wild West Show in Paris provoked a controversy of a most serious and important character. Early in May one of the Indians met with an accident. Profiting by this circumstance, M. Joffrin, a member of the Municipal Council of Paris, at a session of that body held on May 31, invoked the spirit of 1789, and, with the approval of a certain number of his colleagues, offered a resolution to interdict the further representations of the celebrated American. This resolution is so remarkable that the full text should be seen. It is as follows:

> "The Council, considering that the great purpose of the Exposition of 1889 is to celebrate the centenary of 1789; that the Revolution of 1789 was the commencement of the emancipation of humanity, without distinction of sex, nationality, or color; that the Exposition and the fêtes of the centenary cannot, without ignoring that which is the reason for their existence, longer tolerate the odious exhibitions of Buffalo Bill—expresses the opinion that the Government should forthwith take measures to put an end to the exhibition."

This resolution was signed by eight members of the Municipal Council. Its consideration provoked a discussion more than animated. M. Georges Berry, a member of the Council, denounced the resolution as contrary to liberty. M. Joffrin replied in a spirited manner by asking of what liberty M. Berry spoke—whether of the liberty of the negroes who were prisoners? The discussion was continued, with increasing excitement, until M. Joffrin, amid interruptions, pronounced those who opposed his resolution to be ignorant of the facts, and declared that it was a shame, that it was unworthy of Paris and of the Government, to permit such spectacles for the pleasure of the depraved. This declaration produced an uproar during which M. Joffrin was unable to continue his speech. The general opinion of the members of the Council, who energetically disclaimed any ignorance of the character of the exhibition, was, as expressed by M. Dubois, that if the performers of Buffalo Bill were slaves, they were so voluntarily, and not within the letter or spirit of the principles declared in 1789. M. Dubois said that the show was a great attraction in an interesting quarter, and that M. Joffrin could not demand its suppression. The latter, arising to reply, was greeted with new interruptions, which were prolonged against the protests of the President of the Council, until the speaker was compelled to desist from further attempts to continue the debate.

The resolution does not appear even to have been put to a vote. Upon the debate the editor of the *Journal* makes the observation that if their ignorance of European culture did not deprive Red Shirt (*La Chemise Rouge*) and his companions of the pleasure of reading the proceedings of the Municipal Council of Paris, they would probably display a lively astonishment at seeing themselves treated as slaves.

THE AFRICAN ECLIPSE EXPEDITION—II.

NEARING ST. GEORGE HARBOR,
SIERRA LEONE, Nov. 18, 1889.

AT St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands, some 800 miles off the coast of Senegambia, and in latitude 17° north, I found a small number of people who took a kindly interest in our work, among them Mr. Lloyd, the obliging manager of the Brazilian Submarine Cable Company's offices. Mr. Lloyd has been in the island twelve or fifteen years, and finds it a delightful climate. The residences of the officials are up in the hills, where a dustless air and very even temperature prevail.

From here diverge the three great lines of the South Atlantic cables, northward to Lisbon, eastward to Africa, and southwest to Brazil. The latter lines are nearly equal in length to those between the European and North American Continents. The general offices were well stocked with maps and charts of great value, showing the exact location of the submarine cables at every point in the ocean bed, and the depths at numerous places as well. In the grounds about the Cable Company's offices we found the meridian pier used by officers of the United States Navy some ten years since in determining the long chain of South American longitudes; and, hard by, Mr. Preston set up his instruments, and made a few observations for the magnetic elements. Pendulum-swinging of course requires too much time to be essayed until Loanda is reached.

Here, too, I received the severest damper yet felt, learning of the sad death of Commander Pullen at Bonny only a few hours before. Bonny is at the "corner" in the West Coast, and Commander Pullen was just conducting a series of experiments looking to an exchange of longitude signals with my own party at St. Paul de Loanda so soon as we should arrive there. In boating about the lagoons he was so unfortunate as to fall a victim to the malignant type of malarial fever which prevails in that deadly region. But for his untimely death our eclipse station might have been connected directly with Greenwich, through St. Vincent. As it is, we shall reach Greenwich from St. Paul de Loanda through the roundabout route of the Cape, Mozambique, the Red Sea, the Mediterranean, and trans-European lines.

Mr. Preston, of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, who accompanies the Expedition by the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, has been indefatigable in availing himself of every opportunity afforded by the *Pensacola's* making port for coaling purposes. Fortunately for the progress of his work, if not for the progress of our ship towards the eclipse station, these opportunities have been frequent. First, at Fayal, in the Azores, on November 2 and 3, a complete series of magnetic observations was made, comprising the elements of declination, magnetic dip, and intensity. By the courtesy of Mr. Dabney, the American Consul at Horta, these observations were carried on in a secluded portion of the grounds surrounding the consulate. At St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands, our stay being of uncertain length, the observations for magnetic declination were necessarily abridged, but the other two elements were satisfactorily determined.

Mr. Brown, the naturalist, has made good use of his opportunities at Horta and at St. Vincent. At the former a considerable collection of fish, shells, star-fish, and sea-urchins was obtained, some very beautiful specimens of the latter being brought away in their native rocks by chipping off the pieces with large chisels. Lava and minerals were also collected; and, fortunately for the expedition, I fell in with Mr. Howe, who generously gave his time to the naturalists, and materially assisted in the collections of shells, plants, and insects. At St. Vincent large amounts of fish, shells, lobsters, and shell-fish were procured, as well as fine specimens of sea-urchins, also birds and plants in abundance. As we near the coast of Africa, porpoises and flying-fish are encountered in large numbers; but the time is too short to delay the vessel for the capture of any specimens, even if it were supposed that they might be of use. Some curious observations, thought to be new, have been made on the caudal propulsion of the flying-fish while sustaining itself above the water. Some eight miles to the south of St. Iago, while the engines of the *Pensacola* were undergoing repair and the vessel was in a dead calm, Lieutenant Nichols shot from the stern a beautiful gannet, which, when brought aboard, was found to present some interesting peculiarities.

Mr. Orr, the anthropologist from Clark University, has been prosecuting his researches among the entire company on board, and it is doubtful whether either the captain of our good ship or the chief of the expedition will escape his callipers. Having begun low down, however, among the coal-heavers and others, he finds the ship's crew extraordinarily well developed. As might be expected, being picked men, their measures place them well above the ordinary standards. A large number of different races are represented, from the Aspinwall Indian to the Dane and Norwegian. After landing at St. Vincent and returning to the ship, the anthropologist was prepared to make a generalization, which seems indisputable, that the women of the Island are greatly superior to the men in physique, if not in intellect. One is prepared for easy assent to this conclusion if he stands on the wharf and observes the knots of masculine loafers, while women carriers are doing the most, if not all, of the work, bearing on their heads and sturdy necks not only loads of coals and fruits, but even heavy burdens of lumber.

No member of the expedition is happier or doing better work, or more of it, than Prof. Abbe, the meteorologist. In a former letter I gave, I believe, some account of special observations made by himself and his corps of assistants, drawn from the younger officers of the *Pensacola*. No repetition of the waterspout has yet exhibited itself, and the opportunity of a dozen or two waterspouts in a single morning must be indeed a rare one. Some of the instantaneous photographs of those interesting phenomena observed on the morning of October 22 have, on development, been found to show some rather remarkable characteristics which the pencil sketches failed to bring out.

The philologist and interpreter of the expedition, M. Heli Chatelain, is faithfully at work, day by day, on his 'Grundzüge des Ki-mbundu,' in which the elements of this language are compared with those of Kixi-kongo, Luba, Lunda, N-mbundu, Oshi-ndonga, and Otyi-herero. Its conclusion will enable one to form an idea of the mutual relations of the chief languages of Central West Africa.

Meanwhile, it is by no means forgotten that the total eclipse of the sun the 22d of December forms our main errand. By day the preparation of the instruments goes steadily on, and a variety of optic experiments by night. In the middle of the last week the pneumatic chronograph apparatus was got together, and several instruments, spectroscopic, polariscopic, and other, were coupled to it. Although this was the first occasion in which the automatic instruments had been tried, everything operated perfectly, photographic plates changing in precise routine, and exposing shutters opening and closing at appointed instants, while the time of every movement was recorded with entire accuracy to a small fraction of a second.

The publication of the bulletin of the expedition is making slow but certain progress on board the *Pensacola*. As may be imagined, the resources of our printing-office are in no wise vast; but Leaflet No. 6 is now on the press, and may be ready for issue from Saint George. As I write, the far-famed mountains of Sierra Leone are already on the horizon, genuinely our first glimpse of the Dark Continent.

DAVID P. TODD.

GWEEDORE.

DUBLIN, December 7, 1889.

THE circumstances surrounding the tragic end of District Inspector Martin at Gweedore early in the year, and the legal proceedings consequent on it, concluded only a few days ago, are singularly suggestive regarding the relations subsisting between the people and the Government in Ireland. It has come to this, that our rulers must have not only their own reporters to note all that is said at public meetings, but their own vehicles to convey them, their own magistrates and juries to try prisoners, their own jails, and their own wardens, and they must also have their own witnesses. In political matters and agrarian contentions the people cannot or will not testify against their own class, and their evidence in its favor is not always reliable. The police are kept more and more distinct from their countrymen as "a chosen generation, a peculiar people," whose advancement depends on the extent to which they can justify their superiors by incriminating the Nationalists. Their position is essentially wrong, and great are the temptations to which they are exposed in the disturbed districts. Armed with deadliest weapons, they are pitted against the people, aware that if they fall, no one will befriend or witness for them, and if they baton or shoot down, whatever public opinion or coroner's juries may say, they will be exonerated.

Gweedore is a desolate region in Donegal, between the Atlantic and the slopes of Errigal and Muckish, fringed with islands still wilder, from Tory on the north to Aran (not *Arran* of Galway) on the south. Doubtless many readers of the *Nation* who have approached Great Britain "north-about" have seen it, looking probably green and picturesque and refreshing enough, after a voyage; but, in reality, it is a miserable spot from which to wring a living. It has been inhabited only as the people have, by confiscations and evictions, been driven from the richer districts. There the land war has fiercely raged. As the people took up and improved little pieces of bog, their rents have been raised and raised, while old rights of pasturage and commonage were withdrawn. The land could not possibly produce the rents. They came largely from America, and from the earnings of laborers who, from the west especially, annually flock over to the hay and corn-harvesting in England and Scotland. Aggravating enough these poor tenants must be at times, especially latterly, since taking up the position that rent should depend upon the capacity of their holdings to leave a margin after affording themselves a maintenance. The feeling uppermost in my mind

when I visited the place some years ago, and now read descriptions of the wretched hovels from which the people are being evicted, is that no one ought to live under such conditions as satisfy them. Thus, however, they are content to exist, and their poverty is no excuse for wringing from them their last penny.

If we agree with Sir Walter Scott, that "everything is as moonshine compared with the education of the heart," and if we judge by the subsequent career at home and abroad of many born amid such circumstances, these poor tenants are superior to many apparently higher in the social scale. The judges who reduced their rents 33 per cent. in 1885 said: "They were admittedly an industrious people; and we, having heard the evidence very fully, came to the conclusion that they were an honest and veracious people." I myself was never more struck with the industry of a population than in Gweedore; the women even as they walked along the roads knitted, and for this knitting they were receiving at the rate of only six cents a pair for long stockings. The inquirer as to the highest civilization in the north of Ireland may well feel puzzled. Judging by neatness and cleanliness, trim gardens, white-washed houses and shining windows, the palm must be given to the Protestants; judging by morality and "education of the heart," it must be unhesitatingly awarded to the Papists so despised by them.

Father James McFadden has been for many years parish priest of Gweedore. He has been thus well described by a recent writer: "Gray-eyed, the strong, bull-dog face, lit up, like the tops of the Donegal Mountains in fair weather, by a smile that is sunshine itself." He has been the earthly Providence of his flock. In times of distress he has collected funds for them from far and wide. His fatherly attitude towards them was strikingly shown after a disaster that occurred in 1880, when a waterspout, breaking up in the mountains while he was celebrating mass, wrecked his church and drowned five of his congregation. He has been incessant in his efforts to establish markets for the small manufactures of the district. He hesitated long before leading his people into the land contests, but has stood closely by them ever since entering upon it. Last year he served six months' imprisonment for his utterances. I have before me a bulky pamphlet which he published after his release in justification of his course, giving a full history of 'The Present and the Past of the Agrarian Struggle in Gweedore.'

Last January another warrant was out against him for something he had said. For some days he evidently avoided arrest. It was well known that he was at home on the evening of Saturday, February 2. Next morning he openly walked to chapel, said mass to a smaller congregation than usual, and was returning home in his priestly robes of office through the chapel grounds when, in the midst of the dispersing congregation, he was arrested by District-Inspector Martin and seven constables. The Inspector drew his sword and brandished it over the head of the priest, down whose face blood was seen to flow (he having been in fact struck by a stone aimed at his arresters). A "wail" arose from the women in the crowd, and those persons below in the chapel-yard who either could not see what was happening or could see only partially, made a furious rush up the steps; there were some pieces of broken paling at hand, and, before Father McFadden could realize what was happening, the District Inspector was a corpse. It has never been suggested that the priest either by word or sign prompted the attack. A few days after the occurrence, Mr. Morley well said at Portsmouth:

"Let us condemn, for condemn we must, but let us understand. The circumstances of the Gweedore catastrophe are to be the subject of judicial proceedings, and therefore I will speak with great reserve; but I have a right to remark upon the infatuation of the authorities on that occasion. I dare say there are gentlemen on the platform who have been to Gweedore. It is one of the rudest and wildest spots in her Majesty's dominions. I doubt if there is in any part of her Majesty's dominions a people living a harder life than the people of Gweedore. They have got little patches of what is called soil, but which is really transported by their own hands on to a foundation of granite, and the average rent of the holdings in Gweedore is between 20s. and 35s. a year. You may therefore guess how wild, how rude, and how poor they are. They have only one friend—their priest. I am not going into the merits—it would be most unbecoming to go into the merits—of what happened the other day, but was there any occasion for arresting this priest? Now I'll put a parallel case to you. There is in Belfast a very popular clergyman of great authority and influence among the Protestants of that great city. I refer to Dr. Kane. He is also, I understand, high in position in the ranks of the Orangemen. I am obliged to use his name for the purpose of giving point to my argument. But supposing, in the excited days of 1886, Dr. Kane had made an incendiary speech, and, when I was Chief Secretary, I had found it to be the business of the Executive to arrest Dr. Kane: should I not have been insane if I had ordered or sanctioned the arrest of this popular clergyman upon the steps of Christ Church in Belfast, as he was coming out from performing his sacred functions, in the presence of a crowd of excited and enthusiastic Orangemen?"

The original charge against Father McFadden was at once dropped, and he was indicted for murder! The magnates of the county shortly met in Grand Jury and awarded £4,000 to the widow of the murdered man, to be levied off the district; overpowering forces of military and police were drafted into the place. Father McFadden's house and premises were ransacked from garret to barn. Cordons were stretched across the country, and every sheiling and mountain-hollow examined. Guards occupied the mountain passes, and the inhabitants were obliged to have passports for permission to walk in safety along the highways. Gunboats cruised among the islands, whose people were included in the general body search. Gangs of handcuffed peasants were driven into boats and spent the night on the open deck of a gunboat, tossing in a heavy sea, and exposed to hail-storms. Father McFadden and a number of accused were hurried to Derry Jail, some forty miles away. The prisoners were gratuitously subjected to severe hardships. Take the after evidence of one of them:

"That day we were driven on outside cars, in snow and cold and storm, a distance of thirty miles to Letterkenny. Each had his hands manacled across in front of him. I had only my waistcoat and a guernsey shirt. I never felt so cold as I did that day. I thought I had some trials of great cold gathering seaweed from the waves in frost and snow, but I never felt anything to compare with my sufferings from cold that day."

They were taken on one remand back to Gweedore, and on seven or eight occasions to Letterkenny. Upon each remand the magistrates easily gave in to another, on the assurance of the prosecuting constabulary officer "that, if further time were granted, he would be able to produce evidence against the reverend gentleman." After Father McFadden had been two months in close confinement, the charge against him was modified to conspiracy, and he was released on bail. In his absence, during these proceedings, evictions on the Olphert Gweedore estate were renewed, leading to the imprisonment of Mr. Conybeare, M. P., and others.

Twenty-three peasants were included with the priest in the capital charge, and all were returned for trial. Some of the police evidence was curious. With the exception of one, no policeman knew all the prisoners even by sight. Some were ignorant of the names and appearance of them all. One constable, at a critical point in the investigations, was ordered out of court for drunkenness. Another identified a man whom he declared he had seen 300 yards away on February 3, some days afterwards, "by the cut of his clothes." The chief witness, who identified fifteen in all, whom he had never seen before, failed to recognize one when their places in the dock were altered, and, after declaring he could identify no more than he saw in the dock, identified two others.

The prisoners were returned for trial in April. The state of doubt in which even the authorities were at this time regarding their guilt is shown by a telegram in cipher, intercepted and deciphered by the Nationalists, sent the following month from one of the officials in Dublin to another at Gweedore: "Met Ross [Crown Prosecutor], who hopes detectives may be left at Gweedore to try catch actual murderer of Martin."

Conviction of any one in the district under ordinary processes of law was most unlikely. The Crown exercised its right and changed the venue to a (for Ireland) notoriously Conservative district, the Queen's County, and at Maryboro', last October, 200 miles by road and rail from their homes, appeared a melancholy procession of about 150 prisoners and witnesses, some of whom could not speak or understand the language of their accusers. The town and court-house were occupied with a large force of military and police.

The prosecution was conducted by the Attorney-General, Peter O'Brien. The first accused, Coll, was put forward. The population of the Queen's County is 73,000, of whom 64,000 are Catholic. There were 217 names on the special jury list, composed of persons occupying premises valued at £100 and over, for the most part differing in race from the mass of the people and opposed to them in political feeling. The full panel was summoned; the prisoners had the right to challenge only twenty; the Crown had unlimited right of ordering to "stand by," so that the jurors were practically selected by the Attorney-General. The jury was "packed." Three hundred years ago Edmund Spenser, in his 'Eudoxus,' suggested that the Government in Irish trials should "Have care to appoynt either most Englishmen, or such Irishmen as were of the soundest judgment and disposition"; and from his days till the present, jury-packing has been one of the principal means employed in Ireland to conceal despotism under constitutional forms. There could hardly be any system more opposed to honesty and fair play or more galling to Catholics, and it is consequently resented by the mass of the people. It is a prominent feature in all trials connected, however remotely, with land or politics. The Attorney-General, O'Brien, is credited with having carried the art to perfection, being known as "Peter the packer." From the panel thus narrowed, as the names were called, every Catholic was rigidly excluded. Yet even by this jury Coll was declared guilty of manslaughter only. Another prisoner, Gallagher, was put forward. The packing went on. Several Catholics protested at being set aside, and two were fined £20 each for their temerity; one was admitted on the jury. The evidence was so weak that there was a disagreement; it

is now known that several were for acquittal.

The friends of Father McFadden and the prisoners were in high spirits—it was believed the packing was irretrievably damaging the Government in England—when the announcement came that a compromise had been concluded. Seven men, or their counsel for them, pleaded guilty to manslaughter, and were sentenced to from two to seven years' penal servitude; eight to misdemeanor, and received sentences of two to six months. In the course of passing these sentences, the presiding judge made an assertion rather serious for Nationalists engaged in political demonstrations in Ireland: "Every one concerned in resistance to the police in the execution of their lawful duties is responsible in the eye of the law for murder if any of the police are slain in the discharge of their duties." Father McFadden pleaded guilty to the technical charge of obstructing the police, and was liberated on his own recognizance.

This compromise was without doubt a masterly stroke for the Government. I have scarcely ever known a course pursued by the counsel of quasi-political prisoners in Ireland more generally condemned. At first, only that Mr. Healy, M. P., had been one of the counsel, nothing could have prevented popular suspicion and indignation. Subsequent public and private explanations have tended to convince most that, considering the danger of capital convictions, the best course was taken. A change of government might shorten sentences; it could not restore the dead to life. In some of the cases, it is said, there was little or no evidence to rebut what was known would be the testimony of the police. Why, then, it may be asked, did the Government consent to a compromise in these cases? Because the Government were unaware that there was no such rebutting evidence as there had been in the cases of Coll and Gallagher. This absence of evidence where it was wanted increases the probability that the strong alibis set up in Coll and Gallagher's cases were founded on fact. Father McFadden in his own case sacrificed veracity by acknowledging guilt where there was none, to save members of his flock from possible death or long terms of penal servitude. Coll received twelve years. Gallagher was released. The permissibility of some of the police evidence in Coll's case has since been considered on appeal by nine of the judges, and, after two days' argument, the verdict was, on the 20th ult., upheld by five, of whom Justice Gibson, who tried the case, was one; the remaining four judges being for setting it aside.

The second act in the after drama was the sale, accompanied by popular demonstrations of sympathy, last week, of property seized from the protesting Catholic jurors, who, on principle, declined to pay the fines imposed on them. The third and last act is that Mr. Peter O'Brien, perhaps the most generally unpopular man in Ireland, who has been reaping a golden harvest of fees in the direction of the two or three thousand cases under the Coercion Act, has, over the heads of many men of his own side in politics better qualified for the post, been appointed by Mr. Balfour Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, with a salary of £5,000 per annum and valuable patronage. The Chief Justice is of all the judges supposed to shield the subject from oppression by the Crown. And the appointment was unnecessary. The judiciary of Ireland is out of all proportion compared to the judiciary of England and Wales. Mr. Balfour had power under an act passed by the present Government to transfer the Chief Baron of the Exchequer to the Queen's Bench, thereby amalgamating the two divisions and leading to an ultimate saving of perhaps £20,000 a year. But under present circumstances the Government cannot afford to dispense with any patronage. Before all, the forensic intellect of the country must be bribed. D. B.

THE EPILOGUE OF THE EXPOSITION.

PARIS, December 4, 1889.

BY the side of the great moral manifestation which the Exposition leaves as its chief souvenir, the financial results have been almost overlooked or regarded of secondary importance. Still, if 40,000,000 francs would be considered cheap for all they have realized for the country—a truce when storms were brewing abroad, as well as a flattering occasion for self-assertion; a deterrent against party quarrels at home; an incentive to production and a broad scattering of instruction—a glance at the balance-sheet will show the success to have cost even less.

The budget, it may be remembered, was fixed at forty-three million francs. Seventeen were supplied by the State, eight by the city of Paris, and eighteen by a private society. Three millions were set aside as a reserve fund in case of eventualities. The costs were estimated as follows: 31,650,000 francs for the works (canalization, parks, gardens, and the various buildings), 5,000,000 francs for the labor, 3,350,000 francs for the expenses of the administrative departments—a total of 40,000,000 francs. It is seldom that in public or private enterprises the expenses do not exceed the original estimates. The Exposition marks an exception to the rule, for at the end of January, 1889, when the bulk of the work was done, leaving only the decorative and finishing touches to be given, it was found that the calculations had overestimated by 3,000,000 francs the sum actually needed. Not too intent on economy, the Financial Committee applied nearly a million of the unexpended funds in the work of decoration, which was executed in a manner scarcely anticipated from the outset. This surplus smoothed another difficulty. The State had made a contract with a society of electricians, and saw fit to break it in order to close with more advantageous contractors. By paying a forfeit of 1,800,000 francs it regained its liberty. In addition, there were still left 300,000 or 400,000 francs, which were appropriated to medals, diplomas, and awards.

Now to examine the question of profits proper. Aside from the reserve fund of 3,000,000 francs, which remained untouched, another 3,000,000 francs were added through the Exposition-ticket combination (of which a word will be said later), and 2,000,000 francs coming from the concessions held by lessees of places of amusement and restaurants, cafés, etc., resulting in a total profit of 8,000,000 francs. The most practical judges certainly did not expect this. In face of the rich display, a deficit instead of a profit was predicted.

Long before the completion of the works, the private society which had furnished the 18,000,000 francs, had grown irksome to the State. They were too watchful of their own interests and exacted certain guarantees to insure the return of their money. They insisted on the abolition of free entrances—school-teachers, charitable institutions, even collaborators and exhibitors not excepted. The 2,270,000 "dead-heads" of 1878 were placed "à l'index." In short, they would have robbed the Exposition of its character for liberality. This state of things was bringing untold complications when, two months before the opening, M. Christophle, President of the Crédit-Foncier, made a proposition which enabled the State to get rid of its troublesome partners. The proposition offered 21,500,000 francs in exchange for the privilege of the emission of the Exposition bonds. The State jumped at it, paid off the 18,000,000 francs advanced by the private society, and scored in addition 3,000,000 francs net profit. This transaction was even worth more: it discounted the financial success of the Exposition. The 1,200,000 bonds, with twenty-five entrance tickets attached to each, insured 30,000,000 of paying visitors, whether the tickets were used or not. They were all subscribed for before the end of April.

Before turning from this avalanche of figures, it is well to say in what measure the Crédit-Foncier, the State, and the city of Paris were compensated. The Crédit-Foncier made 3,000,000 francs immediately out of the 30,000,000 francs for which the bonds were sold. Five and a half millions were reserved to make up the premiums of the lottery and reconstitute the capital in seventy-five years—very feasible with time for an accomplice. The State keeps 5,300,000 francs out of the 8,000,000, and profits by a surplus of 13,507,000 francs on the internal revenue and 11,010,200 francs on the monopolies. Its outlay is thereby fully compensated without insisting on the political advantages and the glory. To the city of Paris return 2,700,000 francs of the cash profits, and an excess of 9,000,000 francs taken at the city gates as entrance duty on extra provisions and liquids brought in during the six months.

But the Exposition leaves to the city of Paris a more tangible memento. Instead of returning to sandy desert, the Champ de Mars remains what we have seen it during the great fête—that is to say, the best in it is saved from the pick-axe, and a reinforcement of gardens is to extend over the space occupied by minor galleries and annexes now fast being pulled down. The Municipal Council realized too well the value of the chief buildings to allow them to be done away with like those that figured in other expositions. But the cost and size of those in question are not the only plea for their preservation. A fact that escaped many in the kaleidoscopic show of the summer is generally recognized now that the doors are closed. Iron as a material in combination with terra-cotta and enamel has acquired an æsthetic value. These structures, which had no other pretension than to serve temporary needs and to please, accidentally developed an art principle. For the first time in the "reign of iron" have such vistas been opened in industrial architecture, affording speculation as to future requirements. We do not mean by this that our *fin de siècle* has found a formula equivalent to that of the Maison Carré of Nîmes, or that the word monument is applicable to these first specimens. But as monuments they must be looked upon, for they are the first witnesses that French architecture is in a fair way to make amends for its negativeness since 1789.

It was with great reluctance that the State yielded the Champ de Mars to the city of Paris. This classic field had served so long as a manœuvring ground for the troops of the garrison that it seemed as if the War Office would not be intact without it. But the arrangements are agreeable to all. In place of the Champ de Mars, the city gives an important tract outside the fortifications which will serve as a future manœuvring ground. The new quarter inherited from the Exposition will extend the city westward. If its studied gardens and quincuncial plantations do not prove dangerous rivals to the old Tuileries or

Champs Élysées, at least everything will be done to draw from the latter the easily led Parisian. Many picturesque plans are rumored, beginning with the creation of an annual fair in Paris, after the pattern of those which have made Leipzig and Nizhni-Novgorod famous. But in reference to this the majority seem to think it attractive in theory alone; that a fair in France is too apt to take on the features of an exposition, and that a yearly commercial gathering would prove a failure here. More simple than this, in the buildings saved from the Exposition will be held those yearly assizes at which the Parisian public becomes in turn a votary of horseflesh, horticulture, fat cattle, and art. In other words, the horse and flower shows will find in Machinery Hall an expanse under glass such as they never had before; a track 300 yards in length by 100 in width for horsemen to gallop over, and later for the disposition of flower-beds. The thirty-yard gallery connected with the central dome, already tested for its sonorous acoustics during Exposition concerts, will be improved, if necessary, and utilized for musical festivals and popular concerts. The Palais des Arts Libéraux is already bespoken by M. Antonin Proust, Director of the Museum of Decorative Arts, which has never had a fitting frame at the Palais de l'Industrie. In addition to this collection there are numerous partial expositions claimed by industry or trade that can find room only with difficulty.

As to the Palais des Beaux-Arts, the first idea was to preserve it as it was during the Exposition, a temple of modern art. But here this great plan of centralization seems to be splitting against a resistance emanating from the Society of Painters themselves. They have many reasons for not wishing to be dislodged from the Champs Élysées: first, the light, which they declare to be unevenly distributed in the Palais des Beaux-Arts; secondly, the distance. This argument has more force than the former, as the light can be regulated. The Society of French Artists, an independent society of a few years' standing, do not paint pictures or model statues for a restricted public of amateurs. Their exhibition has got to be something besides an artistic competition and a market for their produce. It is the source of a fund of which every franc is scrupulously saved to form a capital out of which pensions will be given to the oldest and most distressed combatants, for whom the career did not prove remunerative. If their Salon is moved to the Champ de Mars, they think the question of receipts will be compromised. They have no faith in the neighborhood of the Eiffel tower to send them visitors.

Since the first of December the Tower has been closed to the public, and the flag will not float again until May. There is a plan on foot of adding another story to it—not on the summit, but an intermediary floor above the first platform. This would be devoted to a hotel—modern if ever hotel was—to be patronized not only by delicate tourists in quest of pure air, who prefer this altitude to a sojourn on the top of the Righi, but by lovers of novelty. Hitherto the Tower has not been considered as a place of entertainment, or a spectacle, but strictly as an object on exhibition. A proof of this is the fact that the City Bureau of Aid to the Indigent has not claimed the 9½ per cent. duty which public places of amusement have to pay into its coffers. Charity has lost some sixty thousand francs by this subtle distinction of the law.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

Correspondence.

DUANE AND BACHE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of November 28 appears an interesting letter, written by Mr. Worthington C. Ford, giving an account of some forged letters of Washington. The latter half of the letter, however, contains so much imaginative history as to make one question whether this letter of Mr. Ford's is not itself a forgery. It is as comprehensive in its assumption of information, and yet as contradictory and minutely inaccurate, as the modern dictionary.

In the next to the last column, Mr. Ford states:

"Duane, an Irish-American, and Bache, a connection of Benjamin Franklin, formed a partnership, and their paper, the *Aurora*, has never been surpassed, if equalled, in its libellous spirit. . . . This precious pair undertook to destroy the influence of Washington, for they feared he might be a Presidential candidate for the third time."

It is then suggested that, for this purpose, "they republished the forged letters," and added others, "but so garbled as to mislead the reader."

Mr. Ford seems to know who did all this, yet he says: "Washington . . . made an effort to discover the perpetrator—an effort that yielded no results."

William Duane, referred to above, was born in New York State. If to have Irish blood in him constituted him an Irish-American, it may be asked, Does any one ever become an American-American? B. F. Bache was undoubtedly "a connection" of Franklin's, being a favorite grandson, who was educated by him abroad as a journalist. He established the paper afterwards known as the *Aurora*, and continued to publish it till his sudden death by yellow fever in 1798. Shortly after this it was published by Col. Duane, who had been writing on it for some time previous.

The utter improbability that "this precious pair" could have formed the plot to destroy Washington's chance for a third term is shown by the fact that William Duane had not been in the country since he was a boy, being brought up abroad, and did not return here until the summer of 1796. He sailed from London May 16, and arrived in New York July 4. After staying in New York some little time, he came to Philadelphia, where he became editor of a paper published by Mr. Bradford, afterwards called the *True American*. Comparing these facts and dates with the time of the publication of Washington's Farewell Address, the middle of September, 1796, we see how imaginative is the theory of partnership, plot, and publication. There was not time enough.

Near the close of the letter it is stated: "The farewell to Washington on his leaving the Presidency, penned by Duane, has become a classic of unseemly libel." If Col. Duane really wrote what is here attributed to him, it could hardly have been published in the *Aurora*, for the following words form the opening of the actual response made by that paper to the Farewell Address, and are a fair sample of its dignified tone: "We are persuaded there is nothing we can say that will fully express the estimation in which his illustrious and important services are held by the citizens of this much-favored country."

A curious fact may be added, in further evidence of the careless literary or publication work of the present day. Col. Duane has been found useful in more ways than one to save trouble to the man of letters. A few years since, when *Harper's Monthly* published an illustrated centennial account of the Evacuation of New York, its author possibly saved himself trouble by inserting the likeness of Wm. Duane, and calling it that of James Duane, the first Mayor after the close of the war.

C. W. DUANE.

PHILADELPHIA, December 16, 1889.

JEFFERSON DAVIS IN PIERCE'S CABINET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with great interest your obituary notice of Jefferson Davis in the *Nation* of the 12th inst. It is evidently written by one who has studied American politics well and knows how to reason acutely. Whether his theory of the Southern secession in 1861 is entirely correct I will not inquire; but there is a misstatement of fact which seems to indicate that he has overlooked some important facts bearing upon the subject.

"From his [Davis's] return from Mexico," says your writer, "to the outbreak of the Civil War, he was in the Senate of the United States except during the Administration of Franklin Pierce (1853–1857), when he was Secretary of War." As a matter of fact, Jefferson Davis was in private life when Franklin Pierce invited him into his Cabinet. Upon the issue which the Compromise measures of 1850 sought to reconcile, Mississippi came near declaring her separation from the Union. The ultra State's-Rights party offered General Quitman for Governor in 1851. He was opposed by Senator Foote as the Union and Compromise candidate. The canvass was bitter and earnest; Quitman found that he was losing ground, and withdrew, and, at the last moment, Jefferson Davis, as a more prudent statesman of the same stripe, was induced to take his place on the ticket. Davis resigned from the Senate and led the forlorn hope, but in vain. Foote was chosen Governor, and Davis, the defeated candidate, retired to private life. His appointment as Secretary of War marked his new entrance into national politics.

Yours very truly, JAMES SCHOULER.

BOSTON, December 18, 1889.

THE "SOO" CANALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the Sault Ste. Marie, Mich., Canal, you say (No. 1274): "Its original dimensions, which had been increased in 1881, proved totally inadequate to accommodate the growing trade, so that a further deepening to twenty feet, and an enlargement of the locks—now the largest in the world—has been undertaken."

The writer of this paragraph does not seem to be fully informed as to the "Soo" canals. The canal of 1855 still retains its "original dimensions," but it is being enlarged now, and will be, when completed, larger than the canal of 1881, built alongside of the old one, and at present "the largest in the world." Moreover, the Canadian Government has begun a canal around the Ste. Marie's rapids, so that when it is completed there will be three canals at Sault Ste. Marie. Through the canal of 1881 (the old one not being open this season) there passed this season, up to November, 7,507,096 tons of freight.

F. E. R.

POPE AND PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While "C. F. B.'s" suggestion is worthy of attention as to the relative places of the President and Cardinal Taschereau at the

Catholic University dinner, may they not have been assigned in forgetfulness of the principle that the President, as representing the imperial republic, is officially of imperial rank? Others seem to be confused here. Thus, the Shah is said to have held it impossible to visit this country on the ground that there was here no one of sufficient rank to receive him. And the English, I believe, took umbrage because President Grant declined to receive an invitation to dine with Prince Arthur (or Alfred) at the British Minister's, apparently assuming the superior, instead of admitting the inferior, rank of the Prince. May not the Catholics likewise have confused the intrinsic and the official rank of the President, and, remembering that a cardinal ranks with a mediatized prince (formerly much higher), have forgotten that he ought not to be seated higher than one to whom, for the time being, is due the precedence of an Emperor? C. C. S.

ANDOVER, MASS., December 20, 1889.

THE TRADE OF CHILE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: So much is being said about South American trade that the following figures, taken from the *Ferrocarril* of Santiago, Chile, of November 7, 1889, may be of interest:

The imports of Chile in 1888 amounted to $60,717,698, or $12,086,836 more than in 1887. The imports from Great Britain and Germany always show an increase. The principal imports from Great Britain are steel bars, ungalvanized iron tubes, iron bars; machinery for railways, mines, printing-offices, farms, machine shops; steam engines for various purposes; blooded live stock, refined sugar; thread, cotton, woollen, and silk cloths; ready-made clothing and underwear, iron bedsteads, furniture, carpets, coal, fine earthenware, prepared paints, tea, wines, and liquors. The increase for Great Britain was in 1888 over 1887, 28.77 per cent.; Germany, 20.75 per cent.; France, 12.37 per cent.

The exports increased in 1888 over 1887, $13,757,915. The principal exports are copper, silver, gold, nitrate, guano, hides, and agricultural products. The exports for 1887 and for 1888 were as follows:

	1887.	1888.
Great Britain	$44,977,972	$56,898,407
Germany	5,071,232	4,751,990
France	3,312,223	4,295,055
Peru	1,050,786	2,071,304
United States	2,611,384	2,070,694

The exports to Great Britain increased 26.50 per cent.; the exports to Germany and the United States decreased.

From 1844 to 1888 Chile exported 1,401,701,772 kilogrammes of copper, with a value of $467,394,422.—Truly yours,

RICHARD WARD GREENE.

WORCESTER, MASS., December 17, 1889.

KANSAS AND THE CONFEDERACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for December 12 there is a review of a book, 'With Lee in Virginia,' in which it is stated that Kansas joined the South. The reviewer calls this a mistake, but the author may have the belief that Kansas was rightfully part of the Confederacy. In a Confederate geography, published in 1864, all territory south of Nebraska and east of the Rocky Mountains is marked Confederate. I have also a Democratic campaign map which is marked by colors and colored lines to show:

(1.) Area of Rebellious States, population, 8,000,000.

(2.) All the territory held by our armies up to October 4, 1864.

(3.) Territory lost since the removal of Gen. McClellan and the issue of the Emancipation Proclamation.

Kansas is included in the "Area of Rebellious States."

O. H. DARLINGTON.

PITTSBURGH, December 18, 1889.

COLLEGE ATTENDANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A remark having appeared in the *Nation* to the effect that the attendance at colleges and universities is less now in proportion to the numbers of the American people than it was fifty years ago, a number of letters have been written to and been published by you, accounting for this decrease in college attendance and suggesting remedies.

I deny the truth of your premises. I admit that the number of students in the four classes known as Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior is not as large now, proportionally, as it was in 1839, but that means only that not as many young men between seventeen and twenty-two are studying Latin and Greek and mathematics and physics now as boys between fourteen and eighteen or nineteen did at the earlier period. If you will count only the number of those who pursue liberal studies until they have reached the age at which their fathers and grandfathers usually received the degree of B. A., you will find that the number is greater now than it was at any previous date.

Some of your correspondents are wrestling with the difficulty which college students have who wish to enter, after graduation, the schools of law, medicine, or divinity, and who thus are put off to the age of twenty-five before they are in a position to earn their bread. Hence, it is said, men preparing for the professions cannot afford a college course; and a remedy is sought for. What is it? Germany and the countries sharing in its academic usages answer this question readily. Their philosophic faculties, with a three years' course, should correspond to the Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes in American first-grade colleges. They do as to the age of students. But he who in Germany proposes to attend lectures in law, divinity, or medicine never studies "philosophy" first. He considers himself fully prepared by the *Gymnasium* for the scientific study of a learned profession, and the training for these professions is then conducted on a scientific plan. Courses for law students in comparative jurisprudence, for medical students in comparative anatomy, for divinity students in Semitic languages and Biblical criticism, are just as good means of higher education as the Greek tragedians or analytical mechanics; with the additional advantage that what a man has learned in the line of his profession, though somewhat ornamental, he will recollect more or less all his life, while what is foreign to his calling he will quickly forget.

What is amiss in the American university is the failure to recognize the professional schools as integral parts of the system. This is the humble opinion of L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., December 14, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is reason to believe that the practice of allowing students to complete a collegiate course without much regard to the traditional four years prevails quite extensively in this State, and doubtless in the West generally. Without taking into account the wisdom of such action, college faculties have in many instances been constrained by those in authority over them either to allow this or submit to a shortening of the course—which might be done either by reducing the number of studies or accepting a poorer quality of work. Most Ohio colleges are more or less closely connected with preparatory departments; and not unfrequently young people from country and village schools present themselves for admission who have a fair knowledge of such subjects as can be taught through the medium of English, but who know nothing of any foreign language. Then, too, the standards of our high schools vary so much that hardly two are alike. Most of them teach no Greek, many no Latin, and a large number do not take their pupils far enough for admission to the Freshman class.

Our colleges and college preparatory schools have thus to deal with students who have all degrees of preparation and various motives, or no motive, for attending school. The young man of fairly mature mind, who voluntarily leaves home to seek an education because he feels the disadvantages of ignorance and appreciates the value of knowledge, will learn much faster than the boy who is sent to school; and of two students equally capable and ambitious, the one who is twenty years old will have considerable advantage over the boy of fourteen or fifteen, if both are put at the same subject. Further, a very large proportion of students in the Western States make their way through college by teaching or on borrowed money. It is, therefore, highly important to the former that they have plenty of time, and to the latter that they be allowed to go as fast as possible. Those are frequently thirty years old at graduation, and sometimes several years older.

I do not believe that the culture element in a course of study has much weight with a large majority of our students. The advantages of knowledge are usually tangible; but that it is better to spend four or five years on a course of study than three is incomprehensible to most young people. When the culture element is not emphasized by home influences, it is liable to receive scant recognition at the hands of young men and women in college. They yield to the pressure to get a diploma as soon as possible in order to take their place in the throng of those who are striving to make their way in the world. Many, perhaps most, of our young men who have wealth and leisure to pursue their studies as slowly as they like, go to Eastern colleges, either because their fathers were educated there, or because the fame of those institutions far overshadows any that we have. Those who seek an education nearer home are no way inferior to the temporary exiles, but their case requires different pedagogical treatment. It may not be absolutely the best, but it is relatively so. I believe if Ohio colleges should insist on four years of uninterrupted attendance on the part of students as a condition of graduation, in addition to the usual three preparatory years, it would decrease the attendance by one-third or more. C. W. S.

OHIO, December, 1889.

COLLEGE GRADUATES AND BUSINESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For fifteen years I kept an old-fashioned store on the wharf, and traded with the East Indies and South America. I was myself a

college graduate, and at that time, over fifty years ago, the merchants were averse to receiving graduates, preferring to take youths in their early teens, and insisting upon more or less menial work, such as opening and sweeping out the counting-room, trimming lamps, and, frequently, blacking boots—tasks imposed upon these unpaid apprentices, partly from economy, partly to supple the boy and take the nonsense out of him. We adopted a porter to perform all these chores, and, partly to give them a chance, preferred college graduates to boys a few years younger fresh from school. There was never an instance of bumptiousness or effeminacy; their duties within and without doors were performed more efficiently and more intelligently than by their associates whose minds had not been educed in college; they did not need so long an apprenticeship.

If you will look into the counting-houses of bankers and brokers nowadays, you will find principals and clerks mostly college-bred; you will find most of the factory treasurers, many of their selling agents, many of the railroad presidents college-bred.

Some years ago you informed your readers that in Germany the boys educated in the Gymnasiums for college, while surpassed at first in mathematics by boys educated in what we should call technical schools, eventually outstripped them. So it is in any sort of business; the general training must tell in the proportion as one rises to greater responsibilities and is called upon to solve more abstruse problems. Were I in search of a partner, I would choose not only a college graduate, but also a trained lawyer because of his training, which prepares him to understand any subject presented better than any layman can. Among my friends now past threescore, those who, for any reason, went from school to counting-room have never ceased to regret it, because of their fewer resources outside of business, their real or fancied disabilities, as well as for the loss of comradeship which becomes more and more sad as years roll on. SENEX.

DECEMBER 17, 1889.

CHAIRS OF PEDAGOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letters that have recently appeared in the *Nation* concerning the value of chairs of pedagogy in our large universities have been confined to *à-priori* reasoning. The recent discussions in the East in reference to the same subject had, curiously enough, the same method of treatment. It is quite possible that the older universities in the East are in no need of imitating their vigorous sisters in the West; but one naturally expects allusion to failures, if any can be discovered, in justification of hesitation or disapproval.

It is not necessary, however, to follow the star of empire to obtain arguments from experience. For many years the German universities have had professorships of pedagogy. Since 1876, chairs of the "Theory, History, and Art of Education" have existed in the Universities of St. Andrews and Edinburgh, Scotland. The science of education and the art of teaching are without question best understood in the country where they have longest been taught in the great seats of learning. In Scotland, says an eminent educator, these chairs "have done very much to promote education, . . . not only by raising the work of the schoolmaster in public estimation, but also by attracting attention to education as being not merely a question of machinery for the institution of schools, . . . but a question of principles and methods—in brief, a philosophy."

One of the most prominent and influential of American teachers has lately said that teaching is rarely, if ever, a profession. If not, the sooner it becomes so the better, and nothing will more quickly dignify the teacher's calling than a recognition of it by the great universities. Law and medicine have been transformed into professions by their reception into the homes of the liberal arts.

It is especially the province of the University to educate citizens. Such a duty is the only excuse for the existence of State institutions, at least. College graduates ought to be leaders of the people. They do become our lawmakers, and are the embodiment of the highest public opinion. They should be brought to appreciate educational needs, to have ideas concerning educational methods, to honor the art whose history is "so dreary," to aid understandingly the men whose profession has been sneered at from the time of "Flogging Orbilius" to "Squeers." It is the duty of a university to make known its advancement and to render its achievements generally useful. If methods are improving — and they certainly are — they should be made known, not only by example, but by precept.

Of course it is not only permissible for a State university, it is its bounden duty, to teach how to teach. The pedagogical chair in the University of Michigan ranks second to none in the culture value of the courses offered. It has surpassing influence throughout the State. The University as a State institution would feel bereft of its right hand if it could no longer rely on the assistance of the experienced teacher who teaches the best and latest methods, and keeps the schools throughout the State in sympathetic touch with the head of the system. It is a sign of great advancement that the universities of the Western States have seen and are profiting by the experience of the University of Michigan in this particular. A. C. MCLAUGHLIN.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, December 7, 1889.

THE TEACHING AT THE UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Very many who are, or have been, students will quite agree with the remarks of your correspondent in the *Nation* for December 12 on the lack of *teaching* in many of our higher institutions of learning. That this is by no means a new difficulty will be apparent from these words, which I quote from Goethe's Autobiography. Referring to his early experience at Leipzig University, he says:

"Professors, as well as other official personages, cannot all be of the same age; but then the younger ones teach, in fact, only that they may learn, and, if they are men of parts, seek to urge themselves on in advance of their age. Thus they pursue their own education altogether at the expense of their hearers, since these are not instructed in what is really of use to them, but only in what the professor finds it necessary to elaborate for himself. Among the oldest professors, on the contrary, there are many who have been for a long time stationary; they deliver in general only fixed views, and in the details much that time has already condemned as useless and false."

Herein, with his usual acuteness, Goethe not only points out the fact of poor teaching, but he suggests the reason. The truth is, teaching and original investigation are two distinct aims, which run counter to each other. The teacher gives himself up to developing his pupils' minds, the investigator to developing his subject. To accomplish original work in this day of specialism is an absorbing task, so that the investigator is more and more thrown out of sympathy with teaching. Instead of ministering to the student, he will tend to make the student minister to him.

The practical difficulty will be solved by the complete differentiation of the teacher's work from the investigator's. With increasing specialization, the one who contributes to knowledge and the one who stimulates knowing will become different individuals, and each will be kept to his single task.

In some of our most advanced institutions this evolution has already been partly accomplished, and in one I recall a professor, the best specialist in his department in this country, who has not taught a pupil for many years. Lecture-reading and recitation-hearing are but poor substitutes for real teaching, but the specialist will naturally grudge even these. At present there is far better teaching in the public schools than in the universities. Older pupils will, of course, need less help than the younger, but still one never outgrows the need for personal stimulus and direction.

HIRAM M. STANLEY.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY, December 16, 1889.

Notes.

THE late Prof. W. F. Allen's 'History of Rome' is, we are glad to learn, all in type with the exception of the prefatory matter and the indexes, and will be published by Ginn & Co., Boston, a house whose beginnings were intimately associated with Prof. Allen and his brother, Rev. Joseph H. Allen, author of a 'Manual of Latin Grammar,' the first publication of the Messrs. Ginn. At a literary club in Madison of which Prof. Allen was a member, his last paper was on Historic Fiction: and on former occasions his themes had been Freedom of Speech and Thought, the Duke of Milan, Shakspere as a Person, History and Methods of Wood-Engraving, Coriolanus in History and in Shakspere, and the Roman Forum. These well illustrate the scope of his intellect and learning.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, announces for immediate appearance an authorized translation of Th. Ribot's 'Psychology of Attention.'

The first volume of a new series of brief biographies of English actors, which Mr. William Archer is editing, will appear early in the new year. It will be the life of Macready, by Mr. Archer himself, and will be followed in due season by volumes written by Mr. Joseph Knight, Mr. R. W. Lowe, Mr. Dibdin, and others.

Mr. Thomas G. Shearman of Brooklyn, N. Y., has offered, through the American Economic Association, a prize of $250 for the best essay on State and Local Taxation of Personal Property in the United States. It must not exceed 25,000 words, and must meet certain inquiries which are enumerated in the circular issued regarding the prize by Prof. Richard T. Ely of Baltimore, Secretary of the Association. December 1, 1890, is the date by which the essays must be in the Secretary's hands.

Before the year closes we must mention (and no more now) the completion of the great work edited by Mr. Justin Winsor, the 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' of which the eighth and last volume is before us (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In addition to the several chapters upon the later history of British, Spanish, and Portuguese America, on which we must defer comment, one remarks

the section concerning the historical chorography of South America, and the appendix on the manuscript sources of United States history (the Revolutionary in particular), and the comprehensive printed authorities (critically distinguished); a chronological conspectus of American history, and a general index to the eight volumes.

The seventh volume of the Comte de Paris's history of our Civil War has appeared in the French original (Paris: Calmann Lévy). It makes an octavo volume of 795 pages.

The fifth part of Dr. Murray's New English Dictionary is now being distributed (Macmillan & Co.). It carries the vocabulary to *Cling*.

From F. W. Christern we receive prospectuses of two notable undertakings—Auguste Vitu's 'Paris,' with 500 fresh designs, and the facsimile reproduction of the New Testament, Codex Vat., 1209, under the auspices of Pope Leo XIII.

We should have been glad to speak last week of the belated 'Salon de 1889' (Paris: Ludovic Baschet: New York: J. W. Bouton), but if any are now unable to use this beautiful volume for a gift, they can secure it as a record of an exhibition severely tested in comparison with the greater show in the Champ de Mars. M. Paul Mantz furnishes the indulgent but not undiscriminating letter-press, while a large number of canvases and sculptures are illustrated by the best of photogravures, mostly full-page and appropriately tinted. M. Mantz calls this emphatically the "Salon des femmes," for never have so many women participated; the sex is fairly represented in the selection here given. Moreover, Jeanne d'Arc, a perennial Salon subject, has this year inspired a small host, of which three are shown in the photogravures, all striking, viz.: E. Paupion's painting, and the rival equestrian statues by Paul Dubois (for Reims) and by E. Fremiet (for Paris), between which, to judge only from the engravings, our choice would be in favor of the former. There is a suggestion of a very lovely landscape in the "Alpes Maritimes; Vue prise à Antibes," by H. Harpignies. A certain interest, but not of composition, attaches to the canvas showing the collaboration of the *Journal des Débats*. An index of artists discussed (whether exemplified or not in the illustrations) is a desideratum.

The other day we described a Chicago edition of Ruskin's 'Sesame and Lilies,' and now we have the same work reprinted in the Messrs. Putnam's Knickerbocker Nuggets series, following the third English edition.

The alliterative 'Man and His Maladies,' by Dr. A. E. Bridger of London (Harpers), sets itself forth as a Popular Handbook of Physiology and Domestic Medicine. It does not appear to deliver false doctrine, but where the buying public for such books is or should be found is a mystery. This is a fair type of a class which contains knowledge, but that little knowledge which, if not dangerous, is perfectly unavailing in illness and unsatisfying in health.

The medicine which is not drugging is well exhibited in 'A Text-book of General Therapeutics,' by Dr. W. Hale White (Macmillan), which is the substance of his summer lectures at Guy's Hospital. Its climatology of America is neither accurate nor complete, but as a whole the book is a useful one in fact, and especially as leading students to look beyond dosing for methods of cure.

'The Bacteria in Asiatic Cholera,' by E. Klein, M.D. (Macmillan), is a careful scientific discussion of the causal relation of Koch's famous comma bacillus to epidemic cholera. Dr. Klein, an English investigator of great distinction, leads the opposition to the doctrine that the micro-organism referred to is the cholera cause, and this little volume clearly explains not only his views, but the steps by which he reached them. It has forty illustrations. In the present state of science the ultimate facts in bacteriology must be settled by a few experts of high attainment, but there is every reason to believe that Klein is right and Koch is wrong on this special point. At least, the impartial student must carefully examine Klein before accepting Koch. It may be that this publication has an unfortunate timeliness in view of the impending pandemic of influenza, for other plagues of this kind have been the precursors of cholera itself.

Longmans, Green & Co. publish the latest systematic treatise on 'The Diseases of Children,' by Drs. Ashby and Wright. It is chiefly remarkable as discussing both surgical and medical affections, the book thus traversing all the disabilities of childhood. As thus displayed, the numerous and serious ills that may befall the young leads to wonder that any escape with unimpaired health.

'Mother, Nurse and Infant,' by S. P. Sackett, M.D. (New York: H. Campbell Co.), is a plainly written book of advice for the use of the trio named, with especial reference to the time when the three first meet. It is better than the ordinary books of domestic medicine.

From the Art Lithographic Company we receive a large number of calendars and colored booklets more or less adapted to the season, and of German make. We cannot rate the best of them very highly in comparison with American productions of the same sort. Prof. F. E. Morse's "Musicians' Calendar" (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.) is dedicated this year to the musicians of America, a portrait of Prof. J. K. Paine forming part of the decorated background of the pad, whose several leaves contain dates of birth and death, with the usual extracts in prose and verse. E. Scott, 463 Hudson Street, sends us a calendar in the form of a Maltese cross, "Promises for the King's Children," gathered by Mary Lowe Dickinson, and printed upon the daily leaf.

Sun and Shade for December (New York: The Photo-Gravure Co.) is a Christmas number throughout. The seven plates succeeding the symbolical title-plate are copies of famous paintings by Bouguereau, Gérôme, Holman Hunt, Leonardo, etc. Interesting is the announcement that this unique periodical, devoid of letter-press, will hereafter reproduce the leading pictures in the collection of the Metropolitan Art Museum. Other useful features are also to be added, giving a little more unity to the editing.

Mr. Clarence Cook's *Studio* became a weekly on December 7, with the first issue of the fifth volume (new series). Ordinarily an eight-page paper, it will be enlarged on occasion, and on the first Saturday of every month it will give from three to five full-page supplements, consisting of etchings and various forms of photo-engravings. The *Studio* is published at No. 864 Broadway.

The *English Illustrated Magazine* (Macmillan) renews its form with the December number, the first of vol. vii. It now has a larger page with a single column and a much more condensed, yet still clear and comely typography. The most curious article is that on "The Cats of Ancient Egypt," by Prof. W. M. Conway, apropos of the recent discovery of a cat cemetery near Beni-Hasan, about a hundred miles south of Cairo.

That *Nature* (Macmillan) has completed its twentieth year is subject of congratulation on the part of the whole scientific world, and of all who appreciate its services in the ready interchange of observation and opinion. The editors fitly celebrated it on November 7 by reviewing the progress of science in the two decades since their weekly medium was established.

In *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November Dr. O. Heyfelder gives an extremely interesting account of the present condition of the industries and commerce of the Khanate, in an article entitled "Bokhara on the Threshold of a New Era." In the industries the production of silk still holds the foremost rank, although Russian machinery is gradually driving out the primitive hand-looms of the people. The cultivation of cotton is rapidly increasing, the amount sent to Russia from the port of Usun-Ada, the terminus of the Transcaspian Railway, being 45,723,640 pounds for the first eight months of the present year. This is an increase of 12,347,920 pounds over that of the previous year, while the amount exported in 1887 was only 3,600,000 pounds. The author, who holds an official position in the city of Bokhara, describes briefly carpet-weaving and its allied industries, the leather, wood, and metal work and the pottery of the Bokhariots. Their ornamentation is often rich and strikingly beautiful, especially in their iron-work, but there is no originality in it. It is simply a slavish imitation of forms and designs handed down from time immemorial. This is illustrated by the fact that on some of the metal tiles of the present day there appear distinctly legible the Greek letters of the word βασιλεύς. The commerce is naturally almost wholly absorbed by Russia, the principal article imported from India and Persia being green tea, the only liquid stimulant of the natives. The railway has not destroyed the caravan service, goods requiring no haste in delivery being still transported across the desert on camels. The rates, however, have been greatly diminished by the competition of the railway. It is proposed to extend this road to Tashkend and Ferghana as soon as a route can be decided upon. A Government commission, also, was appointed in October last to examine a project of building a railway from the station Dushak, on the Transcaspian road, to Meshed in Persia.

The seventeenth part of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) is given over to Greater and Lesser Britain, its three plates showing the British Isles; Western Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and New Zealand; and a fifth of the United States.

The New York *Ledger*, in the hands of the sons of its founder, is undergoing a change of form and of character, with a praiseworthy striving for a higher order of literary collaboration than has been seen since Edward Everett was a contributor to its columns.

The *Woman's Tribune*, of Beatrice, Nebraska, will be published in Washington during the present session of Congress, with a view to prompting and to watching the action of that body respecting the interests of women.

The Association of the Colleges of Ohio will meet for the twenty-first time at Columbus on December 26-28. President Jordan, of the University of Indiana, will read an address on the "Evolution of the College Curriculum."

"N. D.," writer of a communication to this journal, in its issue of October 31, on "Light Reading for Colored Infants," is requested to send her address to this office.

—On the occasion of the recent jubilee in St. Petersburg, celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of Rubinstein's first public appearance as a musician, a Russian paper published a brief autobiographic sketch of him as a sort of interview. It contains little besides bare

facts. He relates that already in his eleventh year he made a tour of Europe. "At this age I appeared on the platform everywhere without the slightest embarrassment. I looked upon my concerts as a sort of game, an amusement; *i. e.*, I behaved like a child, as in truth I was." This absence of embarrassment doubtless helps to account for his subsequent successes; for the root of stage fever is vanity, and Rubinstein never was vain, but seems always to have looked upon "ovations" as a bore. This trait has not left him even now, when he has become universally acknowledged as the greatest musician and one of the greatest geniuses that Russia has ever produced. The 18th of November has been hitherto regarded by him as his birthday, but recent research shows that he was born on the 16th. His mother, born in Prussian Silesia, was of a distinctly Jewish type, as a Russian biographer states. She had a thorough musical training, and "to her, as my first music-teacher, I owe very much," says Rubinstein. He had two sisters and three brothers, the youngest of whom, Nicolai, is also well known as a musician and Director of the Conservatory at Moscow. His mother was a very severe teacher, unsparing in the use of the rod, as was customary at that time, "without indulging in any dreams of the future relating to me, as she herself told me afterwards. She simply gave me music-lessons because she herself was musical. Our repertory consisted of Hummel, Herz, Moscheles, Kalkbrenner, Czerny, Diabelli, Clementi, and other lights of the period." Villoing, the most distinguished teacher in Moscow, afterwards continued his education, refusing to receive any money therefor. "He remained my only teacher; after him I never had another music-teacher in my life, excepting later on in the study of the theory of music."

—An amusing story is told of how he handed his opera "Dmitri Donskoi" to the Director of the imperial theatres, who exclaimed, "I do not understand how any one can undertake to write a Russian opera; a Russian opera cannot and must not exist." It is chiefly Rubinstein's merit that different views regarding Russian music are now held in Russian circles; and he brought about this change partly through his own music and playing, partly through his influence as Director of the St. Petersburg Conservatory, which position he first assumed in 1862. Rubinstein never belonged to the "advanced" school, and this new institution gave rise to a rival free conservatory under Cæsar Cui and Borodin, whose motto was Liszt and Wagner. Of Wagner, Rubinstein was always jealous, because he could not help feeling that, but for the Bayreuth master, he himself might have been the greatest opera-composer of the period. As a Russian, moreover, he has no natural sympathy with Germans; yet he frankly writes that "as regards the musical endowments of this or that nation, the Germans are of all peoples the most musical—notwithstanding the current patriotic notion that the devil himself could not outwit the Germans, the prevalent pietism and mysticism, the concentration of all German power in bayonets, and their unity, which cuts culture like a sharp sword. If we place the number of musical persons in Germany at 50 per cent. of the population, then France has only 16 per cent., and England not more than 2 per cent. Notwithstanding the hospitality with which I have been received in England, I say frankly that for music they have neither feeling nor understanding. Music in its proper sense exists only in Germany—music noble and serious." The Russians and Scandinavians, he says, have beautiful popular melodies. "In France there is only one branch of music which prospers and is very much esteemed. True appreciation of the greatest musical productions is to be found only in Germany."

— A well-known antiquary and dealer in antiquities at Venice recently purchased a portrait by Lorenzo Lotto which, when cleaned and identified, proves to be a portrait of Columbus. Compared with the photograph of the Madrid portrait, it appears to have been taken some years later than that, and has the character of individuality which a good portrait always betrays, while there is just enough difference from the accepted portraits to show that it is a different version of the face. In costume it resembles the Madrid picture except that the white shirt which shows at the neck is lower, revealing more of the neck. It has a black mantle, with brown fur, and a scarlet coat. In the right hand he holds a map of the Atlantic countries in the spherical projection, and the left arm rests on a pile of books supporting an hour-glass. A landscape is seen through a window behind him. The portrait is full face. It is signed "Lauren's Lotos f." Lotto was one of the most important of the second-rate painters of the Venetian school, and especially noteworthy as a portraitist. He is generally supposed to have been born about 1480, but Morelli inclines to put his birth at an earlier date on account of the formed style of his picture of St. Jerome in the Louvre, which is dated 1500. He was at first a follower of Bellini, then of Palma the elder, and finally studied Titian as his model. The portrait of Columbus is rather in the vein of the oldest master, and may therefore be put in the first decade of the sixteenth century, as that was the part of his career which is marked by the Bellinesque characteristics. It is possible, but seems hardly probable, that the portrait was painted from life. Lotto travelled a great deal, and may have been in Spain, and indeed may have been sent by the Venetian Republic for the purpose of painting the discoverer, as the Signory showed a very great interest in him. In the preface to the translation of the account of the discovery of America, printed by the Venetian press, Angelo Trevisan, the Secretary of Domenico Pisani, the Venetian Ambassador at Madrid, says, in a letter to the Venetian historian Malipiero, "I was favored to see much of Christopher Columbus, and to strike up a great friendship with him. By his intercession I was enabled to send somebody to Palos, where are sailors and men who have travelled with Columbus, in order to get the map which your Magnificence desires, executed. Here there is only that of Columbus. With regard to the description, it was written by learned men. I copied it, but it is very long. I send at present the translation of the first book to your Magnificence." This translation was published in 1504, the original not till 1511. The Secretary further writes that he has brought the map with him, the embassy having been away nearly a year. While it is possible that Lotto might have accompanied the embassy to Spain, it is more probable that it had brought back a portrait of Columbus, as the custom had then obtained of collecting the portraits of distinguished people, and that this portrait was merely reproduced by the Venetian master.

—It is to be regretted that the exhibit of the United States Signal Service at the Paris Exposition was so meagre as to give no real idea of the scope of its work. The small exhibit in this department of all the foreign countries suffered from being scattered over a large area to such a degree that not only were the instruments difficult to find, but it was almost impossible to compare them with one another. The unsatisfactory representation of the United States in this regard is explained on the ground that the Signal Office had no money, and received no direct encouragement from any one, until urged at the last moment by the French Government. The office, moreover, was busy moving, and its records and instruments were scattered. The instruments shown were a barometer, and the new triple register for wind velocity and direction, and rainfall. There were also charts and other publications of the service. Richard Brothers showed the largest collection of registering meteorological instruments, and next to them came that of Usteri-Reinacher, the successors of Goldschmidt and of Hottinger of Zürich. The English photographic sunshine recorder, or heliograph, of Jordan, has been modified by Dr. Maurer of Zürich, so that there is but a single straight trace for the whole day, instead of the two curved traces representing the morning and afternoon sun, as heretofore. The hair hygrometer of Dr. Koppe deserves special notice, being probably the best of its kind. Two sets of registering apparatus were shown by the Dutch house of H. Olland, of Utrecht. J. Timtchenks exhibited in the Russian section an anemograph, for which he claims the originality of registering by a single symbol upon a revolving drum both the direction and velocity of the wind, although this claim can hardly be sustained entirely. Two registers for a maregraph were exhibited by J. A. Neergaard of Copenhagen. A curious pocket thermometer was shown by H. Pieroni of Athens, the whole thing being contained in a silver coin about the size of a silver dollar, and was sold at thirty francs. Its motor and transmitting mechanism are similar to those of the thermograph manufactured by the Draper Company of New York.

RECENT POETRY.

In advance of Sir Edwin Arnold's recent visit to this country, his publishers issued an edition, in two thick volumes, of his collected poems (Boston: Roberts Bros.). It seems a pity that, if this was to be done, it should not have been of longer planning, for the work is not really a new issue, but simply a binding together of the separate works, not quite uniform as to type and with the original paging—a thing quite exasperating to bibliographers. Yet the book is presentable to the eye, after all—thanks to the general good taste of the house which issues it; and it awakens new wonder as to the varied labors of such a busy man. Not even the kindliness inspired by the passing visit of this most cordial of Englishmen can conceal the fact that he has written too much, especially in the Oriental field; and to turn these pages will bring curiously back to older readers the period when literature was redolent of Moore's "Peris" and Southey's "blessed Glendoveers." The scholarship of the present interpreter of the far East is doubtless more accurate than theirs, and perhaps his poetic quality firmer; but it is certain that earlier bards, using these pretty Oriental names as counters, have played for fame and lost. It is in Sir Edwin Arnold's favor that the human element in his poems is far stronger than in those of his predecessors; and there is nothing stronger in modern English ballad literature —nothing in Macaulay or Lockhart or Kingsley—than his "The Rajah's Ride" and "The Rajpoot Wife." Nor are there many contem-

porary English poems which have touched the deepest chords of human experience more effectively than "He Who Died at Azan" (called here "After Death in Arabia") and "She and He." If, as seems to be the case, an author's permanent fame is adjusted to the high-water mark of his work, Sir Edwin Arnold's reputation may rest finally on these.

There is nothing in Mr. Aldrich's new poem 'Wyndham Towers' (Houghton) to remind the reader of Moore and Southey, but there is a certain Leigh-Huntish flavor which suggests another model, and one which has a marked influence on contemporary English verse from Andrew Lang onward. Nothing in Mr. Aldrich's longer poems has the grace and attractive sentimental flavor of "Rimini," nor can any one of his shorter lyrics, admirable as they sometimes are, be placed beside "Jenny Kissed Me"; but, for all that, there is something in common. A single brief drama of Mr. Aldrich's, "Mercedes," gave a glimpse of a strength which nothing else in his works has confirmed; nor does anything in 'Wyndham Towers' recall it, but it is a graceful English narrative, with the accustomed properties well used and a good many trite images—the unused talents like a sword rusting in its sheath, and the young girl like a May morning. It is curious to see how often this poet's most admired gems are really the mere resetting of what came first from some one else—as, in the last *Atlantic*, his pretty lyric, "Pillared Arch and Sculptured Tower," simply restates what Keats put much better in the famous lines beginning, "O sovereign power of love," with which the second book of "Endymion" opens. After all, there must be something of strength and originality, behind the grace, to carry a poem far down the stream of time.

Even the delicate carefulness of execution for which Mr. Aldrich is so much praised has its marked limitations in his blank verse. There are too many lines ending feebly with prepositions:

"The ivy of an idle legend on"
"Whom his soft mother had made favorite of"
"And this one time must needs lend hearing to";

or lines requiring a forced emphasis in the reading, as

"Man's foot came not there. It was hallowed ground";

or two consecutive lines with an unpleasing assonance in the ending, as

"And tell-tale places where the moonlight fell
Crept through the huddled shadows back to hall."

Nor can we find anything graceful or appropriate in the most salient and original image of the whole poem, where the author says of the aspect of his demure little heroine,

"If so much beauty had a tiger been,
'T had eaten him."

Finally, we notice that in order to make his verse flow smoothly, the author has to accent Màlay on the first syllable, and Proserpìna on the penultimate—in both cases contrary to the authorities. In spite of all these criticisms—the making of which is a compliment, since they imply that we are dealing with an artist in words—the poem is readable and vivacious; and there are a few lines, such as

"The moths on indolent white damask wings,"

which might have come from Keats, and a description of a sunrise (p. 61) that is good enough to have come from anybody.

Even the stanchest admirers of Mr. Swinburne must own, we should fancy, a visible loss of power in his third series of 'Poems and Ballads' (Worthington); yet the faith in an idol dies hard, and it is never quite safe to predict. Certainly the mouthing grandiloquence of his recent and conservative phase of life has little in common with the delicate music of his more ideal poems, or with the extraordinary vigor of some of his Revolutionary strains. The only poem in this book which has anything in common with the heroic strength of his "Song in Time of Order" is "A Jacobite's Farewell," which is worth, to our thinking, many times over, the forty pages of turgid gasconade under the name of "The Armada":

"A JACOBITE'S FAREWELL, 1716.

"There's nae mair lands to tyne, my dear,
And nae mair lives to gie;
Though a man think sair to live nae mair,
There's but one day to die.

"For a' things come and a' days gane,
What needs ye rend your hair?
But kiss me till the morn's morrow,
Then I'll kiss ye nae mair.

"O lands are lost and life's losing,
And whet were they to gie?
Fu' mony a man gives all he can,
But nae man else gives ye.

"Our King wons ower the sea's water,
And I in prison sair;
But I'll win out the morn's morrow,
And ye'll see me nae mair." (P. 167.)

Far more attractive to us than most of Mr. Swinburne's wide-mouthed lines are two new volumes that have come from the yet unexhausted genius of Scotland. One of these is 'A Book of Verses,' by W. E. Henley (Scribner & Welford), opening with an extraordinary series of poems, unique in literature, and drawn, it is said, from the author's actual experience in hospital. The theme might seem repellent, and it is, but there is no coarse French taste for merely physical horrors—as in the Salon pictures—while the uttermost realities of drug and knife are brought before us, and even of anæsthetics:

"Behold me waiting; waiting for the knife.
A little while and at a leap I storm
The thick, sweet mystery of chloroform,
The drunken dark—the little death in life." (P. 7.)

While thus waiting in hospital, the author sketches, as it were on his thumb-nail, inimitable pictures of surgeons, nurses, and patients—Mr. R. L. Stevenson among them—so that we feel that we have personally known them all. Later in the book he widens his range, but still keeps a tight grip on all he attempts to draw. Sometimes he verges on coarseness, sometimes there are echoes of Heine, but it would really be hard to point to any recent volume of so much promise from London. Here is a bit of local coloring which will have interest for all Americans, North and South. It is one of the hospital poems:

ROMANCE.

"Talk of pluck," pursued the Sailor,
Set at euchre on his elbow,
"I was on the wharf at Charleston
Just ashore from off the runner.

"It was gray and dirty weather,
And I heard a drum go rolling,
Rub-a-dubbing in the distance,
Awful dour-like and defiant.

"In and out among the cotton,
Mud, and chains, and stores, and anchors,
Tramped a squad of battered scarecrows—
Poor old Dixie's bottom dollar!

"Some had shoes, but all had rifles,
Them that wasn't bald was beardless,
And the drum was rolling *Dixie*,
And they stepped to it like men, sir!

"Rags and tatters, belts and bayonets,
On they swung, the drum a-rolling,
Mum and dour. It looked like fighting,
And they meant it too, by thunder!" (P. 33.)

The other Scotch book, in its way as remarkable, is 'The Bird-Bride, and Other Poems,' by Graham R. Tomson (Longmans). This name will be familliar to all lovers of ballad literature as that of the editor of the best collection yet made of 'Ballads of the North Countrie,' prefaced by the best condensed essay on that theme. The newspapers have not yet settled whether it is Mrs. Graham R. Tomson to whom we owe all this—although we have no doubts on that subject—or a rumored "Mrs. Sharp," who is further described as being Spanish in appearance and with rope-like coils of blue-black hair. But whatever her name or *chevelure*, she is one of the few persons in modern days who can produce a ballad. It is an art that still survives in Edinburgh—witness poor Sydney Dobell's 'Keith of Ravelston'—but he wrote only one conspicuous and triumphant ballad, and this lady half-a-dozen. "The Bird-Bride" appeared in *Harper's Magazine;* but it is no finer than "Pentyre Town," "Deid Folks' Ferry," "The Cruel Priest," and "The Blind Ghost," while "Le Mauvais Larron," rather a tragic poem than a ballad, is very likely to outlive the picture by Willette for which it was written.

These two volumes stand out distinctly amid the flood of triviality which just now passes for high poetic art in London. We can hardly link in this encomium the poem 'Divine Philosophy,' by Macmillan (London: Kegan Paul); for though the philosophy is that of Charles Darwin, the poetry takes us back to his grandfather Erasmus, which is a less pleasing association. We own to preferring a gay little book, 'Through Romany Songland,' by Laura Alexandrine Smith (London: David Stott), giving the words and the music of many gypsy songs of different countries.

There are always volumes of verse which have a certain simple and elementary value—we might perhaps almost call it culinary. They are like the doughnuts one still finds lingering on the breakfast-tables of otherwise ambitious rural inns, a connecting link with their old-time public of stage-passengers. Such books are, for instance, the curiously named 'City Legends' of Will Carleton (Harpers), and 'The Children, and Other Verses,' by Charles M. Dickinson (Cassell). Mr. Carleton as justly appeals in his preface to "his large family of readers" as Mr. Prang might point with pride to the number who purchase his chromos; and Mr. Dickinson says that his title-poem has been widely copied over the name of Charles Dickens, so that the son of the novelist here supplies a letter to disclaim the authorship. Having thus the substance of fame, why should these authors care for its shadow, criticism? The test of a breakfast-table, it may justly be said, lies in the appetite of the guests.

In the series of "Knickerbocker Nuggets," Mr. George Cary Eggleston edits two little volumes of 'American War Ballads' (Putnams). The little books are of very dainty execution as regards type and paper, but are disfigured by a great inequality of execution in the vignettes; some of these, as in the case of "Paul Jones's Victory" and "Sheridan's Ride," being simply grotesque. The selection of poems is fairly good, but far less admirable than that of Mr. Brander Matthews's 'Poems of American Patriotism,' published some years since. Unfortunately, too, the editor, by limiting himself to lyrics, excludes some of the finest poems of the war, such as Lowell's "Commemoration Ode" and Aldrich's "Fredericksburg" sonnet. There is also an unaccountable absence of alphabetical indexes to the poems, whether of author, titles, or first lines.

In the way of recent religious poetry, there are two notable translated volumes. One of these is a rhythmical version of Thomas à Kempis's 'Imitation of Christ' in the original metres (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), which, for the first time, takes us back to the period when this Christian classic bore the name of 'Church Music' (*Musica Ecclesiastica*), and was known only in its rhythmical arrangement. Certainly the increased dignity and sweetness of the present form justify the translator in his labors and Canon Liddon in his preface. Another similar treatment of a yet older religious work is 'The Poetry of Job,' by Dr. George H. Gilbert of the Chicago Theological Seminary (Chicago: Mc-

Clurg), containing a new metrical version of this book of Scripture with an essay. Both parts are fine in conception and treatment, but cause some surprise that the author should omit all reference to his accomplished predecessor in the same work, the late Prof. Noyes of Harvard, whose 'Amended Version of the Book of Job' came as a revelation of new beauty to the last generation of American readers.

In the way of miscellaneous verse there is a little volume of rather light-weight verse by Walter Learned, called 'Between Times' (Stokes), with preliminary verses by George Parsons Lathrop, who is too hopeful, we think, of the career of a poet who compares autumn to "a decrepit citizen" (p. 5), and describes Psyche as spilling hot kerosene on Cupid's shoulder (p. 37). The inexhaustible vitality and drollery of Mr. Charles Godfrey Leland is exhibited *in extenso* in a new edition of 'The Breitmann Ballads,' very greatly enlarged (London: Trübner). There is at the end a curious glossary of jargon by the late Nicholas Trübner. Philip Acton's 'Songs and Sonnets' (Longmans) have in them a good deal that is commonplace, but nothing that goes further in that direction than this description of "Memnon and His Mate" in Egypt:

> "There sat the everlasting pair,
> Full twenty cubits in the air,
> Each in his monumental chair,
> A superhuman pile." (P. 45.)

'The Manx Witch, and Other Poems,' by T. E. Brown (Macmillan), is a curious book, written mostly in dialect, and with here and there gleams of real power, but chiefly interesting as a glossary. 'Before and After: Concerning Sergeant Thomas Atkins, Grenadier Guards, with Other Verses,' by R. St. John Tyrwhitt (Macmillan), is, on the other hand, chiefly interesting as theology, and not very much so even in that way. The Rev. Arthur Wentworth Eaton's 'Acadian Legends and Lyrics' (White & Allen), though the work of a theologian, is not theological, and has some agreeable local coloring from Evangeline's country. Mr. Francis Lucas, in 'Sketches of Rural Life' (Macmillan), has some stirring strains about hedgers and woodmen, such as will be dear to the readers of Thomas Hardy's novels. In 'Echoes of Thought,' by Emily E. Reader (Longmans), the modest name is well justified, and the most interesting echoes are those from Egyptian mythology. Mr. William Larminie versifies the Irish traditions in 'Glanlua' (London: Kegan Paul), but less successfully than it is done in the charming versions of Aubrey de Vere.

Several recent volumes of translations touch upon familiar ground. The editor of the "Chandos Classics" gives us a really valuable and well-edited volume of selected translations from the whole works of Horace (F. Warne & Co.). The collection includes the work of poets of every grade, from Ben Jonson to the present day, all united in the sincere effort to perform a feat which is in itself impossible. Far easier is the task of Mr. Henry Hamilton, who tries his hand at the first six books of Virgil's 'Æneid' (Putnams); but he destroys his chances of success, at the outset, by undertaking to render the dignified uniformity of Virgil into a variety of metres—a method which leaves his case as hopeless as that of the others. Mr. Justin H. McCarthy has given us a prose translation of the "Rubáiyát" of Omar Khayyám, printed daintily, but somewhat affectedly, in capitals, and prefaced by an introduction so dapper and jaunty that every lover of these extraordinary poems must wish that he had left them untouched. Surely neither Whinfield, nor Nicolas, nor Garner has succeeded in so denuding these magnificent verses of their peculiar thrill. That much of their glory is Fitzgerald's we know; it is only needful, in order to make sure of that, to open his "Agamemnon," and come upon such a quatrain as:

> "Call not on Death, old man, that, call'd or no,
> Comes quick: nor spend your ebbing breath on me,
> Nor Helena, who but as arrows be
> Shot by the hidden hand behind the bow."

Such a passage, like a comparison of equations in algebra, helps to determine for us the value of the two unknown quantities, x = Omar, y = Fitzgerald; we ask no more. If so much of the Persian is the Englishman, why not leave the matter there? They may well remain double stars, as Emerson says of Socrates and Plato. It is evident from Mr. McCarthy that he found the study of his author in the original Persian difficult; but we wish, in Dr. Johnson's phrase, that it had been impossible. A really delightful little book, still edited by the ubiquitous Mrs. Graham R. Tomson, is a volume of 'Selections from the Greek Anthology' in the "Canterbury Poets" series (London: Walter Scott). The little poems of the Anthology are to Greek literature what the Tanagra figurines are to Greek art: they admit us instantly to the whole world of home and private life. In spite of the labors of Bland, Merivale, and others, the best English rendering of these works has been in the prose volume of Bohn's Library. If the present compendium is better, it is largely due to the talent of a lady to us hitherto unknown and bearing the name of Alma Strettell—a name so quaint that we cannot help suspecting it to be simply a mask of the editor; not "M. Tonson come again," but Mme. Tomson, who certainly shows herself in the preface to be familiar with Meleager in the original. The versions under this name are uniformly terse, close, vigorous, and graceful; far surpassing those of Mr. Gosse, which are apt to have something of a cockney flavor, or of Mr. Andrew Lang, who modernizes Rufinus into *ballades*, and enfeebles the fresh, hirsute vigor of Theocritus with "meseems" and "winsome." Our chief objection to the editor's work, indeed, is that she falls sufficiently into the prevalent London Gallicism to employ two little French verses as a motto for her book, where they are as essentially out of place as would have been a Japanese vignette.

WILSON'S 'THE STATE.'

The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics. A Sketch of Institutional History and Administration. By Woodrow Wilson, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1889.

THE somewhat complicated title which Prof. Wilson has chosen for this volume suggests the difficulty in which he has been involved by his plan. There is room for doubt as to the wisdom of attempting to compress into one treatise an account of the political institutions of all times as well as an epitome of political history. The subject is too vast to admit of very thorough treatment within such narrow limits, and where so much must be omitted, there will always be differences of opinion as to what the omissions should be. It is, perhaps, on this account that, as the author observes, he has had no predecessors; that "no text-book of like scope and purpose has hitherto been attempted." As a consequence, the book is inconveniently large for a text-book, while it is not full enough for a book of reference. But, in spite of all difficulties and drawbacks, the work has been very well done. The best authorities have been followed, and followed intelligently, and the arrangement of details concerning modern institutions of government has evidently been elaborated with the most careful industry. The style is clear, and there is a certain vivacity in the narrative portions of the text that relieves the dryness of the theme.

The earlier chapters treat of the origin and development of government in general, substantially in accordance with the views of such writers as Maine, Lubbock, Spencer, and Bagehot. The ancient city is described in the spirit of Coulanges's essay, and the political history of the leading Greek states is given with considerable detail, and as it is to be found in the standard histories. On the other hand, the treatment of the political institutions of Rome is exceedingly meagre. Scarcely a dozen pages, or about the space given to that mere archæological curiosity, the government of Lacedæmon, suffice to bring us down to the period of the Empire. The subsequent changes are described with more fulness; still, to take one instance, it would not be very easy to determine from this account the nature of the administration of a municipality in the provinces at the time of the Teutonic invasion. The discussion of the influence of the Roman law could, perhaps, not very well be omitted in a treatise that is for this period mainly historical; but if positive law is to be described among the institutions of government, it is easy to see that, within such space as is here at command, the description must be inadequate. It would have been probably more effective to give more attention to the administrative methods and achievements of the Romans, and to relinquish their jurisprudence to the care of specialists.

As to the Teutonic peoples, the description is taken in the main from accepted authorities; but the student might get the impression that a true nobility existed among them in primitive times. Here, too, we think that the desire to emphasize contrasts leads the author to overlook the existence of personal allegiance among the Romans. It was undoubtedly more prominent among the Barbarians, but it prevailed necessarily under the Roman system of landed estates, and was conspicuous in many of their intestine broils, to say nothing of the extended relation of patron and client. In the account of the separation of the Papacy from the Empire, it is a rather serious omission to say nothing of the influence of the Lombards, and it is a still more serious error, or cluster of errors, to say that "the Pope, arrogating to himself the prerogatives of king-maker, crowned Charles the Great Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire—'Holy' because created by the authority of mother Church." The Empire did not become "holy" for some centuries, probably, after this event, and the title seems to have been assumed in opposition to the exclusive claims of the Church, which was disposed to look down upon the civil power as earthly and profane. In a work of such extensive range, it is highly dangerous for a compiler to vary in the slightest degree from his authorities, and to yield to the temptation to make his style graphic by adding touches of his own origination, which, however well meant, may mislead the ignorant and arouse distrust among the learned.

As the author approaches modern times he treads upon firmer ground, and his description of the political institutions of the leading European countries is perhaps the most valuable portion of his book, containing a good deal of matter that is not easily accessible. Neither Italy, nor Spain, nor Russia, however, so far as we have observed, receives the slightest mention; nor is there anywhere in the book, we believe, anything more than an allusion to the

political institutions of the Asiatic peoples. About one-third of the volume is devoted to the governments of England and the United States, an allowance of space that enables the author to give a comparatively thorough treatment to the complicated political machinery of these countries. But in many instances here he is, in our judgment, carried away by his passion for neat theories and sweeping generalizations. Desiring to make an effective contrast between the civilization of the New England colonies and those of the South, he represents the early settlers of Virginia as spreading far and wide in the pursuit of agriculture, while in New England "every circumstance invited to close settlement and trade, to the intimate relationships of commerce and the adventures of seafaring, rather than to the wide-spreading settlements characteristic of an agricultural population." While it is true that commerce after a time arose, no one who is conversant with the early history of New England would maintain that the primitive settlers were not in the main devoted to agriculture, or characterize their settlements otherwise than as wide-spreading; nor do the circumstances of the "long winters" and "bleak coast winds" seem to invite to "the adventures of seafaring" with irresistible persuasiveness.

The futility of such preconceived theories appears plainly enough when they are applied to the middle colonies, which,

"though possessed of a rich soil, had also fine seaports which invited to commerce; their climate was neither so harsh as that of New England nor so mild and beguiling as that of the Southern colonies. Their people, consequently, built towns and traded, like the people of New England; but also spread abroad over the fertile country and farmed, like the people of Virginia. . . . Townships they had, but counties also; they were simple and democratic, like the New Englanders, and yet they were agricultural also, like the Virginians."

Why a people may not be at the same time simple and democratic as well as agricultural is not explained; but, at all events, the diversity of the political institutions of the early colonies is not to be accounted for by such crude statements as these.

Upon another point in this connection—the process of institutional growth in the early colonies of New England—the author is not less superficial. The impression conveyed is, that the towns were in the first place independent communities, which were gradually brought into some kind of federal union. "The process is obviously federative from the first." "Gradually the towns . . . drew together into the colonies known to later times." "But at first these larger colonies were scarcely more than town leagues." We do not think that this impression would survive a perusal of the early laws of "The Massachusetts"; but we can do no more here than state that it is not to be accepted as in unquestioned correspondence with fact.

There are some chapters at the close of the book upon Law, and upon the nature, forms, functions, and objects of Government. It is of course impossible to deal fairly with such matters in a few pages, but there is much that is judicious in their treatment. Upon the whole, however, the book is not to be recommended without qualification as a text-book. The basis of scholarship upon which it rests seems to be scarcely broad enough or deep enough, and at the same time there are few teachers who have the scholarship with which to neutralize its mistakes. It is to be feared that a tendency exists among our rising school of historical writers to adopt rather a scientific vocabulary than a scientific method. We hear much talk of society as an organism; of growth and development, of crystallization, and integration, and solidarity. These are convenient expressions, but they may sometimes serve to conceal a lack of thought. It is quite possible to mistake a metaphor for a demonstration, and to deal so nimbly with abstractions as to make them pass for the concrete. It is well for every writer to bear in mind that the success of comparative methods depends upon minute and accurate observation, and that without this fund of knowledge the affectation of broad and sweeping generalizations can impose only upon the vulgar.

Appreciations. With an Essay on Style. By Walter Pater. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THESE critical essays are gathered from Mr. Pater's occasional writings of the past fifteen years upon English authors. They are upon a lower level than his imaginative work, which is also so essentially criticism, and deal more directly with the actual work and individuality of men eminent for the qualities which he prizes. They are, of course, highly intellectual in matter, and controlled by the tastes and principles which make the positive part of the author's work in all his writings; the subjects are old, and consequently the interest lies in Mr. Pater's own treatment. He begins with Style. Originality of thought is not to be looked for in such a topic. The most to be required is freshness of presentation—some rearrangement of customary ideas, some felicity of restatement, some semblance of a new point of view. Mr. Pater resorts naturally to the aspect of the matter as seen from within, from the genius engaged in the production of literature instead of from the completed work; and therefore he interprets the structure which belongs to style as proceeding from mind, and the charm which it possesses as born of the soul. Mind and soul must be in style, and the expression of these must be submitted to the restrictions, depending on language, which lie in the province of grammar and rhetoric. He concludes with the assertion of the canon that the result will be great art in proportion to the value, compass, and serviceableness to men of the contents.

This is set forth in a refreshing way, however, and with seeming novelty; and, as hardly needs to be said, is interspersed with those brief, fine statements by the way which are so large a part of his attraction to the cultivated reader. He uses Flaubert as an example of the devotee to style, with effect, but too much in Arnold's manner to be pleasing in one whose own less didactic style is thus displaced. The same subject is practically taken up, also, in the last essay upon the meaning of the words "classical" and "romantic," upon which likewise there is nothing new to be said. The classical involves the predominance of mind, the romantic that of soul, in style, using the last word as meaning total expression; the one stands for manner as against matter, for authority as against experiment, for the customary as against the disturbing; both seek beauty, but the romantic seeks it with a curiosity and a delight in the strange which sometimes sacrifices beauty. In Greek and Roman literature itself, the romantic spirit is a living one. Such are the main lines of definition; and, as in the essay upon Style, the freshness of statement gives interest to principles which must be often repeated as time goes on.

The essays upon particular subjects are of more importance. Wordsworth, Coleridge, Sir Thomas Browne, Lamb, Shakspere, and the two æsthetic poets, Morris and Rossetti, are the titles. The discussion of Wordsworth's genius is admirable to a degree hardly to be expected from Mr. Pater, and illustrates the breadth of his appreciation of literary qualities. One feels, as he reads, that much of Wordsworth is being frankly suppressed and put out of sight. But what remains—the sense of nature to the solitary, the nearness of nature to peasant life as a fact observed, the theatre offered by peasant life for the display of primitive passion so finely relieved on a nature-background, the sensibility of Wordsworth to vague, speculative ideas of the race with regard to the animate soul of the universe and man's emergence from it at birth, and the great practical wisdom of the poet in morals—all this is fully recognized. And, in these special points, together with the fact that the high mood always brought to Wordsworth noble expression, Mr. Pater finds the greatness of his poetry. Coleridge exhibits so great a contrast to Wordsworth that it is painful to set them side by side. He stood, Mr. Pater says, for the reaction, or for the last struggle of the "absolute" with the incoming influence of the "relative" as the controlling spirit of modern thought; and in poetry the critic again points to the cadence of the verse, the sensuous perception of beauty, and the fantastic imaginative element in conception, which characterize his work. The remaining essays are of the same sort—not novel or original in matter, but gaining value from the treatment.

This method of treatment is familiar to all who are acquainted with the individuality of spirit in Mr. Pater's work. He seeks for excellence, and has a welcome for it, and actually prizes it, in whatever literature has to offer in illustration of human life on its ideal, its beautiful or poetical, sides. This sensibility, by virtue of which he really experiences the books he reads, is supplemented by a vigorous and highly cultivated intelligence which makes him seem at times more absorbed in general ideas, in the universal mood of an age, the characteristic state of culture then existing, than in the particular example of one or another author. These general world-old ideas, which literature does but repeat from century to century, these special qualities of a whole generation in different periods of history, have been so attended to by him that they have gifted him with a peculiar, and in our time unique, culture, of which his pages bear the stamp, whatever the subject may be. The value of these essays, therefore, is not easily described, is not indicated truly by such abstract of contents as we have given; it consists in the constancy and directness with which he brings commonplace, or at least not unusual, remarks on authors, into relation with the phases of past or modern culture, and in the illustration he sheds upon the authors from abstract ideas. His criticism is more often for the intellect than for the æsthetic sense. For this reason he succeeds best in his imaginative work, when he can construct his own characters. In dealing with other men's creations or personalities he is limited by their defects, and his exposition seems incomplete. Yet these essays upon Lamb, Browne, and especially upon Shakspere's *Richard II.* and *Biron*, are charming by their subtle and cheerful appreciation, their intimate understanding of individual traits, their generous praise, and their unceasing thoughtfulness upon the higher issues involved in every life, whether real or the creation of genius. If the critic appears less brilliant than in more important books from his pen, he seems perhaps more friendly and near at hand.

A Popular Treatise on the Winds: comprising the general motions of the atmosphere, monsoons, cyclones, tornadoes, waterspouts, hailstorms, etc., etc. By William Ferrel, M.A., Ph.D. John Wiley & Sons. 1889. Large 8vo, 505 pp. Tables, references, and full index.

THIS is a book to which studious readers, inclined towards physical geography, will turn with great interest; and if they persevere to an understanding of its thorough statement, meteorology will have gained something of the aspect of an exact science in their minds. It is a book to which teachers in particular can resort with confidence, and from which they can take mental discipline as well as example and instruction. It marks the rounding of a period in our meteorological history—a period in which we may justly take much pride.

Ferrel's first essay in meteorology appeared in 1856, when he was nearly forty years of age. It was published in so unconspicuous a periodical as the Nashville *Journal of Medicine and Surgery;* and the preface to the present volume tells us that the first essay was prompted by reading, in Maury's 'Physical Geography of the Sea,' an account of the excess of atmospheric pressure in two belts around the earth, at latitudes 30° north and south, and of its deficiency around the equator and at the poles. The student of elementary meteorology may appreciate how difficult it would be to explain the low pressure at the poles by means of the ordinary convectional theory of atmospheric circulation; for the decrease of temperature and the convergence of the meridians towards the poles ought, in the absence of other causes, to produce high pressure there. There is hardly a single text-book in use that makes adequate explanation of this curious contradiction of old theory by new facts, although the real meaning of it was given thirty years ago by Ferrel, when he ascribed it to the effect of a circumpolar whirling of the general circulation of the atmosphere, induced by the effect of the earth's rotation on the convectional interchange between equator and poles. The essential nature of the process is simply conceived, although its full mathematical expression is not yet attained. This discovery, like others by which Ferrel has given rational explanation to cyclones and tornadoes, has for its characteristic the careful deductive correlation of facts derived from meteorological observation with principles gained from physical study. The student of the history of method in scientific research will surely place high value on Ferrel's work, as illustrating the most admirable development of logical investigation, in which induction and deduction are rationally combined. Perhaps the reason that this combination has not been more often found among meteorologists is, that so few of them are sufficiently educated on the physical and mathematical side to allow it. The popular idea of a meteorologist, as one who keeps a record of the weather, is not so far wrong as we could wish it might be.

An account of the many interruptions in Ferrel's meteorological work may be found in the sketch of his life by McAdie, in the *American Meteorological Journal* for February, 1888. We need here only advert to his studies of ten years ago, when engaged in the Coast Survey on researches for the use of the Coast Pilot—which we cannot mention without smiling at the astonishment our hardy sailors must have felt on meeting the intricate formulæ prepared for their edification—and of later time, when occupied in the Signal Office in preparing a volume on 'Recent Advances in Meteorology,' which appeared in the annual report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1885. The greater part of these essays is beyond the non-mathematical reader, although the paragraphs in which theory is confronted with facts are highly instructive; and it is with the intention of reducing his studies nearer to popular reading that the volume here considered has been prepared. Our indebtedness for it must increase when we remember that it is completed after its industrious author has attained three score years and ten.

The full title of the volume gives sufficient indication of its contents, but its pages must be consulted to appreciate the fulness of knowledge with which it has been composed. It is not easy reading, and cannot be digested by those who have not made some previous beginning in its subjects; nor will readers unaccustomed to serious thinking find its style to their liking; but for teachers, as already said, and for students in a second course, it is simply invaluable. The only other work to be named with it is Sprung's 'Lehrbuch der Meteorologie' (Hamburg, 1885), in which the descriptive illustrations are fewer and the discussion is more condensed and mathematical. Ferrel's book has nothing of controversy—not because his studies have been universally accepted, but because he is satisfied to accept the verdict that will be given when his work is well understood. It contains little of the historical development of the questions treated, perhaps because their previous theoretical treatment is so insufficient; for it may be truly said that the greater part of the book is concerned with questions to which the author's own contributions outrank all others. Yet the reader would hardly suspect this, so impersonal is the style of presentation. It is occupied throughout with a minute, methodical statement directly to the point. The presentation is at times so deliberate that the reader would do well to make a brief outline of the contents of a chapter and their argumentative sequence, if he would possess them fully.

The method of the book is so characteristic of the author's work that we must recur to it again. Each problem is entered with the general facts concerning it in mind; the theory of the process by which the facts are to be explained is then followed out deductively to its extremest consequences; finally, these consequences are confronted with a greatly enlarged collection of facts in order to test the sufficiency of the theory. The comparisons here made between deduction and observation must go far towards convincing the student that meteorological theory has taken a very respectable position in the circle of the sciences. If we look for other examples of this method, we find that it is seen in essence in the work of Espy, as compared with the more simply inductive work of Dové; or again in the modern school of meteorology as a whole compared with the earlier school, of which Schmid's 'Lehrbuch' may be taken as the exponent; or, once more, in the German-Austrian school as compared with that prevalent in Great Britain, and represented by Buchan and Laughton. It is not so much the effort to combine inductive and deductive processes into a logical whole that characterizes Ferrel's work (for all investigators attempt the combination to a certain degree); it is the success of the effort, the distance to which the combination is carried, and the critical discussion of the sufficiency of its results, that distinguish Ferrel's writings. Only in recent years have others undertaken meteorological studies in this serious fashion—some of them, doubtless, inspired by Ferrel's success, others taking up the same method independently; but we believe that all these regard Ferrel's studies as marking the beginning of an epoch in mathematical and physical meteorology.

There is no place in a newspaper notice for extracts from so condensed a volume as this treatise is; but if our readers wish to appreciate its quality, let them first read up some of its topics in the best books of reference they can consult, and then turn to the same subjects in Ferrel's pages.

Cambridge: Brief Historical and Descriptive Notes. By J. W. Clark, M.A., formerly Fellow of Trinity College. Pp. 326. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THIS is in many respects a singular book. The letter-press seems to be a *verbatim* reprint from a more showy but less handy volume issued by the same house in 1881. That book contained large etchings, of which the designs, reduced on wood, appear in the present edition. But there is not a word from author or publisher to show that the small book dated 1890 is a mere copy of the big book dated 1881.

Those who knew the old book well, and looked for something new, are naturally disappointed; but those who never saw the old will be tantalized. For one who has lived in Cambridge and knows University and town well, Mr. Clark's notes are very fragmentary; to those who never enjoyed that privilege, they are likely to be well-nigh unintelligible. It is not any too easy to discover the thread on which the notes are strung; but close examination seems to show that Mr. Clark reviews in chronological order, first, the existing remnants of Cambridge before the University existed, then the like remains in each college, and develops, as its date presents each piece, something of the College history. Not that this order is by any means strictly followed; for instance, Emmanuel College is discussed before Jesus College (out of regard for American ears, we do not, as any Cambridge man on the spot would certainly do, omit the word "college" after these names), though, from every point of view, Emmanuel is the later.

This singularly chosen order of chapters makes the book seem very desultory. The writer skips about topographically and historically, in a manner hard to follow even by an alumnus. Of the town he gives no plan, though it would not have been hard to overlay the lines of the modern sheets with the ancient ones in red, as in Burn's 'Rome,' so as to indicate the many changes—changes which Mr. Clark himself says make identifications difficult. St. Catherine's College, and the two founded between 1600 and 1800, are barely alluded to; and those which owe their growth to University expansion in this century—Girton, Newnham, Cavendish, and Selwyn—are wholly ignored. It may be said that this is because their buildings present no room for interesting architectural discussions. Then why fill out the book by a chapter on social life in Cambridge sixty years ago, the greater part of which may be found in print elsewhere?

But of the older colleges, even Trinity Hall and Corpus get in only over the wall, as it were, by virtue of the quaint library of the former and St. Benet's Tower near the latter. Mr. Clark seems fettered by the necessity of having some interesting bit of antique architecture which he can use as a peg on which to hang an indefinite amount of antiquarian matter in prose and verse, much of it curious and rare, much stale and cheap. And even in

those college histories which he expands most fully, there occur singular gaps. Why such faint allusions to the old Court of King's and the moving of its bridge? Why not tell how St. Peter's Church yielded its name to the miniature and now disused structure near the castle, becoming itself Little St. Mary's? Why no more, or, as to that, why nothing, about the lovely old gate opposite Trinity Hall? Why nothing of the discoveries in the "Labyrinth" of St. John's when the old chapel was destroyed?

Perhaps the non-Cantabrigian reader will be bewildered by this list. But he will be not less bewildered by Mr. Clark's book as it is. He will probably feel like Mr. Verdant Green's father, who "took back to the country a somewhat confused recollection of Oxford," after the guide had trotted him through "the 'alls, colleges, and principal buildings in an hour and a 'arf." There is no proportion in the book, a result perhaps due to Mr. Clark's admiration of the charming irregularities of what ancient bits of building survive in Cambridge, and his just contempt for the priggish and meaningless Italian structures of 1750–1800. We do not overlook the many good things in the book. Mr. Clark is a Cambridge boy, and loves his home. He shows a good deal of reading, and no little personal research; the English is good, and there is a pleasant air over the whole, such as the author himself brings into University society. The book is good enough to have been better; as it is, it reads as if written up to the pictures. There is some history; some archæology; some anecdote; a little original research; a great deal of not over-new padding, and no system—or at best an obscure one.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part vi. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE sixth part of this work deals mainly with the historical and quasi-historical ballads, those relating to war or personal adventure. The number contained in it amounts to thirty-three, and among these are some of the most widely known poems in ballad literature, such, in particular, as the "Battle of Otterburn" and the "Hunting of the Cheviot," or, as it is popularly called, "Chevy Chase." In addition to the numerous variants, there are between twenty and thirty pages given up to corrections and additions that still further illustrate the parts previously published.

In this meagre way we are compelled to notice the progress of a work which exhibits in a preëminent degree the results of the most patient investigation and of the profoundest learning in the special department that has been made the subject of inquiry. To every lover of literature it is gratifying to observe that this immense and toilsome task is so well on its way to completion, embodying and thereby permanently preserving as it does a wealth of information which it is almost hopeless to expect will ever be amassed again. It is extremely unlikely that future discoveries will ever add much to the quality or even to the quantity of what has been collected here. The appreciation of the work as well as its value will accordingly increase steadily with the flight of time. It is already noticeable that this quarry is beginning to be worked by those who are quick to seize upon what has been accomplished by the labor of others, and to put into popular form what they have themselves neither the knowledge nor ability to gather or to originate.

It is to be hoped that when this monumental work has been completed, the editor will not be discouraged from fulfilling the promise which he made more than thirty years ago to compose a History (or, as he termed it, an Essay on the History) of Ballad Poetry. No one is so qualified as he to write it; no one, it is to be feared, will ever again be so qualified. It will be a fitting conclusion to one of the greatest works of scholarship the present century has accomplished, and will remain an authority on its subject from which there will be no appeal.

Liberty and a Living. By P. G. Hubert, jr. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE author of this little book, a man of refined tastes, abandons his occupation in the town for a rural life on the south side of Long Island. With an income of $500 per annum he proposes to lead an existence of comparative liberty and freedom from care. His purpose is to show how, with a cash revenue of the above amount, supplemented by his own efforts as a fisherman, an oysterman, and a taker of crabs, a cultivator of the nimble bee and of small fruits and vegetables, not for profit, but for the sustenance of his family, one may accomplish that result. The experience of those who reside continuously throughout the year on the south side of Long Island, under moral conditions similar to those of Mr. Hubert, but equipped with a much larger income, free from the incentive or necessity to follow piscatorial or agricultural pursuits, and with ample occupation, does not quite sustain his optimistic portrayal of life there. He makes the impression of a young man, not free from illusions, but possessed of habits of industry and application and an admirable placidity and evenness of temper. Without the last, under the conditions of rural life on Long Island, within his environment, which must necessarily bring him into close material relations with the rude natives of the soil, he must needs have long since abandoned his experiment in disgust. What Mr. Hubert has evidently successfully accomplished is within the reach of very few not mentally and morally so well equipped as he.

Apart from the practical benefits which he extracts from its light soil and exhausted waters, Mr. Hubert is evidently a keen lover of the Long Island landscape. Upon this he is to be congratulated, in view of its depressing flatness and monotony. He writes most charmingly. Of the works treating of kindred subjects, his possesses a grace and interest comparable to the very best of those of his predecessors. There are many who long for just the very sort of life which Mr. Hubert portrays. Such may read his little book with profit and pleasure, and if they possess the admirable qualities which must surely belong to one who writes with such simplicity and evident contentment and sincerity, they cannot fail to attain to equally satisfactory results.

Natural History Object Lessons: A Manual for Teachers. By George Ricks. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 352.

THE author of this manual is an inspector of schools for the London School Board, and the book, from its "Boston, U. S. A.," on the title-page to its compact index, is British in every line. We have examined it with some care, and while we cannot recommend it for use as a finished product, we think it will be helpful to really intelligent and progressive teachers who know enough of natural history to discard obsolete systematic biology wherever they may find it, and yet would be grateful for a compend of economic fact and suggestion which would save them time in framing lessons. The scientific side of this book is inadequate and obsolete. The economic and encyclopedic side is much more what such a presentation should be. For ourselves we should prefer two books, such as Huxley for systematics and Simmonds's 'Commercial Products' for the rest, both being original authorities; but, for many, the accumulation of fact and suggestion in this book will be welcome, and its old-fashioned classification not a serious disadvantage.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

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A few copies of this admirable facsimile reprint, noticed in the *Nation* for Nov. 28, 1889, are to be had of the BOSTON BOOK CO., 15½ Beacon St., Boston.

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